

# Text-mining the *NeuroSynth* corpus using Deep Boltzmann Machines

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**Abstract**—Large-scale automated meta-analysis of neuroimaging data has recently established itself as an important tool in advancing our understanding of human brain function. This research has been pioneered by *NeuroSynth*, a database collecting both brain activation coordinates and associated text across a large cohort of neuroimaging research papers. One of the fundamental aspects of such meta-analysis is text-mining. To date, word counts and more sophisticated methods such as Latent Dirichlet Allocation have been proposed. In this work we present an unsupervised study of the *NeuroSynth* text corpus using Deep Boltzmann Machines (DBMs). The use of DBMs yields several advantages over the aforementioned methods, principal among which is the fact that it yields both word and document embeddings in a high-dimensional vector space. Such embeddings serve to facilitate the use of traditional machine learning techniques on the text corpus. The proposed DBM model is shown to learn embeddings with a clear semantic structure.

**Keywords**—Deep Boltzmann machines; text-mining; topic models; meta-analysis;

## I. INTRODUCTION

The study of the human brain using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) has advanced rapidly in the last decades. This has provided significant insights into the relationship between architecture and function of the human brain. This is reflected in the number of published studies, which has grown exponentially during this time. Consequently, a major challenge for the scientific community involves the efficient integration and analysis of knowledge across this wide corpus of studies [1]. This challenge has inspired attempts to automatically aggregate and analyze knowledge across the field of fMRI. In particular, *NeuroSynth* [2] is a meta-analysis database collecting both brain activation coordinates and the corresponding text across a range of over ten thousand studies. This has important applications in the analysis and interpretation of fMRI data such as facilitating quantitative reverse inference [3].

The automated extraction of information from a collection of published neuroimaging studies is based on two fundamental pillars; the first of which involves generating detailed statistical maps. In this work we focus on the second pillar; the extraction and analysis of semantic topics from text [1]. Such methods look to employ text-mining methodologies to discover latent topics in the brain imaging literature. Such approaches can subsequently be combined with activation coordinates to examine the underlying mapping between cognitive and neural states.

Recent attempts to model the semantic structure of the neuroimaging literature have focused on the use of Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) models [1]. Such an approach

is able to learn a pre-specified number of latent “topics” which generated observed text. In this work we present a related approach based on the use of Deep Boltzmann machines (DBMs). The motivation behind the use of DBMs over alternative text-mining approaches such as LDA is two-fold. First, the use of restricted Boltzmann machines (RBMs), which are a special case of DBMs, has recently been shown to outperform LDA in terms of generalization performance [4]. This is hypothesized to be the result of RBMs learning useful internal representations of the text corpus [5]. The presence of additional hidden layers in DBMs would serve to further facilitate the learning of internal representations. The second advantage of using DBMs is that such models yield an embedding of words or documents in a high-dimensional vector space. Such embeddings are a crucial component of modern natural language processing systems [5] as they can be easily incorporated into traditional machine learning pipelines. Furthermore, the use of word embeddings can be employed to learn joint models across both text and the associated activation coordinates which is the ultimate objective of meta-analysis studies [2].

In this work we demonstrate that DBMs can be effectively employed to learn the distribution of the *NeuroSynth* text corpus. Further, the proposed model is able to learn embeddings of both individual words as well as entire documents. As motivation, Table I shows some of the clusters obtained when *k*-means clustering is applied to word embeddings obtained from the DBM model. The clusters display clear semantic context.

## II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### A. Deep topic models

In this section we outline the models employed in this work. We begin by introducing Restricted Boltzmann machines (RBMs), which serve as the building blocks of the deeper architectures considered in this work. Extensions of RBMs to directly model word counts are discussed before considering Deep Boltzmann machines (DBMs).

1) *Restricted Boltzmann machines*: RBMs are a class of undirected graphical models which specify a probability distribution over observed binary variables  $v \in \{0, 1\}^D$  and binary hidden variables  $h \in \{0, 1\}^F$ . Formally, RBMs are energy based models which have a bipartite graph structure across visible and hidden variables. This structure is imposed in order to facilitate the learning of the models parameters which we discuss below.

