
In Silico Modelling of Neurodegeneration Using Deep Convolutional Neural Networks

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Abstract

1 Although current research aims to use and improve deep learning networks by
2 applying knowledge about the structure and function of the healthy human brain
3 and vice versa, the potential of using such networks to model neurodegenerative
4 diseases remains largely understudied. In this work, we present a novel feasibility
5 study modeling dementia in silico with deep convolutional neural networks. There-
6 fore, deep convolutional neural networks were fully trained to perform visual object
7 recognition, and then progressively injured in two distinct ways. More precisely,
8 damage was progressively inflicted mimicking neuronal as well as synaptic injury.
9 Synaptic injury was applied by randomly deleting weights in the network, while
10 neuronal injury was simulated by removing full nodes or filters in the network.
11 After each iteration of injury, network object recognition accuracy was evaluated.
12 Saliency maps were generated using the uninjured and injured networks and quanti-
13 tatively compared using the structural similarity index measure for test set images to
14 further investigate the loss of visual cognition. The quantitative evaluation revealed
15 cognitive function of the network progressively decreased with increasing injury
16 load. This effect was more pronounced for synaptic damage. As damage increased,
17 the model focus shifted away from the main objects in the images and became more
18 dispersed. This shift in attention was quantitatively evidenced by a decrease in the
19 structural similarity index measure comparing the saliency maps of corresponding
20 uninjured and injured models, as a function of injury. The results of this study
21 provide a promising foundation to develop in silico models of neurodegenerative
22 diseases using deep learning networks. The effects of neurodegeneration found
23 for the in silico model are especially similar to the loss of visual cognition seen in
24 patients with posterior cortical atrophy.

25 1 Introduction

26 Amidst the current explosion of big data, deep learning models have emerged as integral tools for
27 solving many complex classification, regression, and object recognition problems [Lo Vercio et al.,
28 2020]. More recently, deep convolutional neural networks (DCNNs) are also increasingly explored
29 as potential tools to model information processing in the mammalian brain [Yamins and DiCarlo,
30 2016]. This is assumed possible because DCNNs were originally inspired by the neuron and synaptic
31 structure found in the mammalian visual cortex [Rawat and Wang, 2017]. To date, studies have
32 explored similarities in neural activations between DCNNs and primate brains, and have reported
33 positive correlations between responses in specific areas of these models and the primate ventral
34 visual stream[Yamins et al., 2014].

35 Currently, machine learning research primarily aims to advance the biological similarity of DCNNs
36 to produce more brain-like artificial neural network models with the hope of improving their task-

37 specific performance. Meanwhile, computational neuroscience research is primarily interested in
38 using DCNNs as a computational model of the healthy brain [Yamins and DiCarlo, 2016, Kriegeskorte,
39 2015, Richards et al., 2019, Peters and Kriegeskorte, 2021]. In this research project, we explored
40 the potential use of employing DCNNs as in silico models of neurodegenerative diseases, a largely
41 unexplored research direction. Specifically, this work provides one of the first proof of concepts of an
42 in silico model of posterior cortical atrophy (PCA). PCA is a disorder associated with Alzheimer’s
43 disease and is characterized by visual dysfunction such as visual agnosia and simultanagnosia
44 [da Silva et al., 2017]. In the case of visual agnosia, patients lose the ability to visually recognize and
45 identify familiar objects without losing the ability to see the object. Simultanagnosia is marked by
46 failure to perceive multiple visual locations simultaneously or to shift attention from one object to
47 another. PCA is caused by the accelerated degeneration and thinning of the associated visual cortices
48 (i.e., V1, V2, V3, V4). Since DCNNs were specifically designed for object recognition and modelled
49 following information processing in the mammalian brain, neuronal injuries as seen in PCA can be
50 intuitively modelled in DCNNs. In this work, synaptic damage was performed by randomly removing
51 weights in the trained network, while neuronal damage was modelled by randomly removing nodes,
52 including all connecting weights. The effect of the two injury types on visual object recognition
53 capabilities was quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed by assessing model accuracy and structural
54 differences in saliency maps between healthy and injured models.

