

000 HYPBRAIN: HYPERBOLIC SPACE GUIDED CROSS- 001 SUBJECT VISION-BRAIN REPRESENTATION 002 LEARNING FRAMEWORK

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011 ABSTRACT

013 Understanding the intricate mappings between visual stimuli and their correspond-
014 ing neural responses is a fundamental challenge in cognitive neuroscience and
015 artificial intelligence. Current vision-brain representation learning approaches
016 predominantly align paired images and functional magnetic resonance imaging
017 (fMRI) responses within a shared Euclidean embedding space. However, Eu-
018 clidean geometry struggles with the exponential complexity of visual/neural hi-
019 erarchies, resulting in semantically undiscriminating embeddings. To overcome
020 this, we propose HypBrain, a novel framework that leverages hyperbolic geometry
021 to learn a shared, cross-subject vision-brain representation. Our framework maps
022 both visual information and multi-subject fMRI responses into a shared Lorentz
023 model, a geometry uniquely suited for embedding hierarchical data. We introduce
024 a new mapping logic where abstract visual concepts are embedded near the hyper-
025 bolic origin, while more specific fMRI responses are situated in the exponentially
026 expanding periphery, naturally capturing the “entailment” relationship between
027 visual and neural data. Notably, we train a hyperbolic encoder on multi-subject
028 fMRI data to integrate both common and unique characteristics of individual brain
029 responses. Experimental results demonstrate that HypBrain not only exhibits ro-
030 bust capabilities in accurately quantifying semantic alignment but also achieves
031 significant advancements in capturing cross-modal semantic relationships solely
032 by optimizing the geometric properties of the embedding space. Our method con-
033 firms the superiority of hyperbolic geometry in aligning cross-modal semantic
034 representations and modeling hierarchical associations, thereby offering an inno-
035 vative perspective in the field of vision-brain representation learning.

036 1 INTRODUCTION

037 The brain, as the core of human cognition and perception of the world, constantly encodes the
038 various external stimuli that we encounter daily. Recent advancements have significantly deci-
039 phered semantic information from brain responses to visual stimuli (Scotti et al., 2023; Takagi &
040 Nishimoto, 2023a; Liu et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024a). These methods utilize
041 functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) (Logothetis, 2008)-acquired neural patterns to learn
042 meaningful brain features, aligning them with image features from pretrained vision-language
043 models (VLMs) to unravel how the brain interprets the visual world. However, existing models primarily
044 employ a holistic, cross-modal learning strategy, often neglecting the intricate hierarchical semantic
045 relationships between visual inputs and brain activity, thereby restricting effective structural model-
046 ing. In fact, image data inherently contains multi-scale semantics, ranging from low-level features
047 like pixels and edges to high-level concepts such as complete objects and scenes. Likewise, fMRI
048 signals exhibit a corresponding multi-layered structure, reflecting the brain’s bottom-up, hierarchical
049 processing from local regions handling basic features to whole-brain integration of advanced infor-
050 mation (Miliotou et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2025a). Therefore, modeling image features and neural
051 responses as hierarchical structures within an embedding space is essential for a more accurate re-
052 flection of the brain’s visual encoding mechanisms.

053 However, Euclidean space struggles with hierarchical data due to its polynomial volume growth,
054 which inadequately accommodates exponentially expanding hierarchical structures. This leads

to compressed low-dimensional concept embeddings and reduced semantic discriminability (Matoušek, 1999). As illustrated in Figure 1(a), while Euclidean distances show semantic similarity between concepts such as “animal” and “cat”, they fail to capture the deeper hierarchical “is-a” relationship. Conversely, with its negative curvature, hyperbolic geometry offers a natural solution as its exponentially expanding representation space is ideal for embedding complex hierarchical information (Gromov, 1987; Sala et al., 2018). As shown in Figure 1(b), hyperbolic embedding effectively represents semantic hierarchies, positioning abstract concepts near the center and concrete ones in the expanding periphery. This property can model the vision-brain relationship. VLM-extracted image semantics are often more abstract than pixel data, while fMRI responses, as brain’s physiological activity to visual stimuli, exhibit higher information specificity. Consequently, the fMRI embedding F_{cat} for viewing a “cat” image is mapped to a position distant from the origin (“animal”), whereas the image embedding I_{cat} is situated closer to the origin. Similarly, for an image containing “cat and dog”, $F_{cat \text{ and } dog}$ and $I_{cat \text{ and } dog}$ are located further from the origin in hyperbolic space than embeddings for “cat” alone. Furthermore, consistent with hyperbolic geometry, fMRI patterns should be intrinsically encompassed within the semantic information of the image. In the projected view of Figure 1(b), $F_{cat \text{ and } dog}$ lies at the intersection of the “cone” regions of I_{cat} (i.e., the yellow region) and I_{dog} (i.e., the purple region), indicating that the specific neural response to an image containing “cat and dog” is hierarchically entailed by the abstract concepts of both “cat” and “dog”.

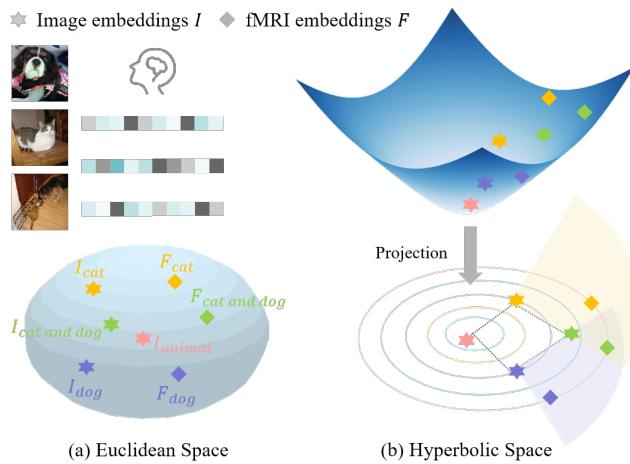


Figure 1: Conceptual comparisons of Euclidean embeddings and hyperbolic embeddings.

Hyperbolic geometry is particularly effective for learning hierarchical representations in diverse modalities such as images and text (Desai et al., 2023; Srivastava & Wu; Yang et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024b; Pal et al., 2024; Gonzalez-Jimenez et al., 2025). However, its potential in modeling the rich semantic relationships between images and brain activity remains largely unexplored. To address this, we propose HypBrain, a hyperbolic space-based vision-brain representation learning method. HypBrain leverages hyperbolic geometry to align neural activity with image representations, explicitly modeling their inherent hierarchical structures. It represents concepts from both modalities using the Lorentz model (Nickel & Kiela, 2018). The learned embeddings are optimized via a novel hyperbolic contrastive loss combined with an entailment loss, capturing both semantic relationships and hierarchical dependencies. Crucially, our approach employs fMRI data from multiple subjects to train a dedicated hyperbolic encoder, enabling the model to learn shared neural response patterns across subjects while retaining subject-specific information, thus addressing a key challenge in cross-subject vision-brain learning.

To validate the effectiveness of the proposed method, we conduct experiments on the Natural Scenes Dataset (NSD) (Allen et al., 2022). Results indicate that HypBrain achieves remarkable success in accurately quantifying semantic alignment and capturing cross-modal semantic relationships by optimizing the geometric properties of the embedding space, outperforming state-of-the-art (SOTA) methods. Compared to their Euclidean counterparts, hyperbolic embeddings better capture semantic correlations and hierarchical relationships between different modalities, demonstrating significant

improvements in downstream tasks. Additionally, our framework performs exceptionally well across various VLMs, showcasing its strong versatility. Our contributions summarize as follows:

- We design a novel architecture with a hyperbolic tokenizer and shared encoder for multi-subject fMRI data, enabling simultaneous learning of individual and cross-subject patterns for generalized hyperbolic features.
- HypBrain leverages a hyperbolic fMRI encoder in conjunction with a frozen VLM to project neural responses and image features into a shared Lorentz manifold, precisely capturing intricate high-level semantic associations between visual stimuli and brain activity.
- To achieve effective cross-modal semantic alignment, we focus on semantic entailment relationships between neural representations and visual stimuli, enhancing the hierarchical discriminability of learned features.
- HypBrain consistently demonstrates either superior or comparable performance across various downstream tasks, which underscores the significant advantages of hyperbolic geometry in effectively modeling complex semantic hierarchies.

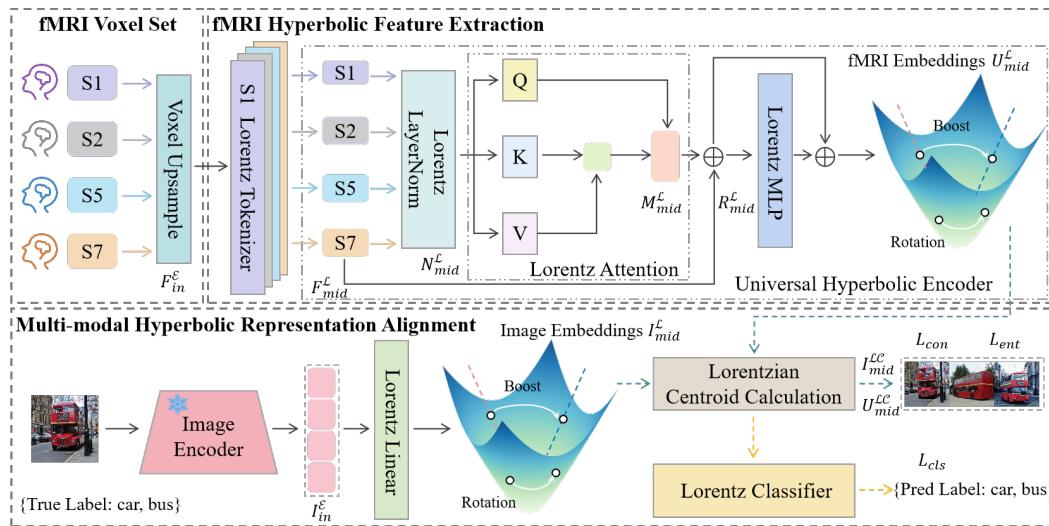


Figure 2: An overview of HypBrain. HypBrain is a cross-subject vision-brain representation learning framework. The framework consists of two main components: **fMRI Hyperbolic Feature Extraction** and **Multi-modal Hyperbolic Representation Alignment**. The former encodes different fMRI responses into unified hyperbolic embeddings through a cross-subject tokenizer and a universal hyperbolic encoder. The latter transforms image features extracted by a VLM image encoder into the Lorentz manifold, then semantically aligns them with the hyperbolic fMRI embeddings.