The following energy function is defined on any configuration of visible and hidden units:

$$E(v, h; \theta) = -v^T W h - a^T v - b^T h \quad (1)$$

TABLE I. EXAMPLES OF SEMANTIC CLUSTERS LEARNT BY DEEP TOPIC MODEL

Associated vocabulary
memory, retrieval, encoding, hippocampus, hippocampal, episodic, items, recall, memories, recollection, item, familiarity, autobiographical
language, semantic, words, speech, word, reading, verbal, phonological, lexical, linguistic, naming, fluency, verbs, english
adults, age, children, years, older, young, development, adolescents, developmental, aging, sleep, adult, late, younger, blind, childhood, hearing, adolescence
emotional, amygdala, social, negative, faces, face, emotion, neutral, affective, facial, anxiety, fear, expressions, regulation, emotions, ofc, valence, personality, arousal, fearful, trait, threat, sad, happy, mood, empathy, moral, person, traits, communication
patients, controls, schizophrenia, disorder, deficits, disease, abnormalities, symptoms, impaired, impairment, adhd, alterations, dysfunction, mdd, abnormal, atrophy, patient, ptsd, severity, mci, damage, bipolar, lesions, impairments, deficit, depressive, ocd, mild, syndrome, symptom, elderly, dementia, epilepsy, poor, pathophysiology

where  $\theta = \{W, a, b\}$  are the parameters of the RBM which we wish to estimate. The probability of any given configuration  $(v, h)$  is subsequently defined as  $P(v, h; \theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} e^{-E(v, h; \theta)}$ , where  $Z(\theta) = \sum_{v, h} e^{-E(v, h; \theta)}$  is normalizing constant. Furthermore, the likelihood for any observation,  $v$ , can be obtained by summing over binary hidden units:

$$P(v; \theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \sum_h e^{-E(v, h; \theta)}. \quad (2)$$

Parameter learning in RBMs is typically achieved via performing gradient descent on the log-likelihood over observed data. From equation (2), the training data log-likelihood is composed of a *positive* term,  $\phi^+ = \log \sum_h e^{-E(v, h; \theta)}$ , and a *negative* term,  $\phi^- = \log Z(\theta)$  [6]. The derivative with respect to the positive term corresponds to an expectation over the data dependent distribution of hidden variables, which can be easily computed due to the bipartite structure of RBMs. However, the derivative of the negative term involves an expectation over the distribution of both visible and hidden units under the proposed model which is intractable. This expectation is typically approximated by looking to sample from this distribution using MCMC. Starting with visible units, Gibbs sampling is applied  $k$  times in order to obtain an unbiased sample of the gradient in a procedure known as Contrastive Divergence [7]. Letting  $k \rightarrow \infty$  recovers maximum likelihood, however in practice it has been shown empirically that setting  $k = 1$  performs well.

**2) Replicated Softmax model:** The aforementioned RBM model can be employed when the objective is to learn the probability over binary visible variables. In the context of modeling documents it is possible to treat the occurrence of words at specific locations in the text as binary variables. In this case the observations correspond to a binary incidence matrix  $V \in \{0, 1\}^{N \times D}$  where  $V_{n,d}=1$  if the  $n$ th word in the document takes the  $d$ th value.

While such an approach is able to model the order of words, there is an explosion in the number of parameters. The replicated softmax RBM takes a more parsimonious alternative, directly modeling the word counts,  $\hat{v}_d = \sum_n V_{n,d}$  [4]. In such a setting visible units  $\hat{v} \in \mathbb{N}^D$  correspond to a vector of words counts for each document. Note that  $D$  corresponds to the size of the vocabulary.

The energy of a state  $(\hat{v}, h)$  is defined as:

$$E(\hat{v}, h; \theta) = -\hat{v}^T W h - a^T \hat{v} - M \cdot b^T h, \quad (3)$$

where  $M = \sum_d \hat{v}_d$  is the total number of words in a document. As with a standard RBM, learning proceeds via Contrastive Divergence. Such models can be interpreted as learning a distribution over word histograms of documents.

