
Signals of Decline: Machine Learning driven Biomarkers for Alzheimer’s Disease

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Abstract

Alzheimer’s disease (AD) is a growing global health challenge, with pathological changes beginning decades before clinical symptoms. Identifying non-invasive and interpretable biomarkers is critical for early intervention. Magnetoencephalography (MEG) provides access to brain oscillatory dynamics and connectivity patterns that are disrupted in mild cognitive impairment (MCI), a prodromal stage of AD. We evaluate five families of MEG-derived features and train an ensemble of 200 feature models, achieving MCI classification with F1 72.43%. We use Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP) to highlight discriminative regions and connections, offering interpretable insights and pointing to potential new markers. Beyond binary detection, model scores correlate with Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) scores, suggesting potential for continuous disease staging. Together, these results establish MEG-based machine learning as a promising avenue for robust and clinically meaningful biomarkers.

1 Introduction

The blessing of longer life prospects, driven by biomedical advances and better access to healthcare, has brought with it a rise in age-related neurological disorders such as Alzheimer’s disease (AD). By 2050, more than **130 million** people [1] are expected to live with AD, imposing a global economic burden of over **\$9 trillion** [2, 3, 4, 5]. AD is a spectrum disorder in which pathological changes emerge long before measurable cognitive decline [6, 7, 8], making early biomarkers essential for intervention. Current clinical biomarkers rely on cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) measurements or PET imaging [7, 9]. While accurate, these methods are costly, invasive, and difficult to scale. Recent progress in plasma biomarkers [10, 11] offers new possibilities, but electrophysiological measures such as EEG and MEG provide an attractive alternative: they are non-invasive, relatively inexpensive, and directly capture neural dynamics known to be disrupted in AD [12, 13, 14]. Particularly, alterations in spectral power and functional connectivity have been linked to mild cognitive impairment (MCI), a prodromal stage of AD. Detecting MCI is therefore critical, as it reveals early disease processes and creates an opportunity for timely intervention, even if not all individuals progress to AD.

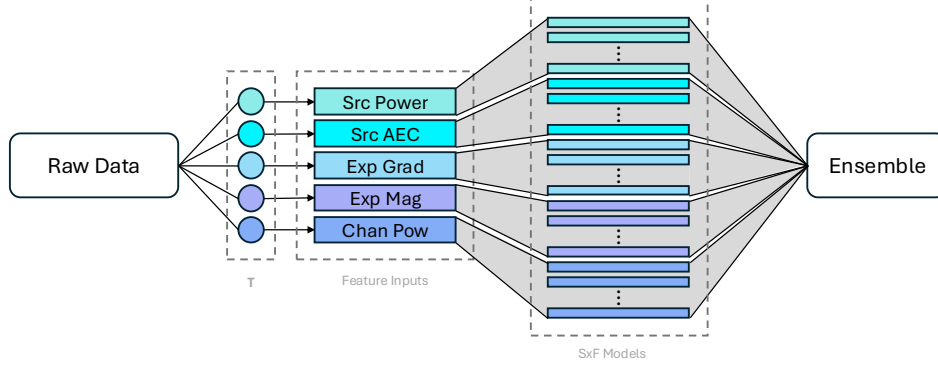


Figure 1: 5 different feature inputs (F) are transformed (T) from the raw data (see section 2.1). We train each feature model with 40 seeds (S). Finally we ensemble the 200 (SxF) models.

In this work, we present a systematic framework to evaluate MEG-derived features for MCI detection and interpretation. We show that an ensemble of 200 models trained across five feature families achieves an F1 score of 72.43%. We demonstrate that SHAP analysis [15] can provide detailed insights into AD processes, allowing for interpretable and clinically meaningful biomarkers. Beyond binary classification, we find that model scores correlate with MMSE [16], pointing to the potential for regression-based disease staging.

2 Method

2.1 Dataset and Feature Extraction

We use the BioFIND dataset [17], a multi-site MEG study comprising 324 resting-state recordings (158 MCI, 166 controls). Data was collected at the University of Cambridge (UK) and the Centre for Biomedical Technology (Spain). Each subject underwent 3-5 minutes of eye-closed resting-state MEG and individual MRI. We make use only of the MEG data. Preprocessing followed Vaghari et al. [17] with recordings epoched into 2-second windows, artifacts removed, and spectra estimated using the Welch method [18]. It is important to note that the MEG system had two types of sensor, namely magnetometers (MAG) and gradiometers (GRD) which capture complementary aspects of the magnetic field. Using this data, we derived five feature sets:

- **Source Power** (Src_Power): Spectral power for α and β frequency bands in 38 cortical parcels (Harvard-Oxford atlas [19]).
- **Source Amplitude Envelope Correlations** (Src_AEC): Connectivity in α (8–12 Hz) and β (12–30 Hz) bands, orthogonalized to mitigate field spread [20].
- **Exponentiated Spectral Slopes** (Exp_Grad, Exp_Mag): Aperiodic slope of the spectrum, extracted from GRD and MAG [21], corresponding to two feature sets.
- **Channel Power** (Chan_Pow): Band-limited power for 102 MAG and 204 GRD sensors across eight frequency bands.