2 METHODOLOGY

We propose a novel cross-subject vision-brain representation learning scheme, HypBrain, which explicitly captures complex semantic relationships by leveraging the intrinsic hierarchical structure of both fMRI and image data. As shown in Figure 2, our method aligns latent semantic representations from different modalities within a unified hyperbolic space and comprises two key components: fMRI hyperbolic feature extraction and multi-modal hyperbolic representation alignment. For details on hyperbolic geometry and its Lorentz model, which forms the foundational framework for this study, please refer to Appendix B.

2.1 FMRI HYPERBOLIC FEATURE EXTRACTION

To address inter-subject brain activity variability (Gordon et al., 2017) and enhance model generalization, we introduce a novel fMRI encoder. This encoder learns hyperbolic embeddings from multi-subject data. Given the diverse fMRI voxel sizes (Finn et al., 2017), we standardize dimen-

162 sions across datasets using interpolation-based upsampling. The architecture consists of a cross-
 163 subject hyperbolic tokenizer, which extracts subject-specific neural representations, and a universal
 164 hyperbolic encoder, which captures shared response patterns.

166 2.1.1 CROSS-SUBJECT HYPERBOLIC TOKENIZER

168 Initial brain signals $F_{in}^{\mathcal{E}} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times (v+1)}$, with v as the unified voxel dimension, are projected into
 169 a hyperbolic manifold using a Lorentz linear layer. This generates a rich token representation,
 170 denoted as $F_{in}^{\mathcal{L}} \in \mathbb{L}^t, \mathbb{R}^{(t+1) \times (v+1)}$. To capture subject-specific information, $F_{in}^{\mathcal{L}}$ is then fed into
 171 a subject-specific tokenizer, yielding the target embedding $F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} \in \mathbb{L}^d, \mathbb{R}^{t \times (d+1)}$. Specifically, the
 172 spatial component $F_{in-space}^{\mathcal{L}}$ is extracted from $F_{in}^{\mathcal{L}}$, linearly transformed, and concatenated with the
 173 recomputed temporal component $F_{in-time}^{\mathcal{L}}$ to form the subject-specific fMRI embedding $F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}}$. Our
 174 operation, diverging from a full Lorentzian transformation (Chen et al., 2021), is defined as follows:

$$175 \quad F_{in-time}^{\mathcal{L}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{c_{in}} + \|W^T F_{in-space}^{\mathcal{L}} + b\|_2^2} \quad (1)$$

$$178 \quad F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} = [F_{in-time}^{\mathcal{L}}, W^T F_{in-space}^{\mathcal{L}} + b] \cdot \sqrt{\frac{c_{mid}}{c_{in}}} \quad (2)$$

180 Here, W represents the weight matrix, b is the bias term, and c_{in} and c_{mid} denote the curvature
 181 parameters of the input and output manifolds, respectively.

183 2.1.2 UNIVERSAL HYPERBOLIC ENCODER

184 The universal hyperbolic encoder maps brain semantic embeddings across subjects into a shared
 185 latent space. We employ a Lorentz geometry-based Transformer encoder for fMRI representations.

187 **Lorentz Layer Normalization.** To maintain the properties of fMRI embedding $F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}}$ in the hy-
 188 perbolic manifold, we apply a Lorentz normalization layer, as described in (Yang et al., 2024). The
 189 spatial component $F_{mid-space}^{\mathcal{L}}$ undergoes standard layer normalization and is then concatenated with
 190 the temporal component $F_{mid-time}^{\mathcal{L}}$ to obtain the new hyperbolic feature, $N_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}}$.

191 **Lorentz Multi-head Self-attention.** Within the encoder, the Lorentz multi-head self-attention
 192 mechanism (Chen et al., 2021) is crucial for capturing intricate fMRI feature dependencies in hy-
 193 perbolic geometry. $N_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}}$ is linearly transformed into query (Q), key (K), and value (V) spaces,
 194 subsequently projected as points onto the Lorentz manifold, expressed as:

$$195 \quad Q^{\mathcal{L}} = N_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} \otimes^{c_{mid}} W^Q, \quad K^{\mathcal{L}} = N_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} \otimes^{c_{mid}} W^K, \quad V^{\mathcal{L}} = N_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} \otimes^{c_{mid}} W^V \quad (3)$$

196 In this formulation, W^Q , W^K , and W^V denote the weight matrices. The $\otimes^{c_{mid}}$ operation is analo-
 197 gous to the hyperbolic linear transformations described in equations 1 and 2. Attention weights are
 198 derived by computing the Lorentzian inner product between $Q^{\mathcal{L}}$ and $K^{\mathcal{L}}$, then normalized using a
 199 Softmax function, and subsequently used for a weighted summation of $V^{\mathcal{L}}$. This entire process is
 200 delineated as follows:

$$201 \quad \alpha_{ij} = \text{Softmax}(\langle(Q^{\mathcal{L}})^T, (K^{\mathcal{L}})^T \rangle_{\mathbb{L}}) \quad (4)$$

$$203 \quad \text{Att}_i \odot^{c_{mid}} V_j^{\mathcal{L}} := \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_{ij} V_j^{\mathcal{L}}}{\sqrt{c_{mid} \left\| \sum_{k=1}^N \alpha_{ik} V_k^{\mathcal{L}} \right\|_2^2}} \quad (5)$$

207 Here, $\odot^{c_{mid}}$ signifies the weighted sum in the hyperbolic space, and Att_i represents the i -th row of the
 208 attention matrix within the Lorentz model. After the Lorentz centroid operation, the outputs from
 209 all attention heads are concatenated along the feature dimension. A subsequent hyperbolic linear
 210 transformation then yields the final feature representation $M_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} \in \mathbb{L}^d, \mathbb{R}^{t \times (d+1)}$.

211 **Lorentz Residual Connection.** To facilitate deeper features learning within the model, we in-
 212 incorporate a residual connection (He et al., 2025) between the output of the hyperbolic multi-head
 213 self-attention mechanism and the original fMRI embedding $F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}}$. It is formulated as:

$$214 \quad R_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} = \frac{F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} + \beta M_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}}}{\sqrt{c_{mid} \left| \langle F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} + \beta M_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}}, F_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} + \beta M_{mid}^{\mathcal{L}} \rangle_{\mathbb{L}} \right|}} \quad (6)$$

216 Here, β balances the weights of the two feature sets.
 217

218 **Lorentz MLP.** We introduce a Lorentz MLP network to enhance the model’s expressive power.
 219 This network integrates non-linearity through intrinsic Lorentz linear layers and activation functions
 220 (Yang et al., 2024), which are crucial for extracting richer, higher-level semantic information from
 221 the input feature R_{mid}^L . Subsequently, the output of the MLP layer is residually connected with
 222 R_{mid}^L , yielding the universal fMRI embedding $U_{mid}^L \in \mathbb{L}^d, \mathbb{R}^{t \times (d+1)}$, which provides a more robust
 223 representation for cross-modal learning.
 224

224 2.2 MULTI-MODAL HYPERBOLIC REPRESENTATION ALIGNMENT 225

226 VLMs leverage large-scale multi-modal learning to extract rich visual semantic features within a
 227 shared semantic space (Ghosh et al., 2024). These features not only effectively predict neural re-
 228 sponses in the human higher-order visual cortex, but their hierarchical processing mechanisms also
 229 align closely with the visual information processing in the human brain (Wang et al., 2023; Subra-
 230 maniam et al., 2024). Inspired by this, we align visual features extracted from a frozen VLM with their
 231 corresponding fMRI neural representations in a hyperbolic space. Our objective is to unify image
 232 and fMRI embeddings within this shared space, uncovering hierarchical vision-brain relationships
 233 via hyperbolic contrastive and entailment losses.
 234

235 **Lorentzian Centroid Calculation.** Given the extracted image features $I_{mid}^E \in \mathbb{R}^{t \times (p+1)}$, we first
 236 transform them from Euclidean geometry to hyperbolic geometry using a Lorentz linear layer, re-
 237 sulting in $I_{mid}^L \in \mathbb{L}^d, \mathbb{R}^{t \times (d+1)}$. To extract more representative features for each sample, we then
 238 compute the Lorentz centroids for both the universal fMRI embeddings U_{mid}^L and the image embed-
 239 dings I_{mid}^L . The specific process is described as follows:
 240

$$I_{mid}^{LC} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N I_j^L}{\sqrt{c_{mid} \left\| \sum_{k=1}^N I_k^L \right\|_2^2}}, \quad U_{mid}^{LC} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N U_j^L}{\sqrt{c_{mid} \left\| \sum_{k=1}^N U_k^L \right\|_2^2}} \quad (7)$$

244 Here, both I_{mid}^{LC} and U_{mid}^{LC} have a dimensionality of $(d+1)$.
 245

246 **Hyperbolic Contrastive Learning.** In cross-modal learning, aligning and comprehending the rela-
 247 tionships between diverse modalities frequently employs the contrastive learning paradigm (Radford
 248 et al., 2021). This study leverages hyperbolic embeddings to align visual data with correspond-
 249 ing brain activity. Given a batch of N samples, we utilize the negative Lorentzian distance as a simi-
 250 larity metric to compute the contrastive loss for image-fMRI data pairs. This optimization objective is
 251 formally defined by integrating a learnable temperature parameter τ and the Softmax function:
 252

$$L_{con}(I, U) = - \sum_{i \in N} \log \frac{\exp \left(-\frac{d_{\mathbb{L}}(I_i^{LC}, U_i^{LC})}{\tau} \right)}{\sum_{k=1, k \neq i}^N \exp \left(-\frac{d_{\mathbb{L}}(I_i^{LC}, U_k^{LC})}{\tau} \right)} \quad (8)$$

255 Here, for a given image embedding I_i^{LC} , its negative samples are chosen from other fMRI em-
 256 beddings $U_k^{LC} (k \neq i)$ within the same batch. Conversely, if an fMRI hyperbolic embedding is the
 257 anchor, the loss for negative samples from the batch’s image features is defined as $L_{con}(U, I)$. The
 258 hyperbolic contrastive loss, which integrates this bidirectional contrastive process, is formulated as:
 259

$$L_{con} = \frac{1}{2} (L_{con}(I, U) + L_{con}(U, I)) \quad (9)$$

260 This objective promotes the convergence of matched image and fMRI features on the Lorentz man-
 261 ifold, while separating mismatched ones, achieving effective cross-modal alignment.
 262