55 **2 Methods and materials**

56 **2.1 Models and data**

57 This work is based on the VGG19 model pretrained on the ImageNet database described in more
58 detail by Russakovsky et al., 2015, which was fine-tuned on the Imagenette database [Russakovsky
59 et al., 2015, Howard]. The VGG19 model was selected for this purpose as it has one of the highest
60 correlation values when compared to mammalian neuronal activation data, measured using the Brain-
61 Score [Schimpf et al., 2018]. This model contains 16 convolutional layers, with each convolutional
62 block followed by a max-pooling layer. The final four layers are fully-connected dense layers; the first
63 two containing 1024 neurons, the third 512 neurons, finally followed by a 10-dimensional softmax
64 classification layer. The network was optimized using the Adam optimizer and a learning rate of
65 0.001. No drop-out was used in the fine tuning of the additional three dense layers. We separately
66 trained 25 VGG19 models, each initialized with a different set of weights in the dense layers to
67 reduce potential biases.

68 Imagenette is a smaller subset of the full ImageNet database and consists of ten easily identifiable
69 classes containing both animate and inanimate objects. The train-test split used in this work consisted
70 of 9469 and 3925 images, respectively. Images were scaled to dimensions of $224 \times 224 \times 3$. Prior to
71 damaging the network, the fine-tuned VGG19 performed object classification on the Imagenette test
72 set with an accuracy of $94.2\% \pm 0.006\%$ when averaged across all 25 models. All 25 initial models
73 were subjected to increasing rates of progressive synaptic or neuronal injury.

74 **2.2 Neurodegeneration - Simulated post cortical atrophy**

75 Synaptic damage was inflicted on the baseline trained models by randomly setting x percent of the
76 weights in the model to zero, effectively severing connections between neurons in the model, which
77 simulates synaptic injury. The selection of weights that were injured was randomly generated 25
78 times, one for each of the 25 models, to reduce the potential bias introduced by the randomization
79 process. In each iteration, 1% additional damage was increasingly applied to simulate progressive
80 damage. In a second set of experiments, neuronal injury was modelled by progressively removing
81 entire nodes from convolutional layers and dense layers of the network. In the convolutional layers,
82 nodes are equivalent to filters and in dense layers, a node was considered a unit. When a node was
83 removed, all adjacent weights were effectively deleted. Neuronal injury was randomly dispersed
84 throughout all convolutional and dense layers and progressively increased with 1% increments.

85 **2.3 Saliency maps**

86 In order to further investigate the cognitive decline in the injured networks, saliency maps were
87 generated for each iteration of generated injury and compared for all test set images between

88 uninjured and injured networks. Saliency maps are frequently used in computer vision tasks to
 89 enhance understanding around which parts of an input stimuli a DCNN focuses on to arrive at a
 90 classification [Simonyan et al., 2014]. In this research, GradCam saliency maps were generated
 91 for every image in the test set at each injury level. GradCam computes the gradients of the class
 92 score with respect to activations of the last convolutional block of the network. In this work, the
 93 experiments used the predicted class as the class score. The structural similarity index measure
 94 (SSIM) was calculated between the healthy network saliency maps and those generated by the injured
 95 networks as a means to quantify the shift in attention the network exhibits as a function of injury.
 96 SSIM is commonly used and a well-accepted metric to compare similarity between images [Bylinskii
 97 et al., 2019, Wang et al., 2004].

98 3 Results

99 3.1 Object recognition accuracy

100 Synaptic injury nearly immediately led to a decrease in model accuracy. The steepest decline in object
 101 recognition accuracy was seen between 13% and 23% synaptic injury, while at injury levels of 30%
 102 and greater, the model performed at chance level of 10% (see Figure 1A). In contrast to this finding,
 103 model performance retained an object recognition accuracy greater than 90% with neuronal injury
 104 until it reached damage levels of 79%. The steepest loss of accuracy for neuronal injury occurred
 105 between 87% and 99% injury. It should be noted that even at 99% injury, the model performed
 considerably better than chance level (see Figure 1B).