**3) Deep Boltzmann machines:** DBMs are extensions of RBMs to allow for multiple layers of hidden variables. Such models have the capability of learning internal representations of the data which are increasing complex [8]. Throughout this work we consider a two-layer DBM with multinomial visible variables and binary hidden variables. Such a model is associated with the following energy function<sup>1</sup>:

$$E(\hat{v}, h^1, h^2) = -\hat{v}^T W^1 h^1 - h^{1T} W^2 h^2 \quad (4)$$

where we write  $h^1$  and  $h^2$  to denote the first and second layer of binary hidden variables respectively. Similarly, parameters  $\theta = \{W^1, W^2\}$  represent the symmetric interaction terms between visible-to-hidden and hidden-to-hidden variables. Analogous to equation (2), the probability assigned to a visible vector,  $\hat{v}$  is defined as:

$$P(\hat{v}; \theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} \sum_{h^1, h^2} e^{-E(\hat{v}, h^1, h^2; \theta)} \quad (5)$$

Furthermore, due to the bipartite across layers the conditional distributions of each of the layers can be computed in closed form. This allows for the use of persistent Markov Chains [6] to estimate the intractable model expectations. Naive mean-field variational inference is then used to approximate the data-dependent expectations. For further details we refer readers to [8].

In practice, appropriate initialization of parameters is crucial to the success of deep models. [8] propose a greedy, layer-by-layer pretraining algorithm for DBMs. This involves iteratively stacking RBMs, with the small caveat that bottom-up (likewise top-down) contributions from the bottom (top) layer should be doubled during pretraining.

**4) Model selection:** Selecting the number of hidden units within each layer of a DBM is a non-trivial task. The difficulty of such an approach arises from the need to estimate the (typically intractable) partition function  $Z(\theta)$  for the entire model. As  $Z(\theta)$  depends on both the parameters as well as number of hidden units, it must be calculated in order to perform model comparison.

Importance sampling is often employed to estimate properties of distributions known only up to a normalizing constant using samples from a known distribution. However, for importance sampling to yield a reliable estimate the known proposal distribution must resemble the target distribution. In the context of high-dimensional RBMs finding such a proposal distribution is challenging. In order to address this challenge, [9] propose the use of annealed importance sampling (AIS). Here a sequence of auxiliary proposal distributions are defined which iteratively approximate the target distribution.

Due to the bipartite structure of RBMs, it is easy to transition across the intermediate distributions (in practice we apply one iteration of Gibbs sampling). In this fashion it is possible to begin with a sample from a uniform RBM (with

<sup>1</sup>we have excluded bias terms for clarity

partition  $Z_0 = 2^F$ ), which we propagate through auxiliary distributions [4].

In this work a greedy, layer-by-layer approach was taken to select the model architecture. As a result, the bottom layer RBM was trained using a range of hidden units. The architecture which yielded the maximum likelihood across a held-out validation set was selected. The hidden activation from this RBM was subsequently provided as input for the top layer RBM and the process was repeated.

### B. Dataset

The NeuroSynth text corpus was employed in this work. While the original corpus contains word frequencies over the entire text for each publication, in this work only the publication abstracts were employed. This served to reduce the range of vocabulary employed and was motivated by our belief that much of the semantic structure present in a publication would also be present in the corresponding abstract. Abstracts were collected for 10574 publications using the PUBMED API resulting in a mean document length of 80 words ( $\pm 25$  words). Standard preprocessing was applied to the text corpus. Stop words were removed, as well as words which did not occur with sufficient frequency (fewer than 50 occurrences throughout the corpus). This resulted in a vocabulary of approximately two thousand words, of which the 1000 words which occurred most frequently were retained (corresponding to over 80% of terms). The dataset was split into a training set consisting of 9516 documents and a test set with the remaining 1058 documents.

## III. RESULTS

### A. Model architecture and implementation details

A two-layer DBM was employed consisting of a visible layer of multinomial visible units followed by two binary hidden layers with 50 units each. During pretraining and model selection RBMs were trained using CD-1. In addition, dropout was employed as a form of regularization with hidden units retained with probability 0.9.

The architecture was selected by minimizing the negative log-likelihood over a held out validation dataset in a greedy manner as described previously. Briefly, AIS was employed to estimate the partition function for each RBM. Five thousand auxiliary distributions were employed (specified by uniformly spaced inverse temperatures) and estimates were averaged over five hundred runs. Finally, the DBM was initialized to weights learnt during pretraining and trained as described in [8].