263 **Hyperbolic Entailment Learning.** In addition to the contrastive loss, we introduce an entailment
 264 loss to reinforce the partial order relationship between different embeddings (Vendrov et al., 2015).
 265 The image embedding represents the model’s generalized understanding of an image’s core seman-
 266 tics, whereas the fMRI embedding captures more specific neural activity patterns. As depicted in
 267 Figure 5 in the Appendix B, an entailment cone (Ganea et al., 2018) is defined for the image em-
 268 bedding $I_{mid}^{LC} (I_{cat})$ within the hyperbolic space (i.e., the yellow region). Any fMRI embedding U_{mid}^{LC}
 269 (F_{cat}) falling within this region represents more specific information, indicating its ability to explain

270 or predict these particular image stimuli. The aperture angle (Le et al., 2019; Desai et al., 2023) of
 271 the conical region is defined as follows:
 272

$$273 \quad \text{aper}(I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}) = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{2K}{\sqrt{c_{\text{mid}} \|I_{\text{mid-space}}^{\mathcal{LC}}\|}} \right) \quad (10)$$

$$274$$

$$275$$

276 Here, the constant $K = 0.1$ provides stable boundary conditions near the origin.
 277

278 To learn the partial order relationship within this space, specific concepts must reside inside the
 279 entailment cone defined by more general concepts. For this purpose, we introduce the entailment
 280 loss (Le et al., 2019; Desai et al., 2023), which encourages any fMRI embedding located outside the
 281 entailment cone to move towards the boundary of the region delimited by the image embedding:
 282

$$283 \quad L_{\text{ent}}(I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}, U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}) = \max(0, \text{ext}(I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}, U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}) - \text{aper}(I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}})) \quad (11)$$

$$284$$

$$285$$

286 Where $\text{ext}(x, y)$ denotes the external angle of point y with respect to x , calculated as:
 287

$$288 \quad \text{ext}(I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}, U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{U_{\text{mid-time}}^{\mathcal{LC}} + I_{\text{mid-time}}^{\mathcal{LC}} c_{\text{mid}} \langle I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}, U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}} \rangle_{\mathbb{L}}}{\|I_{\text{mid-space}}^{\mathcal{LC}}\| \sqrt{(c_{\text{mid}} \langle I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}, U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}} \rangle_{\mathbb{L}})^2 - 1}} \right) \quad (12)$$

$$289$$

$$290$$

$$291$$

292 The total loss for our model is a weighted sum of L_{con} and L_{ent} :
 293

$$294 \quad L = L_{\text{con}} + \lambda L_{\text{ent}} \quad (13)$$

$$295$$

$$296$$

297 **Lorentz Classifier.** Furthermore, the aggregated neural representation $U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}$ guides multi-label pre-
 298 dictions through a Lorentz multinomial logistic regression (MLR) layer (Bdeir et al., 2023). This
 299 classifier computes the signed hyperbolic distance from input features to learned hyperplanes on the
 300 Lorentz manifold, yielding logits for each category via the formula 22 presented in the Appendix B.
 301

3 EXPERIMENTS

3.1 IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

300 We conduct experiments on the NSD (Allen et al., 2022), applying uniform preprocessing to fMRI
 301 signals across subjects (S1, S2, S5, S7). HypBrain’s performance is compared against SOTA meth-
 302 ods on various downstream tasks and evaluated in different geometric spaces. The VLMs employed
 303 in our experiments include CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023), and DeepSeek-
 304 Janus-Pro (Chen et al., 2025b). Comprehensive details regarding the dataset, experimental setups,
 305 training parameters, and model configurations are provided in Appendix C.
 306

3.2 MULTI-LABEL PREDICTION

307 Multi-label prediction aims to decode the brain’s semantic representation of specific visual concepts
 308 in observed images. Table 1 shows our method consistently outperforms existing cross-subject
 309 decoding approaches (Zhou et al., 2024; Chehab et al., 2022) on all metrics. Notably, HypBrain
 310 achieves a substantial improvement over the CLIP-MUSED model (Zhou et al., 2024), with a 10.6%
 311 increase in mean Average Precision (mAP) and a 5.2% increase in the area under the receiver
 312 operating characteristic curve (AUC). The findings demonstrate HypBrain’s capability to both mitigate
 313 inter-subject variability and yield hyperbolic features that enhance classification discriminability. As
 314 shown in Table 1, the consistently diminished prediction performance of the Euclidean-based model
 315 clearly demonstrates the superiority of hyperbolic representations for this task. Qualitative diagrams
 316 and all subjects results are presented in Appendix D.1.
 317

3.3 BRAIN-IMAGE RETRIEVAL

318 The retrieval evaluation assesses the amount of image-specific information captured within brain
 319 embeddings. We conduct two experiments: image retrieval, which uses a brain embedding to re-
 320 trieve the most similar image embedding, and brain retrieval, the reverse process. As shown in Table
 321 2, our proposed method achieves highly competitive results against various SOTA models, including
 322

324
 325 Table 1: Quantitative comparison of multi-label prediction performance against SOTA methods and
 326 across embedding spaces, averaged across 4 subjects. Bold font signifies the best performance.

Manifold	Method	mAP \uparrow	AUC \uparrow	Hamming \downarrow
Euclidean	SMODEL-CNN	0.150	0.767	0.039
	SMODEL-ViT	0.156	0.755	0.038
	EMB	0.220	0.825	0.035
	CLIP-MUSED	0.258	0.877	0.030
Euclidean	EucBrain	0.279	0.917	0.027
Hyperbolic	HypBrain	0.364	0.929	0.026

337 **subject-specific models** like MindReader (Lin et al., 2022), BrainDiffuser (Ozcelik & VanRullen,
 338 2023), MindEye (Scotti et al., 2023), and Lite-Mind (Gong et al., 2024). Our cross-subject ap-
 339 proach, HypBrain, achieves image and brain retrieval accuracies of 87.8% and 87.4%, respectively.
 340 Compared to MindReader (Lin et al., 2022), HypBrain-DeepSeek achieves improvements of 76.8%
 341 and 38.4% in retrieval accuracy for both retrieval modalities. This suggests that hyperbolic space
 342 is more effective at capturing the inherent hierarchical structures and complex relationships within
 343 fMRI and image data, thereby reducing the semantic gap between different modalities. While the
 344 MindEye model (Scotti et al., 2023) achieves superior retrieval performance, it relies on a large
 345 diffusion model (Ramesh et al., 2022) to learn a conditional distribution from fMRI to image em-
 346 beddings for each subject. This approach is more akin to data generation that fits low-level image
 347 details rather than pure feature alignment, and thus comes with significant computational costs and
 348 data dependency (1,003.64M parameters). A crucial finding is that without this generative prior,
 349 the MindEye model’s performance drops significantly to 88.8% in image retrieval and 84.9% in
 350 brain retrieval (MindEye (Backbone + Projector)). In contrast, our HypBrain model, which uses a
 351 lightweight hyperbolic encoder and a frozen VLM, achieves precise semantic alignment by solely
 352 optimizing the geometric properties of the embedding space. This approach is uniquely positioned
 353 to capture high-level, abstract semantic hierarchies and their containment relationships. We argue
 354 that for vision-brain research, modeling these high-level hierarchies is more valuable than simply
 355 reproducing pixel-level details, offering a more interpretable and scalable perspective for the field.

356 We further investigate the performance of different embedding spaces in the retrieval task (Table 2).
 357 Using cosine similarity in Euclidean space, we find that hyperbolic embedding space significantly
 358 outperforms Euclidean space in retrieval accuracy. Specifically, HypBrain-BLIP-2 achieves image
 359 retrieval accuracy of 85.3% and brain retrieval accuracy of 84.9%, marking improvements of 2.4%
 360 and 13.9% over EucBrain-BLIP-2. This suggests that the latent hierarchical structural properties
 361 within the data receive more discriminative embedded representations in hyperbolic geometry. No-
 362 tably, the advantages of hyperbolic space extend to all three HypBrain variants, underscoring the
 363 broad applicability of our framework. Detailed results are available in Appendix D.2.

364 3.4 ABLATION STUDIES

365 In this section, we conduct ablation studies to further analyze and validate the components of our
 366 proposed method. The VLM used in the experiment is DeepSeek-Janus-Pro (Chen et al., 2025b).

367 **Efficacy of Architectural Design.** We first investigate the impact of fMRI encoder architectures on
 368 model performance. As shown in Table 3, our method consistently outperforms the MLP-based ar-
 369 chitecture (comprising Lorentz MLP and Lorentz residual connection) in both multi-label prediction
 370 and retrieval tasks. This demonstrates that the Lorentz Transformer more adeptly captures complex
 371 nonlinear relationships within hyperbolic fMRI data, enhancing the model’s expressive power.

372 **Effectiveness of the Entailment Loss.** We analyze the effectiveness of the entailment loss in guid-
 373 ing model learning, as detailed in Table 3. Removing the entailment loss (denoted as w/o L_{ent}) leads
 374 to a drop in image retrieval accuracy from 87.8% (for our HypBrain model) to 87.1%, indicating its
 375 beneficial role in vision-brain representation learning. The complete model consistently achieves
 376 superior performance across both metrics, emphasizing the necessity of synergistic contributions
 377 from multiple loss functions to enhance model performance.

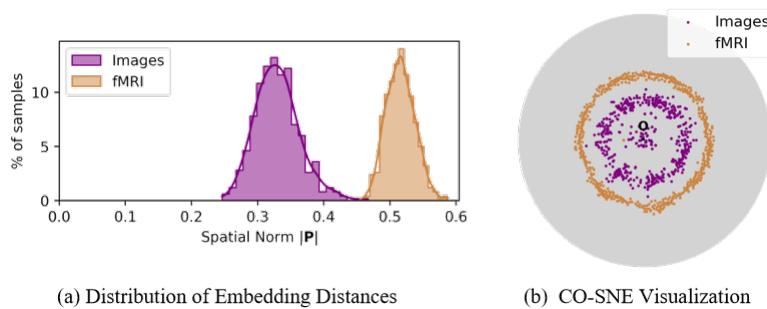
378
 379 Table 2: Comprehensive retrieval performance comparison of SOTA methods, HypBrain, and Eu-
 380 cBrain variants across embedding spaces. All results are averaged across 4 subjects, expect Min-
 381 dReader (Lin et al., 2022) and MindEye (Backbone + Projector) (Scotti et al., 2023), which only
 382 analyzed S1 because the original text only provided results for Subject 1. Bold font signifies the
 383 best performance. * denotes a subject-specific model.