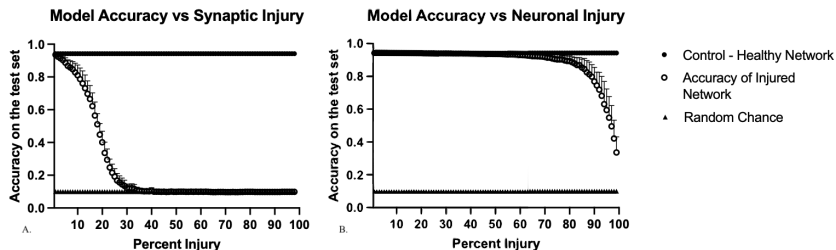


Figure 1: A) Model object recognition accuracy as the model underwent 1% increments of progressive synaptic injury. After 30% injury, the model performed at chance level. B) Model accuracy as progressive neuronal injury was applied. Model performance does not begin to degrade significantly until 65% damage. Data are presented as the mean + SD across all runs and all images in the test set.

106

107 3.2 Saliency maps using predicted class labels

108 Visual analysis of saliency maps revealed that attention of the uninjured model was correctly focused
 109 on sections of the test images that contribute meaningfully to the correct classification (see Figure 2).
 110 As synaptic damage increased, the focus of the model subtly began to shift away from the relevant
 111 objects in the images (see Figure 2A). These qualitative results are supported by the quantitative
 112 results that revealed decreasing structural similarity index measures (SSIM) with increasing injury
 113 (see Figure 2B) comparing the saliency maps of the uninjured networks to the corresponding saliency
 114 maps of the injured networks. When calculated and averaged across all images in the test set, the
 115 average SSIM was reduced from 1.0 to 0.348 ± 0.016 after the first 10% of synaptic injury. Once the
 116 model was unable to correctly classify which type of object is in a given input stimulus, the ability to
 117 focus on the relevant parts of the image was largely hindered. The activations within the network
 118 no longer maximized the probabilities of the correct classes. This impaired result was qualitatively
 119 evident in the 50% injured saliency map shown in Figure 2. It is also represented in Figure 2C where
 120 average SSIM is displayed as a function of model accuracy.

121 This increasing dissimilarity was much less qualitatively evident when progressive neuronal damage
 122 was applied (see Figure 3A). Upon visual inspection, the model appeared to retain some accuracy in
 123 attention focus on the given input stimuli, even at 90% neuronal injury. This retention of attention
 124 accuracy was also reflected in the average SSIM at 90% injury (0.416 ± 0.027) (Figure 3B). While

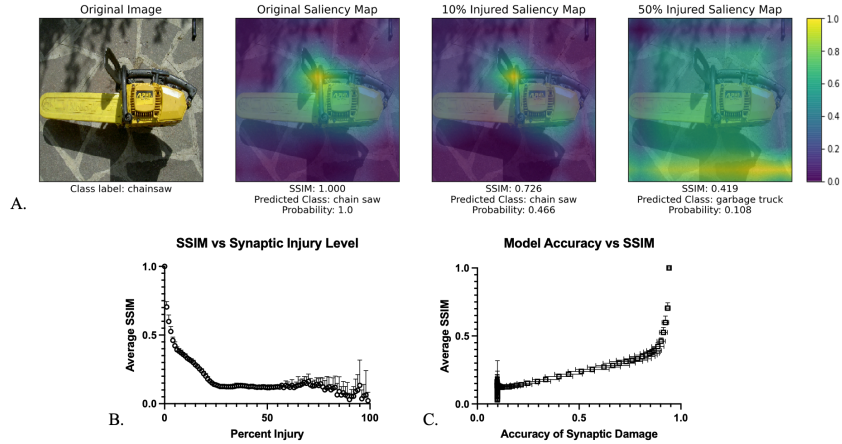


Figure 2: Attention focus of the model quantified using saliency maps are generated with respect to the predicted class label. Data are presented as mean + SD across all runs for all images in the test set. A) Qualitative examination of saliency maps at separate levels of synaptic injury. B) SSIM calculated between saliency maps as a function of synaptic injury. Between 1% and 20% injury, the SSIM is severely affected (Identical images are computed at SSIM=1). C) SSIM plotted as a function of model accuracy.