2.2 System Architecture

The base classifier consists of three fully connected layers with 256 hidden units, ReLU activations, and dropout ($p=0.2$) applied after the first and second layers. This is followed by a multi-head self-attention block using 8 attention heads. A residual connection and layer normalization are applied after the attention block resulting in a total of 415K trainable parameters. The input feature datasets were all divided into 80%, 10%, 10% splits for training, validation and testing respectively. All splits were performed strictly subject-wise, ensuring that no information can leak between training, validation, and test sets. We use Adam [22] as optimizer and we perform hyperparameter finetuning on learning rate and batch size per model, applying early stopping with a patience of 20.

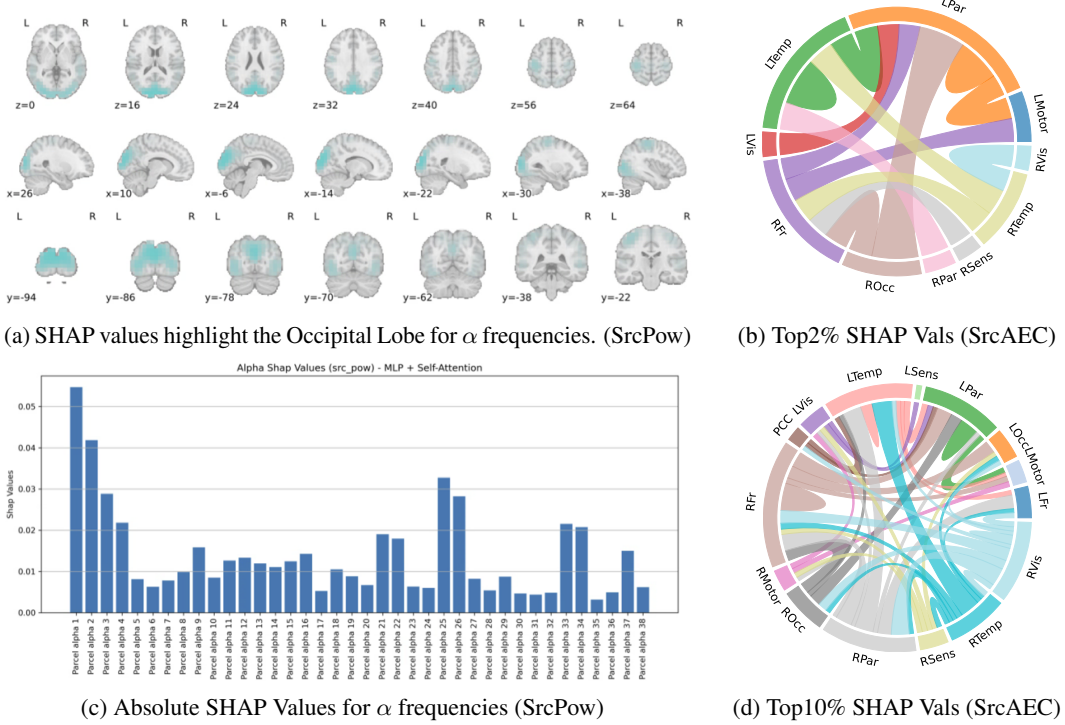


Figure 2: SHAP Values for α frequencies extracted from model ensembles: SrcPow and SrcAEC. Abbreviations denote cortical parcels from the Harvard–Oxford atlas [19] (eg: ROcc = Right Occipital).

For each feature set, we trained 40 classifiers with different seeds to ensure robustness across subjects. Ensembles were then constructed both per feature and across features, yielding 200 models in the final ensemble following the architecture in Figure 1. We report our F1, accuracy, AUC, recall, and precision results for MCI classification.

3 Results

3.1 Classifying Mild Cognitive Impairment

Our method trains different models on different input features corresponding to distinct pieces of information relating to the patients neural dynamics. By transforming the raw data into a single feature we can reduce noise but also relevant information. It then makes sense that individual feature models on average perform significantly lower than performances reported in previous work (the best single feature model Src AEC performing a full 7% lower than Vaghari et al. s 68% Acc [17]). However, soft voting ensembles across seeds for the same feature already begin to show improvements with feature models achieving a boost of up to 4%. Table 1 shows results for feature ensembles as well as the final ensemble of all 200 models resulting in an F1 Score of 72.43%. We achieve state of the art results using a simple and modular architecture that enables for explainable methods such as SHAP.

3.2 Interpretability through SHAP Values

Our individual feature models with shorter dimensionality inputs allow us to use SHAP explanations effectively. Shapley Additive Values can quantify contributions per input, which provides insights on numerous aspects.