Manifold	Method	Parameters	Image \uparrow	Brain \uparrow
Euclidean	MindReader*	2.34M	11.0%	49.0%
	BrainDiffuser*	4.5B	21.1%	30.3%
	MindEye*	1,003.64M	93.6%	90.1%
	MindEye (Backbone + Projector)*	996M	88.8%	84.9%
	Lite-Mind*	12.49M	87.7%	91.1%
Euclidean	EucBrain-CLIP	89.74M	62.3%	70.5%
	EucBrain-BLIP-2	90.13M	82.9%	71.0%
	EucBrain-DeepSeek	90.07M	78.1%	74.4%
Hyperbolic	HypBrain-CLIP	39.41M	76.2%	76.3%
	HypBrain-BLIP-2	39.60M	85.3%	84.9%
	HypBrain-DeepSeek	39.41M	87.8%	87.4%

397
 398 Table 3: Performance comparison of ablation study. All results are averaged across 4 subjects. Bold
 399 font signifies the best performance.

Method	Multi-label prediction			Retrieval	
	mAP \uparrow	AUC \uparrow	Hamming \downarrow	Image \uparrow	Brain \uparrow
Efficacy of Architectural Design					
MLP	0.322	0.911	0.026	85.7%	84.5%
Effectiveness of the Entailment Loss					
w/o L_{ent}	-	-	-	87.1%	87.3%
Impact of Lorentz Curvature					
1.0	0.332	0.915	0.027	87.7%	87.3%
2.0	0.310	0.913	0.029	87.7%	83.4%
3.0	0.248	0.893	0.029	86.7%	83.2%
HypBrain	0.364	0.929	0.026	87.8%	87.4%

414 **Impact of Lorentz Curvature.** In the Lorentz model, the setting of curvature is crucial for ef-
 415 fective embedding representation learning. To identify the optimal configuration, we compare the
 416 performance impact of a fixed versus a learnable c_{mid} parameter. Table 3 demonstrates that treating
 417 curvature as a learnable parameter consistently achieves superior results in both tasks.



430 Figure 3: Visualization of the learned hyperbolic space by HypBrain-DeepSeek model. Elements
 431 closer to the origin exhibit higher semantic hierarchy and coarser granularity.

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3.5 VISUALIZATION OF HYPERBOLIC SPACE

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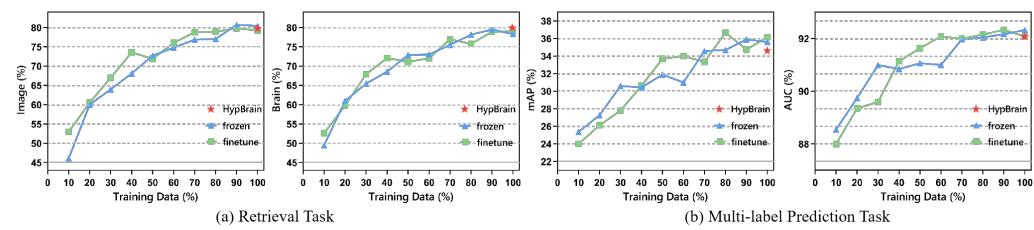
To illuminate the semantic distribution of fMRI and image embeddings, we undertake a low-dimensional visualization of the learned hyperbolic space. Specifically, we randomly sample 1K embeddings from the training set and analyze their norm distribution through a histogram. Subsequently, these embeddings are mapped into a low-dimensional space using CO-SNE (Guo et al., 2022) for better observation. Figure 3(a) clearly shows that image embeddings are positioned closer to the center of the hyperbolic space compared to fMRI embeddings. This supports the effectiveness of using L_{ent} to guide the learning of a partial order relationship between brain activity and images. Furthermore, Figure 3(b) reveals a distinct semantic separation and a clear hierarchical structure in the distribution of both image and corresponding fMRI embeddings. This indicates that our method successfully captures semantic associations and hierarchical relationships between different modalities within the hyperbolic space. Results for other models can be found in Appendix D.3.

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3.6 CROSS-SUBJECT GENERALIZATION ANALYSIS

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High-resolution fMRI signal acquisition presents challenges for large-scale data collection due to its time-consuming and labor-intensive nature. To overcome this, we employ a cross-subject training strategy, facilitating effective generalization to new subjects with limited data. We validate this by training the model on data from three subjects (S1, S2, S5) and evaluating its generalization on a new subject (S7) using varying data proportions. Specifically, we train a subject-specific hyperbolic tokenizer for S7, followed by two settings: freezing and fine-tuning the universal hyperbolic encoder. Figure 4 illustrates that the fine-tuning approach achieves performance comparable to the HypBrain-DeepSeek model with only 50% of the data. This highlights the model’s ability to learn from other subjects and integrate minimal new subject information, effectively addressing data scarcity and demonstrating strong generalization. Moreover, fine-tuning slightly surpasses the frozen encoder, adapting better to individual differences in new subjects. More results are in Appendix D.4.

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467 Figure 4: Cross-subject generalization analysis across different downstream tasks.
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4 CONCLUSION

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In this paper, we introduce HypBrain, a novel hyperbolic space-based framework for cross-subject vision-brain representation learning. By aligning neural responses and image representations in a shared Lorentz manifold, our method effectively captures cross-modal semantic hierarchical relationships. We design a hyperbolic fMRI encoder that extracts both shared and individual-specific brain patterns. To achieve robust semantic alignment, we incorporate a novel optimization strategy combining hyperbolic contrastive loss and partial order entailment constraints, yielding more discriminative hyperbolic embeddings. Extensive experiments demonstrate HypBrain consistently surpasses Euclidean-based approaches and performs comparably to or surpasses existing SOTA methods. Our visualization analyses further confirm HypBrain’s capability to geometrically embed multi-modal hierarchical structures in hyperbolic space. Our work not only opens a new perspective for vision-brain representation learning but also underscores the immense potential of hyperbolic geometry in modeling complex cross-modal semantic relationships. While our research primarily focuses on optimizing the geometric properties of the embedding space for high-level semantic alignment, we acknowledge the potential of integrating generative models to enhance multi-modal mappings. Future work will explore a hybrid framework that leverages the benefits of hyperbolic geometry for hierarchy while also incorporating generative priors for richer, low-level data fidelity.

486 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT
487488 Our source code is publicly available at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/HypBrain-83F1/>. In all experiments, we use public datasets. Further details on the VLM em-
489 beddings, training parameters, and model configurations used in the experiments can be found in
490 Appendix C.
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664 APPENDIX

665 A RELATED WORK

666
 667
 668 **Vision-brain Semantic Alignment.** Learning the semantic relationship between fMRI neural ac-
 669 tivity and visual stimuli has garnered significant research interest in recent years. Existing studies
 670 primarily focus on constructing this semantic alignment within a shared latent space (Scotti et al.,
 671 2023; Ozcelik & VanRullen, 2023; Han et al., 2024; Xia et al., 2024). With the advent of VLMs,
 672 several approaches map fMRI modalities into pretrained embedding spaces, either through direct
 673 regression (Takagi & Nishimoto, 2023a; Ozcelik & VanRullen, 2023; Takagi & Nishimoto, 2023b)
 674 or contrastive learning (Xia et al., 2024). MindEye (Scotti et al., 2023), for instance, encodes images
 675 using CLIP (Radford et al., 2021) and subsequently projects corresponding fMRI data into the CLIP
 676 feature space, achieving robust image retrieval performance. Furthermore, some research (Han et al.,
 677 2024) treats brain signals as an emerging modality, learning alignments between multi-modal inputs
 678 via generative training. However, these methods typically rely on Euclidean spaces to capture sim-
 679 ple semantic similarities, fundamentally overlooking the intricate hierarchical structures inherent in
 680 the data. To address this, we conceptualize image data and their corresponding fMRI responses as
 681 entities possessing distinct levels of abstraction. We embed these into a unified hyperbolic space for
 682 semantic alignment, thereby overcoming the limitations associated with Euclidean geometry.

683
 684 **Learning in Hyperbolic Space.** Hyperbolic manifolds are gaining increasing attention in deep
 685 learning due to their effectiveness in modeling hierarchical structures. Initially, MERU (Desai et al.,
 686 2023) combines entailment learning and CLIP methods to learn embeddings in hyperbolic space,
 687 thereby capturing underlying vision-language hierarchical relationships. With the advancement of
 688 hyperbolic neural networks, recent works apply hyperbolic models to various modalities, including
 689 images, text, video, and medical imaging (Srivastava & Wu; Yang et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2024b;
 690 Pal et al., 2024; Kwon et al., 2024; Gonzalez-Jimenez et al., 2025; Li et al., 2025). Notably, Alvaro
 691 Gonzalez-Jimenez et al. (Gonzalez-Jimenez et al., 2025) introduce a hyperbolic space-based frame-
 692 work for medical anomaly detection and localization, which presents a significant breakthrough in
 693 this field. HyperVLM (Srivastava & Wu) further explores hierarchical relationships between images
 694 and text through hyperbolic Poincaré geometry properties, establishing a novel contrastive learning
 695 paradigm. Furthermore, hyperbolic learning is also integrated into video retrieval tasks, leveraging
 696 its hierarchical modeling capabilities to achieve SOTA performance (Li et al., 2025). Despite these
 697 breakthroughs, the potential of hyperbolic geometry in learning vision-brain semantic relationships
 698 remains largely underexploited. To address this critical gap, we propose HypBrain, a model that cap-
 699 tures intricate semantic hierarchical associations between different modalities in hyperbolic space,
 700 offering a new perspective for vision-brain representation learning.

701 **Hyperbolic Geometry and Brain.** Hyperbolic geometry, a non-Euclidean geometry characterized
 702 by negative curvature, offers significant advantages in handling hierarchical data (Nickel & Kiela,

2018; Ratcliffe, 2006; Bridson & Haefliger, 2013; Chamberlain et al., 2017). Many cognitive functions of the brain also exhibit clear bottom-up hierarchical structures (Joseph et al., 2024). Taking the visual system as an example, fMRI signals under natural image stimulation clearly reveal the brain’s hierarchical processing from pixels to meaning. This process involves an exponential expansion of information, transitioning from local brain region activation for low-level features to distributed network activities representing high-level semantics (Bill et al., 2020; Huff et al., 2018). Given this inherent correspondence, we posit that employing hyperbolic space to describe these cognitive processes is more natural and accurate than traditional Euclidean space. Inspired by this, we explore the effectiveness of hyperbolic latent geometry in modeling the intrinsic hierarchical structure of the brain and visual information in this work.

B PRELIMINARIES

In this section, we introduce concepts related to hyperbolic geometry briefly. Unlike Euclidean and spherical spaces, hyperbolic space is characterized as a Riemannian manifold with constant negative curvature. A key property of hyperbolic space is that the volume of its subregions increases exponentially with their radius (Bridson & Haefliger, 2013). This characteristic makes hyperbolic geometry particularly well-suited for studying and representing data that inherently possesses hierarchical or tree-like structures (Krioukov et al., 2010). Among various models for hyperbolic space, we adopt the Lorentz model (Nickel & Kiela, 2018; Mishne et al., 2023) as the foundational framework due to its numerical stability and computational efficiency.