125 these effects of degeneration in saliency map similarity and thus, attention focus, were much less
 126 pronounced in neuronal injury, they are consistent with respect to overall model accuracy, as seen in
 the similarity between Figure 2C and Figure 3C.

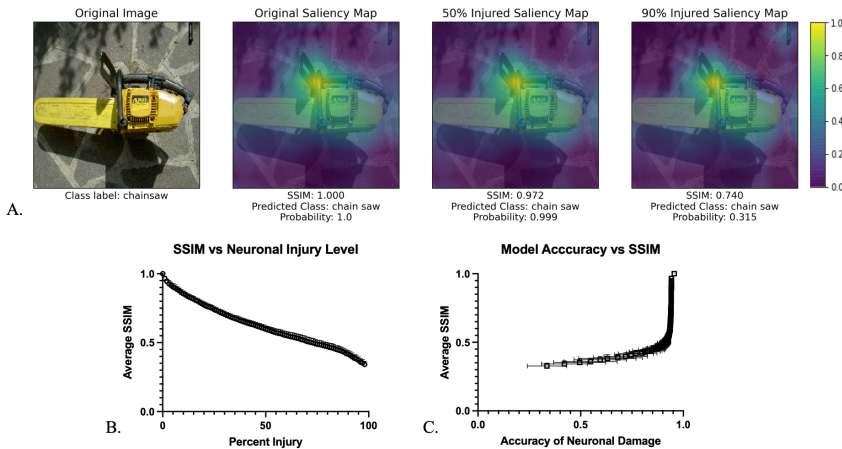


Figure 3: Attention focus of the model quantified using saliency maps are generated with respect to the predicted class as the neuronal injury is progressively applied. Data are presented as mean + SD. A) Qualitative examination of saliency maps at separate levels of neuronal injury. B) Changes in SSIM between saliency maps as injury is applied. SSIM gradually decreases. C) Average SSIM as a function of accuracy as neuronal damage is progressively applied to the network.

127

128 4 Discussion

129 4.1 Main Findings

130 The main finding of this study is that all models eventually become more cognitively impaired with
 131 respect to their object recognition abilities with progressively increasing amounts of injury. This
 132 relationship is analogous to cognitive decline seen in patients affected by neurodegenerative diseases,

133 such as Alzheimer’s disease, who experience a loss of object recognition capabilities [Fox et al., 1999,
134 Hodges et al., 1995, Jefferson et al., 2006]. Within this context, previous studies have shown that
135 patients with Alzheimer’s disease perform poorly on visual search tasks due to inefficiency in shifting
136 attention to relevant targets as well as inefficiency in processing information held within a target
137 [Tales et al., 2004]. Indeed, our preliminary research in modelling the onset of the neurodegeneration
138 of PCA using deep learning models show that DCNNs behave similarly to biological neural networks
139 in this respect.

140 The difference in how injury was imposed, i.e., synaptically or neuronally, provides crucial insight
141 into the development of in silico models of biological phenomena using deep learning models. The
142 fragility of the network when exposed to weight-based (synaptic) injury was highlighted in the severe
143 decline of model accuracy and attention focus, even at rather small injury levels. When removing
144 weights in a randomly dispersed manner in these static, feed-forward networks, the filters in the
145 subsequent layers received a widespread lack of meaningful information. Thus, the poor information
146 quickly affected the nodes in subsequent layers and, hence, the network’s recognition capabilities.
147 This is consistent with biological findings, in that synaptic loss results in less coordinated brain
148 activity and may be the ultimate correlate to cognitive deficits due to Alzheimer’s disease [John and
149 Reddy, 2021, Kashyap et al., 2019].