For Source AECs they indicate which connections between regions are most informative in identifying MCI, while for Exponentiated Spectral Slopes it shows which sensors report most differing values between controls and patients with MCI. To exemplify the interpretability of our method we

	N Models	F1	AUC	Acc.	Recall	Precision
Source Power	40	67.95	69.65	63.55	79.49	59.33
Source AEC	40	64.12	66.56	61.99	69.87	59.24
Exp Gradiometer	40	65.08	58.35	54.21	87.82	51.7
Exp Magnetometer	40	64.62	53.13	49.84	94.23	49.16
Channel Power	40	66.86	68.33	63.86	75.0	60.31
Ensemble	200	72.43	73.88	68.22	85.9	62.62

Table 1: Test metrics for ensemble models per Feature and across Features.

present SHAP values for the α frequency band on our Src_AEC and Source_Power model ensembles in Figure 2. As can be observed, our SHAP analysis revealed discriminative regions in the α source power band, with occipital parcels emerging as particularly informative (Fig. 2a, 2c).

In the connectivity domain, fronto-parietal and inter-temporal connections showed strong contributions (Fig. 2b, 2d) consistent with established AD pathology [23]. For clarity, panels (b) and (d) display only the highest-ranking SHAP-valued connections (top 2% and top 10% respectively), highlighting the functional connections between brain regions that most increased the model’s probability of predicting MCI.

3.3 Correlation with Levels of Cognitive Function

Beyond achieving state-of-the-art performance in MCI classification with interpretable models, our analysis shows that the model’s predictive scores capture clinically meaningful information about cognitive severity. We use the term *model score* to refer to the sigmoid probability output of each classifier. For the final ensemble, they correspond to the soft-voted mean probability across all 200 models. As shown in 3d, 3e and 3f, model scores are moderately correlated with MMSE scores and align with the expected association between MMSE and MCI status. Notably, while correlations within diagnostic subgroups are weaker, the overall trend demonstrates that higher model scores correspond to lower MMSE performance, suggesting that the model is sensitive not only to categorical impairment but also to gradations of decline. This positions our approach as more than a binary classifier: it provides a signal that could be leveraged to quantify disease severity or track progression. Although the current model is not optimized for regression, these findings highlight its translational potential and motivate future work on continuous modeling of cognitive decline, with implications for staging, monitoring, and personalized dementia interventions.

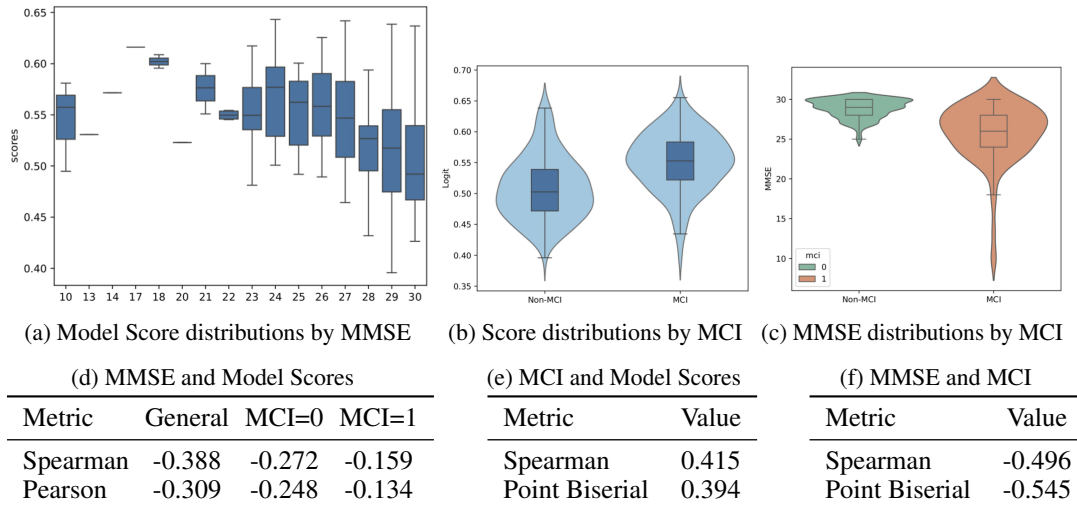


Figure 3: Correlations across our Model Ensemble Scores, MCI labels and MMSE scores.

4 Discussion and Conclusion

This work shows that MEG-based machine learning can yield robust and interpretable biomarkers for Alzheimer’s disease. By evaluating five MEG-derived feature families, we achieved state-of-the-art MCI classification ($F1 = 72.43\%$), while also demonstrating that model scores correlate with MMSE, capturing gradations of cognitive decline. SHAP analyses revealed informative cortical regions and connectivity patterns that reflect disease processes, though further work is required to validate their clinical significance.

Several factors should be considered when interpreting these findings. Our evaluation is based on a single dataset without external or longitudinal validation, MMSE scores have inherent subjectivity, and we did not explicitly examine site-specific effects. Despite these considerations, our results underscore the complementary value of spectral and connectivity features, demonstrating that interpretable, non-invasive MEG measurements can reliably capture structured patterns associated with cognitive impairment.

Overall, our framework highlights the potential of MEG-based machine learning for detecting and characterizing changes in brain function. These findings provide a strong foundation for future work on staging, monitoring, and understanding the progression of cognitive decline, opening new avenues for both research and clinical applications.

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