Lorentz Model. The Lorentz model defines a d -dimensional Riemannian manifold, denoted as \mathbb{L}_d , which is a d dimensional hyperboloid embedded within a $d + 1$ -dimensional Minkowski space. It is formally described as:

$$\mathbb{L}_d = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid \langle x, x \rangle_{\mathbb{L}} = -\frac{1}{c}, x_0 > 0 \right\} \quad (14)$$

Here, c represents the curvature of the space, and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathbb{L}}$ is the Lorentzian inner product defined for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ as:

$$\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathbb{L}} = -x_0 y_0 + \sum_{i=1}^d x_i y_i \quad (15)$$

As established in (Chen et al., 2021), the 0-th element of vector x corresponds to the temporal dimension, while the remaining components constitute the spatial dimensions. Consistent with the definition of \mathbb{L}_d , the temporal component x_0 is determined by its spatial counterpart x_{space} , specifically through the relationship:

$$x_{\text{time}} = x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{c} + \|x_{\text{space}}\|^2} \quad (16)$$

Where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the Euclidean norm and $x_{\text{space}} = x_{1:d}$.

Tangent Spaces. A tangent space at a point $x \in \mathbb{L}_d$ is a Euclidean space that is orthogonal to it, defined as:

$$T_x \mathbb{L}^d := \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} \mid \langle y, x \rangle_{\mathbb{L}} = 0 \} \quad (17)$$

The tangent space at the origin $O = \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{c}}, 0, \dots, 0 \right)^T$ is denoted as $T_O \mathbb{L}_d$.

Exponential Map. To perform operations within the hyperbolic space, we utilize the exponential map, which projects vectors from the tangent space onto the hyperbolic manifold. Specifically, given a vector a in the tangent space $T_x \mathbb{L}^d$, its exponential map is implemented as:

$$\exp_x^c(a) = \cosh(\sqrt{c}\|a\|_{\mathbb{L}})x + \frac{\sinh(\sqrt{c}\|a\|_{\mathbb{L}})}{\sqrt{c}\|a\|_{\mathbb{L}}}a \quad (18)$$

Logarithmic Map. Conversely, the logarithmic map facilitates the projection from the Lorentz model back to the tangent space:

$$\log_x^c(y) = \frac{\cosh^{-1}(-c\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathbb{L}})}{\sqrt{(-c\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathbb{L}})^2 - 1}}(y + c\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathbb{L}}x) \quad (19)$$

Geodesics. In hyperbolic space, geodesics represent the shortest paths connecting two points, analogous to straight lines in Euclidean geometry. Within the Lorentz model, a geodesic is defined by the intersection of a plane passing through the origin and the hyperboloid. The Lorentzian distance between two points, x and y , is calculated as:

$$d_{\mathbb{L}}(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{c}} \cosh^{-1}(-c\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathbb{L}}) \quad (20)$$

Lorentzian Centroid. The Lorentzian centroid is defined in the hyperbolic space \mathbb{L}^d by minimizing the weighted squared Lorentzian distance, which yields the following expression:

$$\mu = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m w_i x_i}{\left\| \sum_{i=1}^m w_i x_i \right\|_{\mathbb{L}}} \quad (21)$$

Here, $x_i \in \mathbb{L}^d$ denotes a point in the hyperbolic space, and w_i represents its corresponding non-negative weight.

Lorentz MLR layer. This appendix provides the detailed computational formula for the Lorentz classifier, which is crucial for multi-label prediction as discussed in the main text. The logits for each category are yielded via the following formula:

$$\text{logits}(U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}) = \text{sign}(\alpha) \cdot \gamma \cdot \left(\sqrt{c_{\text{out}}} \cdot \left| \sinh^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{c_{\text{out}}}} \cdot \frac{\alpha}{\gamma} \right) \right| \right) \quad (22)$$

Here, α is the projection of $U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}$ onto the hyperplane, γ is the Lorentz norm of the hyperplane's normal vector, and c_{out} corresponds to output manifold curvature. The classifier undergoes training using a cross-entropy loss function.

Hyperbolic Entailment Learning. This figure conceptually illustrates the entailment cone (shown in yellow) in hyperbolic space, originating from an image embedding $I_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}$ (I_{cat}). It demonstrates how an fMRI embedding $U_{\text{mid}}^{\mathcal{LC}}$ (F_{cat}) falling within this cone represents a more specific neural pattern, indicating its hierarchical relationship with the image's generalized semantics. The cone's aperture angle defines the scope of this entailment, supporting our use of an entailment loss.

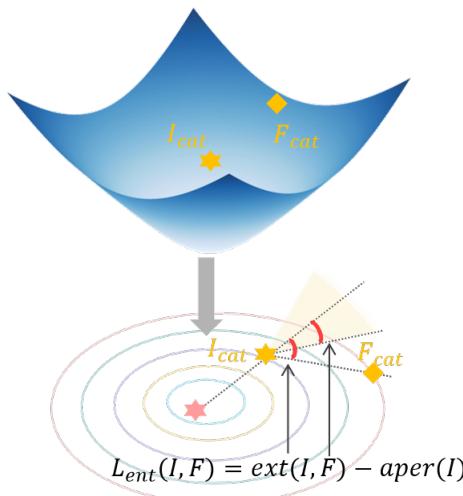


Figure 5: Intuitive examples of entailment loss and related concepts.

C EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

In this section, we provide a comprehensive description of the experimental details. This includes a thorough explanation of the datasets utilized, the specific training configurations employed, and the implementation specifics for all downstream tasks. Furthermore, we detail the corresponding evaluation benchmarks and metrics used to assess performance.

810 C.1 DATASET AND PROCESSING
811

812 The Natural Scenes Dataset (NSD) (Allen et al., 2022) stands as the most extensive publicly acces-
813 sible functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) dataset, encompassing high-resolution 7-Tesla
814 fMRI scans acquired from eight participants. However, this study utilizes data exclusively from a
815 subset of four participants (S1, S2, S5, S7). For the training set, each participant contributes 8,859
816 image stimuli and 24,980 fMRI trials. Conversely, the test set for each participant comprises 982
817 image stimuli and 2,770 fMRI trials. A crucial distinction is that the image stimuli in the training
818 set are unique to each participant, whereas the image stimuli in the test set are consistent across
819 all participants. Furthermore, owing to inherent variations in brain size and structure, the number
820 of voxels within regions of interest (ROIs) exhibits variability across participants, typically ranging
821 from approximately 13,000 to 16,000 voxels per participant. To facilitate a standardized analysis,
822 these fMRI signals undergo subsequent upsampling, ensuring a uniform voxel count of 18,000 for
823 all participants. Within the NSD, all images employed during fMRI recording originate from the
824 COCO dataset (Lin et al., 2014). The COCO dataset comprises a total of 80 distinct categories.
825 Each image viewed by participants contains multiple COCO labels. Specific category and label
826 information is detailed in Table 4.

827 Table 4: Statistical information of elements for ‘primary categories’ and ‘multi labels’ in NSD.
828

830 Category	831 COCO Label
832 person	833 person
833 vehicle	834 bicycle, car, motorcycle, airplane, bus, train, truck, boat
834 outdoor	835 traffic light, fire hydrant, stop sign, parking meter, bench
835 animal	836 bird, cat, dog, horse, sheep, cow, elephant, bear, zebra, giraffe
836 accessory	837 backpack, umbrella, handbag, tie, suitcase
837 sports	838 frisbee, skis, snow board, sports ball, kite, baseball bat, baseball glove, skateboard, surfboard, tennis racket
838 kitchen	839 bottle, wine glass, cup, fork, knife, spoon, bowl
839 food	840 banana, apple, sandwich, orange, broccoli, carrot, hot dog, pizza, donut, cake
840 furniture	841 chair, couch, potted plant, bed, dining table, toilet
841 electronics	842 tv, laptop, mouse, remote, keyboard, cell phone
842 appliance	843 microwave, oven, toaster, sink, refrigerator
843 indoor	844 book, clock, vase, scissors, teddy bear, hair drier, toothbrush

845 C.2 BASELINE COMPARISONS
846

847 To demonstrate the superiority of Lorentzian representations over Euclidean counterparts, we com-
848 pare HypBrain’s performance against existing SOTA methods in multi-label prediction and retrieval
849 tasks. Simultaneously, by evaluating HypBrain’s performance in both geometric spaces, we further
850 elucidate the superiority of hyperbolic representations. The VLMs employed in this study include
851 CLIP (Radford et al., 2021), BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023), and DeepSeek-Janus-Pro (Chen et al., 2025b).

852 C.3 TRAINING CONFIGURATIONS
853

854 We employ a customized optimization strategy. Specifically, Euclidean parameters are optimized
855 using the AdamW optimizer (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017), while hyperbolic parameters are updated
856 with the Riemannian Adam optimizer (Bécigneul & Ganea, 2018). Both parameter types are ini-
857 tialized with a learning rate of 2e-4, which adaptively decays based on validation performance, with
858 a weight decay coefficient of 0.1. Training is conducted on a single NVIDIA GeForce RTX 4090
859 GPU, utilizing a batch size of 32. The models are trained for 200 epochs for retrieval tasks and 100
860 epochs for classification tasks. The hyperparameter λ is set to 0.01.

861 C.4 MODEL CONFIGURATIONS
862

863 Our model uses a 512-dimensional Lorentz manifold for hyperbolic space transformation. The
864 number of tokens t for fMRI representations is adjusted according to the visual feature dimensions
865 extracted by the VLMs. Specifically, the image feature sizes extracted from the CLIP (Radford et al.,

864 2021), BLIP-2 (Li et al., 2023), and DeepSeek-Janus-Pro (Chen et al., 2025b) image encoders are
 865 257×1024 , 257×1408 , and 576×1024 , respectively. The learnable curvature parameters, c_{mid}
 866 and c_{out} , are initialized to 1 and 2, respectively, and are constrained within the range [0.1, 10] to
 867 prevent training instability. Conversely, c_{in} is a fixed curvature parameter with a value of 1. The
 868 temperature parameter τ is initialized to 0.07 and clamped at 0.01. All these scalar values are learned
 869 in logarithmic space.

870 C.5 EVALUATION METRIC

871 C.5.1 MULTI-LABEL PREDICTION

872 The multi-label semantic classification task seeks to simulate the brain’s coarse-to-fine multi-level
 873 semantic understanding in visual cognition, leading to richer and more accurate image descriptions.
 874 We employ three commonly used evaluation metrics in the field of multi-label classification: mean
 875 Average Precision (mAP), the area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) and
 876 Hamming distance.