The proposed DBM model can be used to obtain both word as well as document embeddings in a high-dimensional vector space<sup>2</sup>. In the remainder of this section we study both the word and document embeddings obtained from the proposed DBM model.

### B. Word embeddings

The proposed DBM model can be employed to obtain a high-dimensional embeddings for each word in our vocabulary.

<sup>2</sup>in our case the embedding will be in  $\mathbb{R}^{50}$  as the top layer has 50 hidden units

TABLE II. EXAMPLES OF ONE-STEP RECONSTRUCTION

Input	One-step reconstruction
memory	memory, working, recall, performance, retrieval, verbal, load, semantic, recognition, task
emotion	social, emotion, emotional, regions, ofc, brain, affective, gray, traits, amygdala
face	social, facial, faces, face, emotional, processing, regions, functional, brain, cortex
disorder	patients, mdd, disorder, adhd, abnormalities, controls, brain, matter, alterations, structural
mode	network, default, connectivity, brain, regions, cognitive, functional, mode, activity, cortex

The word clusters shown in Table I can then be obtained by by applying  $k$ -means clustering to the word embeddings. The number of clusters was selected based on silhouette scores.

Further, Figure [1i] shows a 2D visualization of word embeddings using t-SNE [10]. Three sections of the embedding have been highlighted. Regions A and C showcase embeddings for terms relating to emotion and memory respectively. It is important to note that the relevant brain regions are contained in this sections (i.e., the amygdala and orbitofrontal cortex in region A and the hippocampus in region C). Meanwhile region B contains terms relating to age and development.

Finally, an alternative manner of demonstrating the DBM model has obtained a good estimate of the probability distribution is to consider one-step reconstructions. Some examples are provided in Table II. The input words were employed to obtain a distribution over hidden units at the top level. This distribution was then employed to obtain a distribution over words. The words with highest probability mass are shown in the right column.

### C. Document embeddings

Document embeddings are obtained in analogous fashion by providing the entire document word vector as input to the DBM. By clustering document embeddings and leveraging the activation maps within the NeuroSynth database, we are able to study the activations associated with each cluster.

Figure [1ii] shows a subset of the 2D embeddings obtained using t-SNE over all document embeddings. As before,  $k$ -means clustering was employed to cluster documents according to their associated high-dimensional representations (again silhouette scores used to select number of clusters). It is then possible to study the reported functional activations of all publications within a given cluster. Following [1], this was achieved by convolving all activations within a cluster (i.e., all activations reported by documents in a cluster) with a 10mm Gaussian kernel. This resulted in a mean activation map for all documents within a given cluster. The peak activations, together with the most frequently occurring words are shown for six clusters in Figure [1iii]<sup>3</sup>. The activation maps highlight key functional networks and regions, for example clusters four and six identify the pain and motor regions respectively. The clusters also appear to identify pathologies. For example cluster one appears to be related to cognitive impairment and atrophy. Furthermore, it is interesting to note that spatially adjacent clusters share some similarities. For example, clusters two and five both show frontal activation.

<sup>3</sup>figure produced using Nilearn module [11].