150 Contrary to the effects of simulated synaptic injury, our results suggest that neuronal pruning has
151 less severe effects on the qualitative and quantitative metrics investigated. A likely explanation for
152 this finding is that removing a filter from a convolutional layer or a complete unit (neuron) from
153 a layer in a deep learning network does not leave the subsequent layers with as much of a lack of
154 information. Large convolutional neural networks, such as the VGG19, have proven to be quite robust
155 in model compression studies, implying a certain level of redundancy in the network [Han et al.,
156 2016]. The neuronal damage results we obtained in this study are similar to what previous machine
157 learning literature on network pruning has reported [Hu et al., 2016]. In this stream of experiments,
158 we observed that object recognition capabilities mostly remain at a high level until damage levels of
159 65% and greater are imposed. These results combined with the slow but yet progressive loss of object
160 recognition accuracy is analogous to what patients suffering from PCA experience as a progressive
161 loss of visuospatial and visuoperceptual skills [Crutch et al., 2012]. As Alzheimer’s disease is most
162 often the underlying pathology of PCA, it has been shown that clinical symptoms of Alzheimer’s
163 disease, such as visual cognitive decline, only present when substantial atrophy has occurred [Fox
164 et al., 1999]. The initial robustness of the human brain to injury is largely due to the extensive number
165 of redundant connections that are in place to protect the system from structural breakdown [Kashyap
166 et al., 2019]. This type of relationship is consistent and directly evident in the results of the in silico
167 neuronal damage modelled in this study.

168 **4.2 Limitations and future research directions**

169 The main limitations of this study include the limited dataset that only contains ten classes of relatively
170 easily categorizable objects. In order to more accurately model human visual cognition, a larger
171 dataset with a more diverse range of class objects will be investigated in the future. Another limitation
172 is the explicit difference between the strictly feed-forward structure of the DCNNs used in this work
173 and the complex information processing that occurs in biological neural networks. Furthermore,
174 the complexities of individual tau patterns and neurodegeneration resulting in different clinical
175 symptoms, such as cognitive decline, are still not fully understood [Han et al., 2016]. Thus, building a
176 generalized model of neurodegeneration and the subsequent cognitive deficits faces similar challenges.
177 The development of this field of work has the potential to lead to positive societal implications by
178 increasing understanding around the progression of these diseases. There are currently no foreseen
179 negative impacts.

180 Crucial future research directions will be to incorporate model retraining between each iteration of
181 injury to more accurately capture the inherent neuroplasticity in the degenerating human brain. It is
182 expected that this will alleviate some of the extreme results seen in the synaptic injury simulation as
183 weights will be able to update and compensate for certain initial amounts of damage. Additionally,
184 more detailed evaluation metrics can be employed. Examining optimized networks with little to
185 no redundancy will allow for further investigation into the effects of removing individual nodes or
186 weights in the network. Finally, a future experimentation will include investigating focal and more
187 concentrated neuronal loss, rather than randomly dispersed injury as applied in this study.

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259 Checklist

- 260 1. For all authors...
- 261 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s
 262 contributions and scope? [Yes]
- 263 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] See Section 4.2
- 264 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [Yes] See
 265 Section 4.2
- 266 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to
 267 them? [Yes]
- 268 2. If you are including theoretical results...
- 269 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [N/A]
- 270 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [N/A]
- 271 3. If you ran experiments...
- 272 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-
 273 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes] Code will be
 274 made available upon acceptance
- 275 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they
 276 were chosen)? [Yes] See Section 2.1
- 277 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-
 278 ments multiple times)? [Yes] See Figure 1, Figure2, and Figure 3
- 279 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type
 280 of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [No] This information will be made
 281 available upon acceptance
- 282 4. If you are using existing assets (e.g., code, data, models) or curating/releasing new assets...
- 283 (a) If your work uses existing assets, did you cite the creators? [Yes] See References
 284 [Howard] and [Russakovsky et al., 2015]
- 285 (b) Did you mention the license of the assets? [No] The existing assets that were used are
 286 publicly available.
- 287 (c) Did you include any new assets either in the supplemental material or as a URL? [N/A]
- 288
- 289 (d) Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you’re
 290 using/curating? [N/A]

- 291 (e) Did you discuss whether the data you are using/curating contains personally identifiable
292 information or offensive content? [N/A]
- 293 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
- 294 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if
295 applicable? [N/A] No research was conducted with human subjects.
- 296 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review
297 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
- 298 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount
299 spent on participant compensation? [N/A]