877 **mAP.** mAP evaluates the average precision across all labels in a multi-label classification task. It
 878 reflects the model’s overall performance in ranking predictions correctly.

879 **AUC.** AUC measures the model’s ability to discriminate between classes for each label in both
 880 binary and multi-label classification tasks. A higher value, approaching 1, indicates better perfor-
 881 mance.

882 C.5.2 BRAIN-IMAGE RETRIEVAL

883 Retrieval is to search for pertinent results in response to a provided query from a large database, often
 884 considered as a form of fine-grained, instance-level classification. We adopt accuracy as the primary
 885 evaluation metric. For each test sample, we randomly select 299 images from the remaining 981
 886 images in the test set and calculate the negative Lorentz distance between the voxel embeddings and
 887 300 images. The retrieval accuracy refers to the proportion of successful retrieval of corresponding
 888 images in the 982 voxel embeddings of the test set. We adjust the random number seed of 30
 889 randomly selected images to average the accuracy of all samples.

890 D ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTS

891 This section comprehensively demonstrates the superiority of HypBrain through additional experi-
 892 ments, presenting both quantitative and qualitative results.

893 D.1 MULTI-LABEL PREDICTION

902 Figure 6 presents the qualitative prediction results of HypBrain. The model exhibits varying perfor-
 903 mance when predicting different labels for Subject 1 (S1). Specifically, labels with relatively higher
 904 frequencies in visual responses, such as “person”, “clock”, and “sink” achieve high average preci-
 905 sion scores of 96.2%, 51.6%, and 74.0%, respectively. Conversely, labels with lower frequencies,
 906 including “toaster”, “hair dryer”, and “parking meter” show comparatively lower average precision
 907 scores of 3.6%, 2.5%, and 1.7%. Furthermore, Table 5 provides a detailed overview of the classi-
 908 fication results for all subjects (S1, S2, S5, and S7) across different geometric spaces, highlighting
 909 the significant superiority of the hyperbolic representation space. Figure 7 additionally illustrates
 910 the results of three evaluation metrics for different subjects using the HypBrain method. It is evi-
 911 dent that different subjects demonstrate high consistency in multi-label prediction capabilities, with
 912 a difference in AUC scores of less than 1.8%. This further indicates the robust and generalizable
 913 nature of our model for multi-label prediction tasks.

914 D.2 BRAIN-IMAGE RETRIEVAL

915 To evaluate the performance of the HypBrain framework in retrieval tasks, we conduct experiments
 916 on four subjects (S1, S2, S5, and S7), and the results are presented in Table 6. We compare sev-
 917 eral variants of HypBrain with two prominent methods: MindEye (Scotti et al., 2023), and Lite-

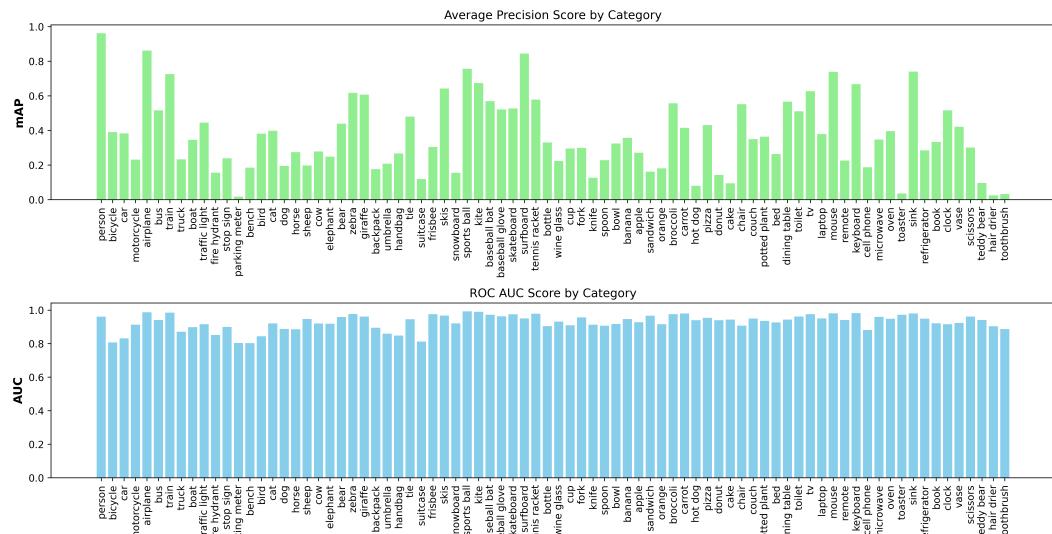


Figure 6: Multi-label prediction metrics for Subject 1 across 80 labels from the NSD.

Table 5: Quantitative comparison of HypBrain multi-label prediction performance across all subjects and embedding spaces.

Manifold	Subject	mAP \uparrow	AUC \uparrow	Hamming \downarrow
Euclidean	S1	0.278	0.916	0.026
	S2	0.268	0.916	0.027
	S5	0.305	0.926	0.026
	S7	0.263	0.912	0.027
Hyperbolic	S1	0.370	0.928	0.026
	S2	0.345	0.925	0.026
	S5	0.398	0.939	0.026
	S7	0.342	0.921	0.027

Mind (Gong et al., 2024). The experimental results demonstrate that the HypBrain method exhibits competitive performance in both image and brain retrieval accuracy across different subjects. To further investigate the influence of different embedding spaces on retrieval performance, Table 7 illustrates the retrieval performance of various subjects within distinct embedding spaces. The results consistently indicate the superiority of hyperbolic geometry over Euclidean space for these tasks. Importantly, the consistent strong performance across different HypBrain variants underscores the versatility and robustness of our proposed framework.

Figure 8 illustrates the retrieval results for both MindEye (Scotti et al., 2023) and our proposed HypBrain-DeepSeek method on Subject 5 (S5). The upper panel displays the reference image along with the Top-5 retrieved images from the image retrieval task, while the lower panel presents the Top-5 results for brain retrieval. Furthermore, Figure 9 details the Top-1 retrieval performance across different subjects for both retrieval tasks. Consistent with our quantitative analysis, subjects S1, S2, and S5 achieve high Top-1 accuracy in both image and brain retrieval. Although Subject S7 exhibits slightly lower performance compared to other subjects, this does not diminish the strong generalization capabilities demonstrated by our method.

D.3 VISUALIZATION OF HYPERBOLIC SPACE

We present low-dimensional visualizations of the hyperbolic spaces learned by two additional HypBrain model variants: HypBrain-CLIP and HypBrain-BLIP-2. These visualizations are depicted in

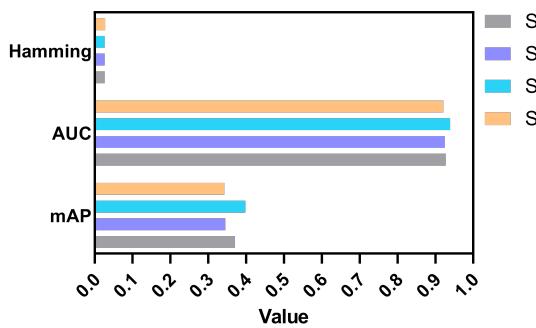


Figure 7: Comparison of multi-label prediction performance of the HypBrain method across different subjects.

Table 6: Quantitative comparison of the retrieval performance of HypBrain against SOTA methods across all subjects. * denotes a subject-specific model.

Method	Subject	Image \uparrow	Brain \uparrow
MindEye*	S1	97.2%	94.7%
MindEye (Backbone + Projector)*		88.8%	84.9%
Lite-Mind*		94.6%	97.4%
HypBrain-CLIP		78.7%	79.6%
HypBrain-BLIP-2		88.1%	85.8%
HypBrain-DeepSeek		90.2%	89.0%
MindEye*	S2	97.1%	93.9%
Lite-Mind*		94.1%	98.2%
HypBrain-CLIP		76.8%	74.0%
HypBrain-BLIP-2		84.4%	85.5%
HypBrain-DeepSeek		89.4%	88.4%
MindEye*	S5	90.7%	85.7%
Lite-Mind*		80.5%	86.3%
HypBrain-CLIP		80.5%	81.5%
HypBrain-BLIP-2		89.5%	89.3%
HypBrain-DeepSeek		91.5%	92.7%
MindEye*	S7	89.4%	85.9%
Lite-Mind*		81.7%	82.3%
HypBrain-CLIP		69.7%	69.9%
HypBrain-BLIP-2		79.2%	79.2%
HypBrain-DeepSeek		80.2%	79.7%

Figure 10. Consistent with our observations in Figure 3, the image embeddings in both variants tend to cluster closer to the center of the hyperbolic space, while the fMRI embeddings are distributed in more peripheral regions. This pattern suggests that the effective learning of partial order relationships among different concepts remains robust, even when alternative pretrained models are employed for extracting image features. Furthermore, both HypBrain-CLIP and HypBrain-BLIP-2 demonstrate clear semantic separation and hierarchical structures within their respective image and fMRI embedding spaces. This consistency underscores the generalizability of our proposed method in capturing semantic associations across diverse multi-modal data.