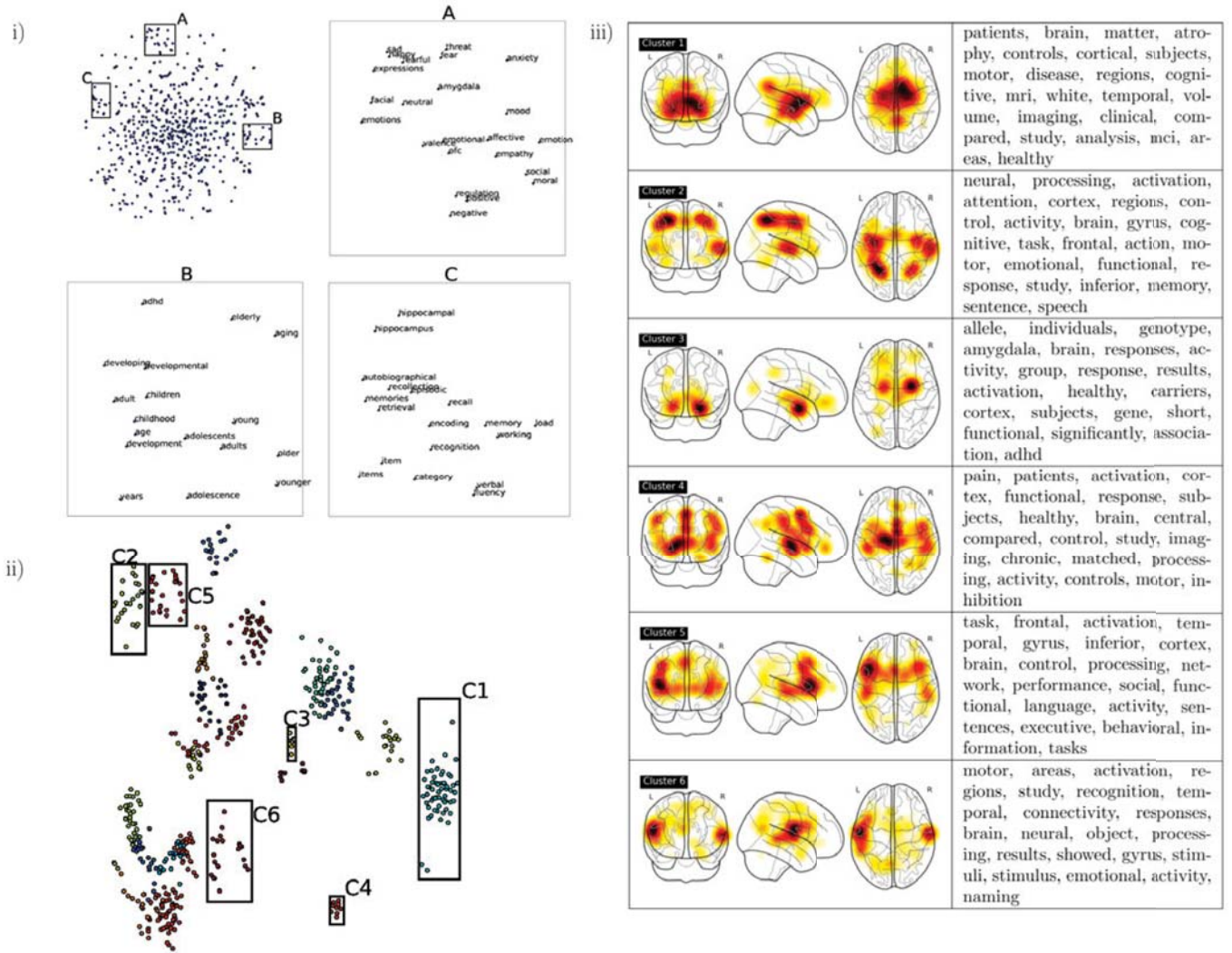


Fig. 1. **i)** The top left panel shows the result of applying t-SNE on word embeddings obtained from the DBM model. Three regions have been highlighted are shown in greater detail in the remaining three panels. It can be seen that regions A and C correspond to emotion and memory related terms respectively while region B contains terms associated with aging and development. **ii)** A subset of the two dimensional embedding obtained from applying t-SNE on document embedding. **iii)** Activation maps (left column) are shown for several of the highlighted clusters shown in ii) together with the most frequently occurring terms (right column).

#### IV. DISCUSSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we have demonstrated the use of DBMs in modeling a text corpus composed of abstracts from neuroscientific publications. The proposed DBM model is able to yield a vector representation of both individual words as well as entire documents. Such representations are advantageous for many reasons, for example they can be employed to cluster the words or documents.

Further, by combining the abstracts with the NeuroSynth corpus, we are able to study whether the activation maps associated with each cluster. While only exploratory results are presented in this work, future work will look simultaneously model both text and activations, thereby facilitating formal inference. A further exciting application would be to leverage document embeddings to inform novel machine learning applications in neuroscience, such as the recently proposed *Automated Neuroscientist* [12].

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