D.4 CROSS-SUBJECT GENERALIZATION ANALYSIS

A notable advantage of the HypBrain method is its ability to generalize effectively to unseen subjects. This means our model can learn efficiently and perform well even with limited data from entirely new participants. This capability is crucial given the inherent challenges and high costs

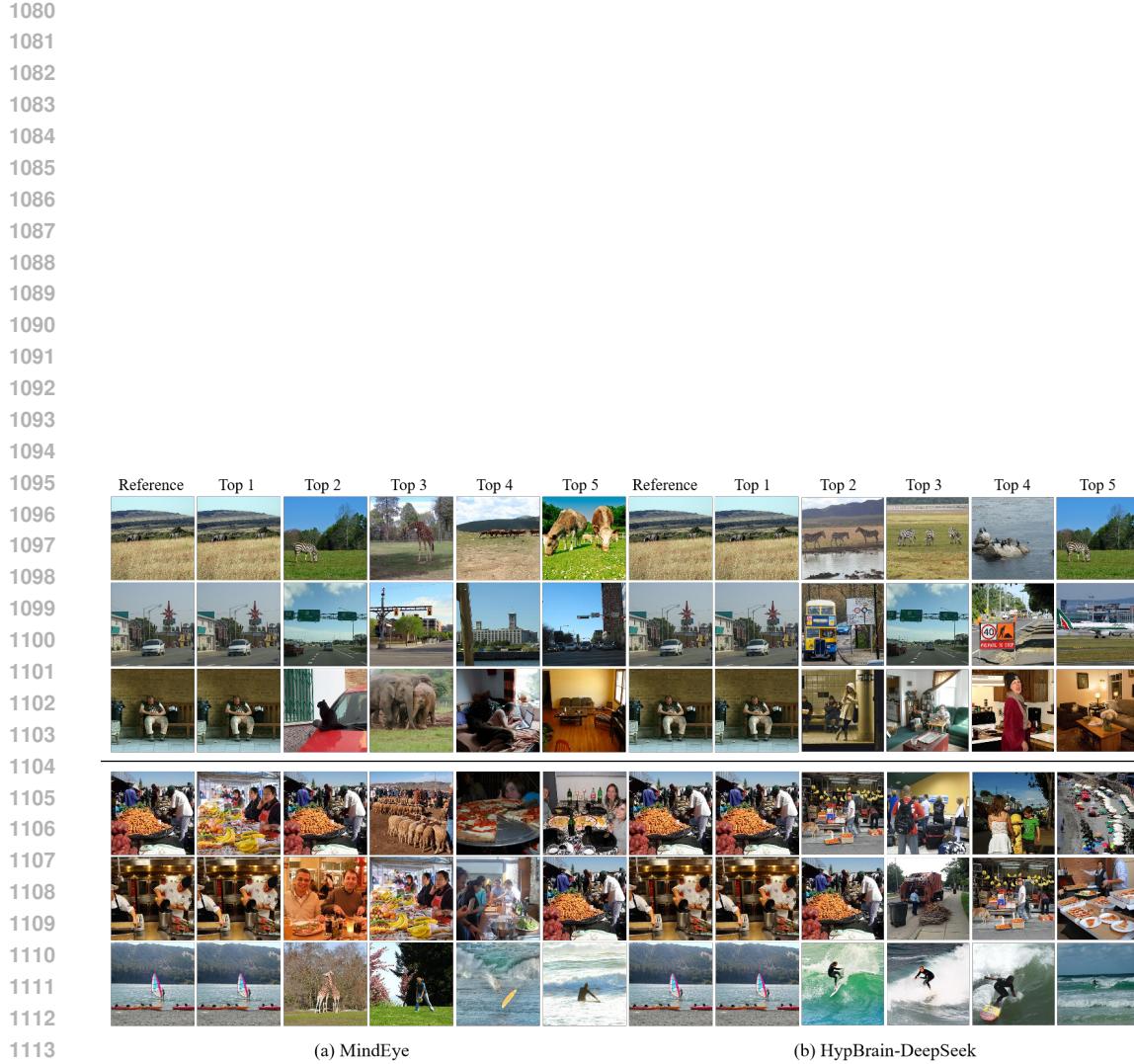
1026
 1027 Table 7: Retrieval performance comparison across Euclidean (EucBrain-) and Hyperbolic
 1028 (HypBrain-) embedding spaces and methods for all subjects.

Manifold	Method	Subject	Image \uparrow	Brain \uparrow
Euclidean	EucBrain-CLIP	S1	70.6%	77.4%
	EucBrain-BLIP-2		87.0%	77.0%
	EucBrain-DeepSeek		83.1%	81.3%
Hyperbolic	HypBrain-CLIP	S1	78.7%	79.6%
	HypBrain-BLIP-2		88.1%	85.8%
	HypBrain-DeepSeek		90.2%	89.0%
Euclidean	EucBrain-CLIP	S2	65.6%	74.1%
	EucBrain-BLIP-2		86.1%	72.8%
	EucBrain-DeepSeek		81.6%	76.4%
Hyperbolic	HypBrain-CLIP	S2	76.8%	74.0%
	HypBrain-BLIP-2		84.4%	85.5%
	HypBrain-DeepSeek		89.4%	88.4%
Euclidean	EucBrain-CLIP	S5	57.3%	67.2%
	EucBrain-BLIP-2		82.7%	69.9%
	EucBrain-DeepSeek		78.1%	72.6%
Hyperbolic	HypBrain-CLIP	S5	80.5%	81.5%
	HypBrain-BLIP-2		89.5%	89.3%
	HypBrain-DeepSeek		91.5%	92.7%
Euclidean	EucBrain-CLIP	S7	55.6%	63.1%
	EucBrain-BLIP-2		75.8%	64.3%
	EucBrain-DeepSeek		69.6%	67.1%
Hyperbolic	HypBrain-CLIP	S7	69.7%	69.9%
	HypBrain-BLIP-2		79.2%	79.2%
	HypBrain-DeepSeek		80.2%	79.7%

1055
 1056 associated with fMRI data acquisition, as it significantly reduces the reliance on extensive data sam-
 1057 pling from new subjects. To validate this generalization ability, we employ a strategy similar to
 1058 the main experiments. We first pretrained the model on fMRI datasets from three subjects to learn
 1059 universal brain activity patterns. Subsequently, we fine-tuned this pretrained model using varying
 1060 proportions of data (ranging from 10% to 100%) from other subjects. This approach allows us to
 1061 observe the model’s generalization performance at the individual subject level. Figure 11 and Figure
 1062 12 visually illustrate the model’s cross-subject generalization capabilities. They detail the model’s
 1063 performance under two conditions: one where the universal hyperbolic encoder is frozen, and an-
 1064 other where it is fine-tuned. Consistent with the generalization observed for subject S7 in the main
 1065 text, our tests on subjects S1, S2, and S5 also demonstrate that the fine-tuning approach achieves
 1066 performance comparable to the HypBrain-DeepSeek model trained with the complete dataset, using
 1067 only 50% of the data. This outcome further underscores the significant superiority of our cross-
 1068 subject strategy, indicating that the HypBrain model not only learns effectively from limited data
 1069 but also maintains strong generalization ability and robustness across different individuals.

1070 E THE USE OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS (LLMs)

1071
 1072 During the preparation of this paper, a Large Language Model (LLM) is utilized as a general-purpose
 1073 assist tool, primarily for polishing and optimizing the writing. The LLM assists in improving the
 1074 text’s grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and overall fluency.



1116 Figure 8: Retrieval examples of (a) MindEye (Scotti et al., 2023) and (b) HypBrain-DeepSeek from
 1117 NSD for Subject 5. The image retrieval (top) is to find the correct image embedding given a brain
 1118 embedding. Conversely, the brain retrieval (bottom) aims to locate the correct brain embedding
 1119 given an image embedding.

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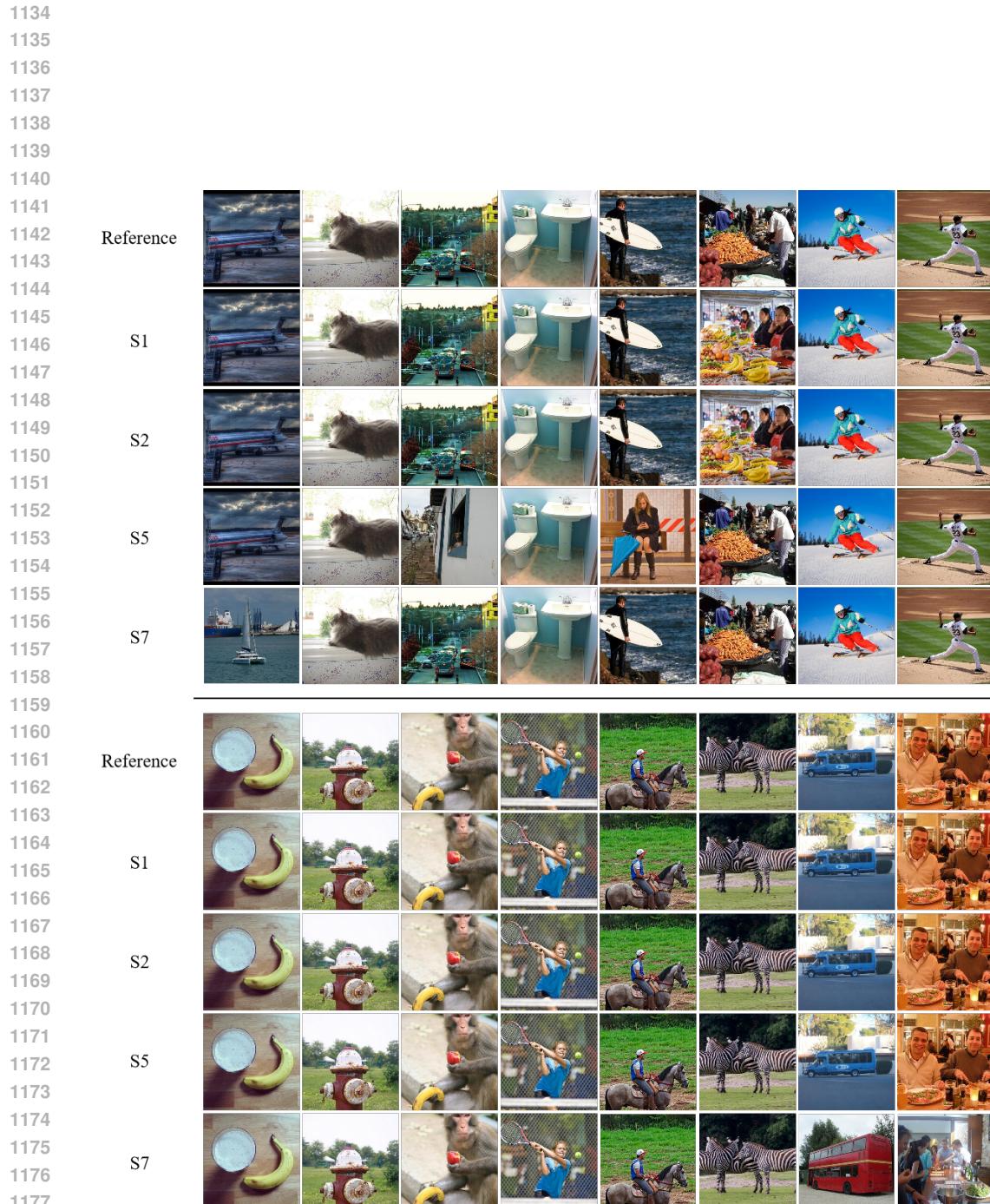
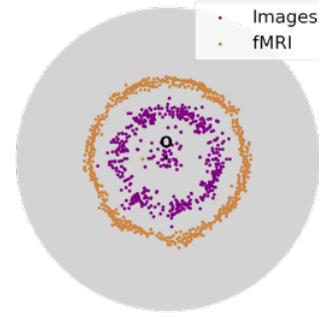
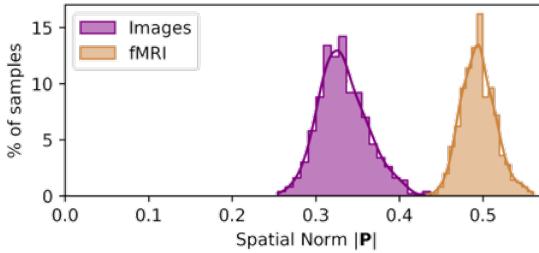
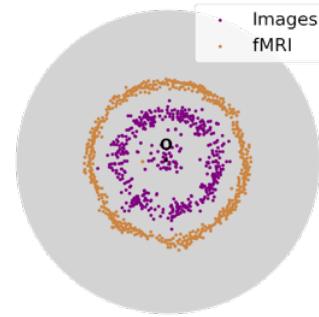
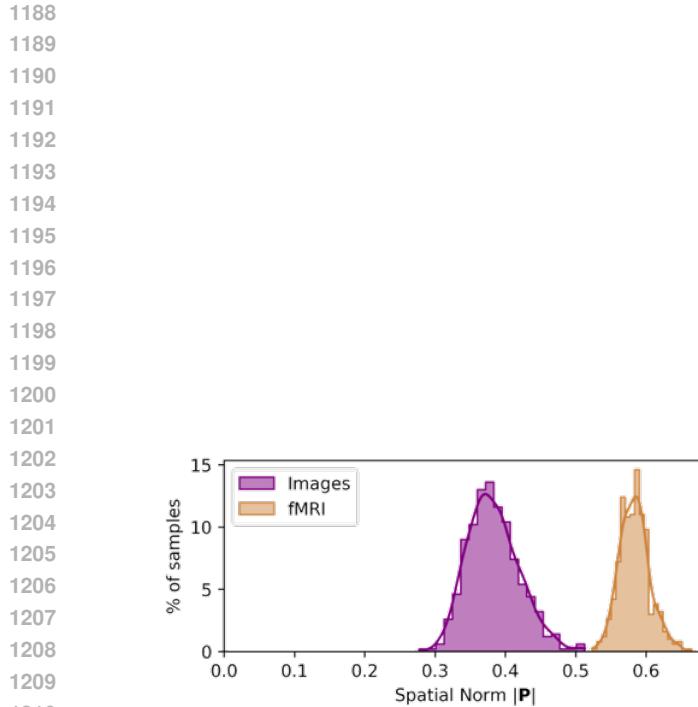


Figure 9: Sample Top-1 retrieval results for different subjects using the cross-subject HypBrain-DeepSeek method. The top section of the figure displays image retrieval results, while the bottom section shows brain retrieval results.



1227 Figure 10: Visualization of the learned hyperbolic spaces across various HypBrain model variants.
 1228 The top row represents the HypBrain-CLIP model, and the bottom row represents the HypBrain-
 1229 BLIP-2 model.

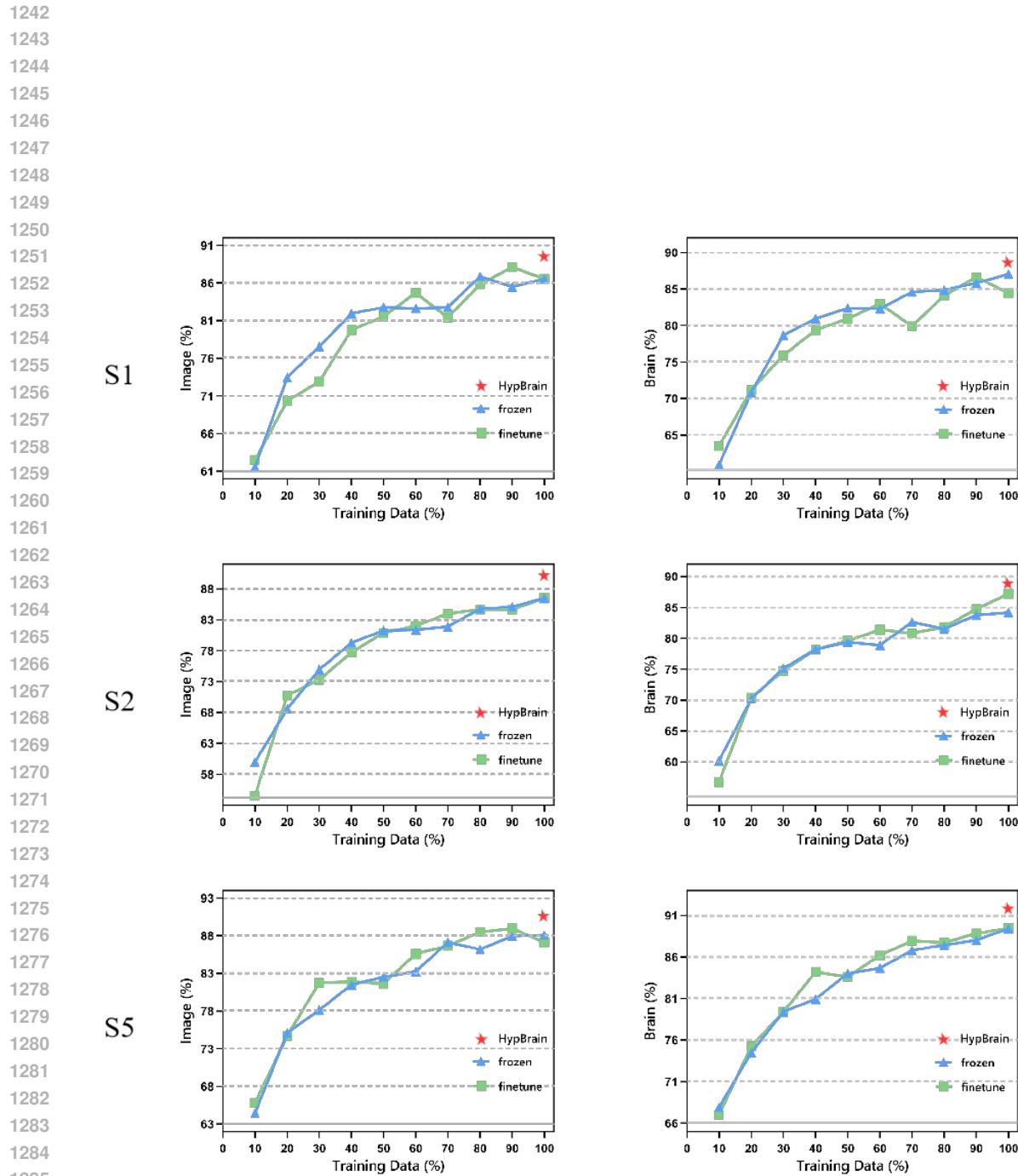


Figure 11: Cross-subject generalization of HypBrain-DeepSeek on unseen subjects in the retrieval task.

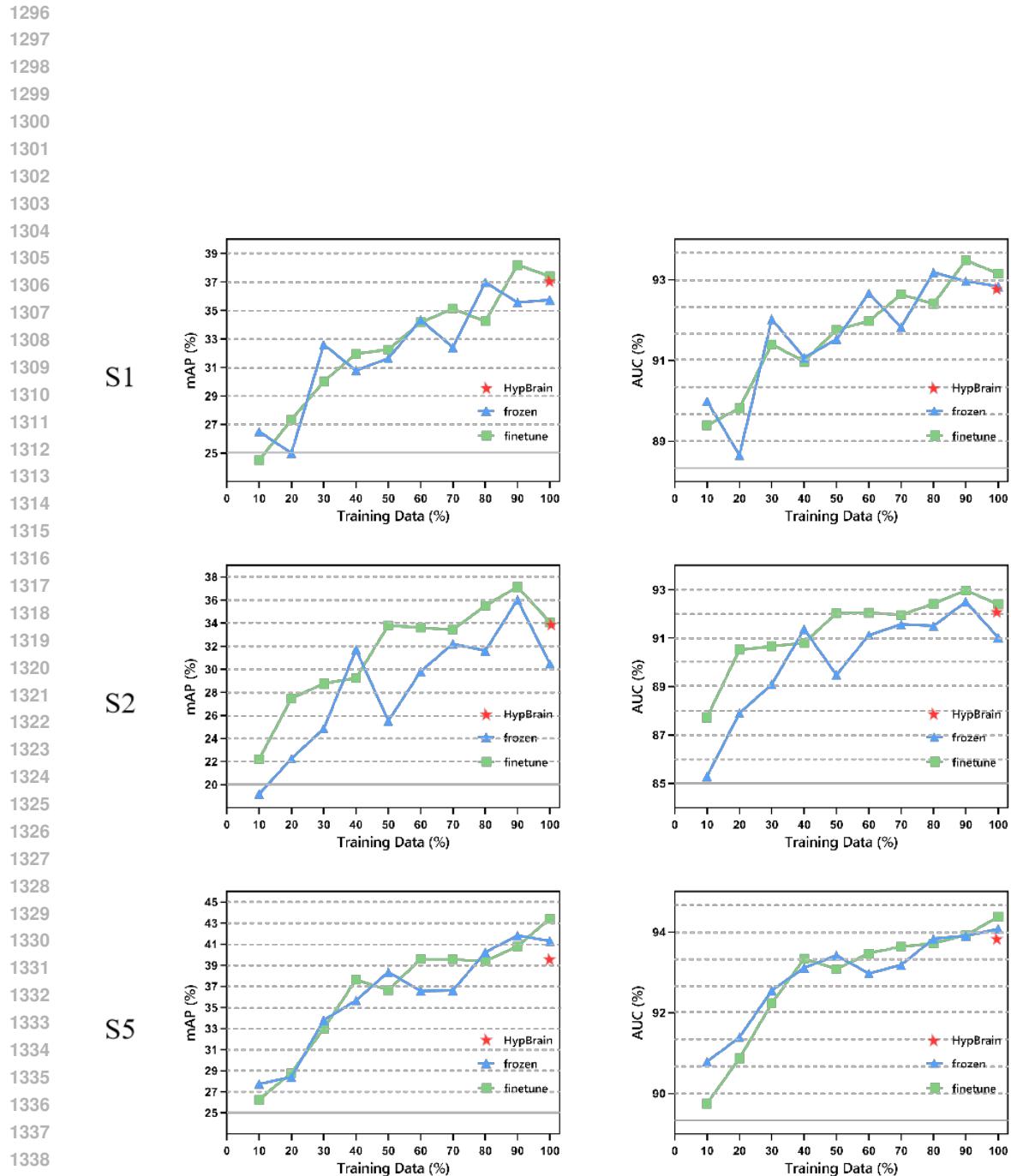


Figure 12: Cross-subject generalization of HypBrain-DeepSeek on unseen subjects in the multi-label prediction task.