Proposal

Xinru Wang

Background

Schizophrenia (SCZ) is a severe mental disorder, which is a prevailing concern for more and more modern perople due to increasing number of patients. However, there is little physical symptoms related to Schizophrenia recognized by researchers so far, and it is not possible to measure biomarkers frequently when patients has been discharged, making prediction and diagnosis of Schizophrenia a challenging topic(Suhara et al., 2017). Without noticing these symptoms in the early stage, it may cause more death or damage to the lives of people. With that in mind, detecting Schizophrenia in advance is of top priority in order to take appropriate interventions for preventing critical situations.

During recent years, digital technology such as smart phones and wearable devices has developed rapidly, which contains multiple sensors to monitor the physiological signals, ambient environment, activity information and also some survey-based responses(Torous et al., 2015). This dramatically improvement of mobile devices brings us to sufficient and diverse real-time data of subjects off-hospital, which provides unprecedented opportunity for phycology research on prediction of mental health illness. This burst of different types of mental health related data makes it possible to use machine learning, such as Recurrent Nueral Network(RNN), to forecast disease status using data collected by digital devices. Its recursive formulation is suitable for handling time series naturally, and its paramters are uniform across all the time steps, which greatly reduce the computing cost of model training. In recent years, researchers are working hard to study how to improve the model performance of these machine learning method(Sathyanarayana et al., 2016).

However, there also exists some challenges for the improvement of prediction ability, one of which is missing data existing in training dataset. Time series data often inevitably encounters with missing values in multiple situations, such as being lost to follow up, anomalies in physical condition, expense, inconvenience and so on. These missing values are deemed as informative missingness in that it may provide more information about the target(RUBIN, 1976). And there are many works have been done to deal with missing values in machine learning method, such as adding decay layers to LSTM model(Che et al., 2018), adding missing indicators to predictors(Lipton et al., 2016), and adding "Belief gate" to LSTM model(Kim & Chi, 2018). However, there is little research on whether missing pattern, such as missing completely at random, missing at random and missing not at random(Little & Rubin, 2002), can affect the prediction of machine learning performance so far.

Objective

This project aims to study the effect of missing values of different missing patterns on the LSTM model prediction performance under different conditions, such as ignoring missing data, imputation, or adjusting for missing data indicator. Furthermore, additional machine learning method will also be conducted in this project.

Method

Data Simulation

This project uses self-simulated data to train and test model performance. First we use the status-based model, Hidden Markov Model(Zhang et al., 2010), to generate the dataset. We generate complete data without missing values that contains a true underlying association between the the latent disease status (social contacts) with input data and outcome (mental health score). Then simulated noncomplete datasets with different missingness patterns by deleting survey data points according to these three patterns.

Complete data generation

Specifically, there are mainly three types of data covered in this project:

- **latent daily disease status:** Z_{ij}: daily unobserved clinical status ($nondisease = 1$ or $disease = 2$), which can have an relationship with the mobile data and survey data. Z_{ij} represents the disease status at day point j for subject i, $i = 1, ..., N$, $j = 1, ...T$. We specify the matrix of time-homogeneous transition probabilities between latent states by setting:

  a)
  $$p(z_{it} = 1|((z_{it-1} + z_{it-2} + z_{it-3})/3 = 1)), t = 1, ..., T$$

  follows a truncated normal distribution $N_{[0,1]}(0.7, 0.1)$

  b)
  $$p(z_{it} = 1|((z_{it-1} + z_{it-2} + z_{it-3})/3 = 2)), t = 1, ..., T$$

  follows a truncated normal distribution $N_{[0,1]}(0.3, 0.1)$

  c)
  $$p(z_{it} = 2|((z_{it-1} + z_{it-2} + z_{it-3})/3 = 1)) = 1 - p(z_{it} = 1|((z_{it-1} + z_{it-2} + z_{it-3})/3 = 1))$$

  d)
  $$p(z_{it} = 2|((z_{it-1} + z_{it-2} + z_{it-3})/3 = 2)) = 1 - p(z_{it} = 1|((z_{it-1} + z_{it-2} + z_{it-3})/3 = 2))$$

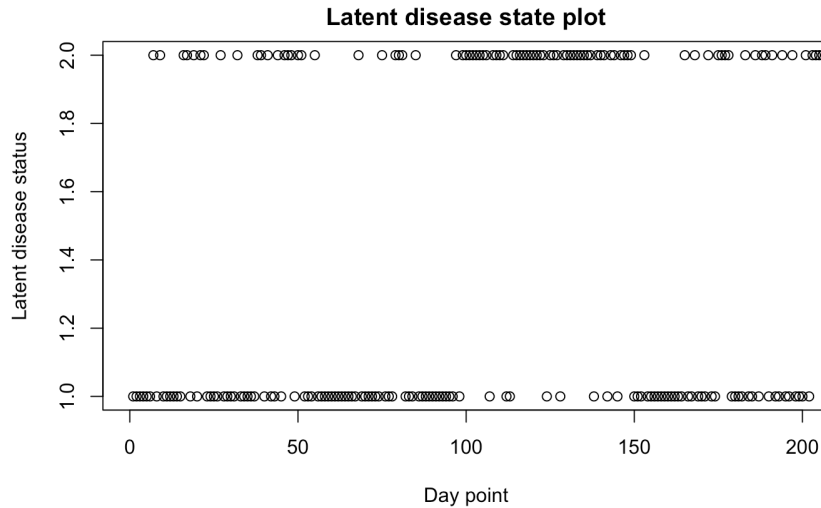The latent disease status of day point $1 \sim 200$ for single patient can be seen from Fig.1

Figure 1: Latent disease status plot

- **mobile data**: passive daily data collected through mobile app, including **call count** data x_1, **text count** data x_2, **duration** data x_3, etc. Call/text count data is zero-inflated and has an underlying Poisson distribution with mean proportional to the probability of latent disease; whereas duration is continuous data, whose mean also proportional to the probability of latent disease.

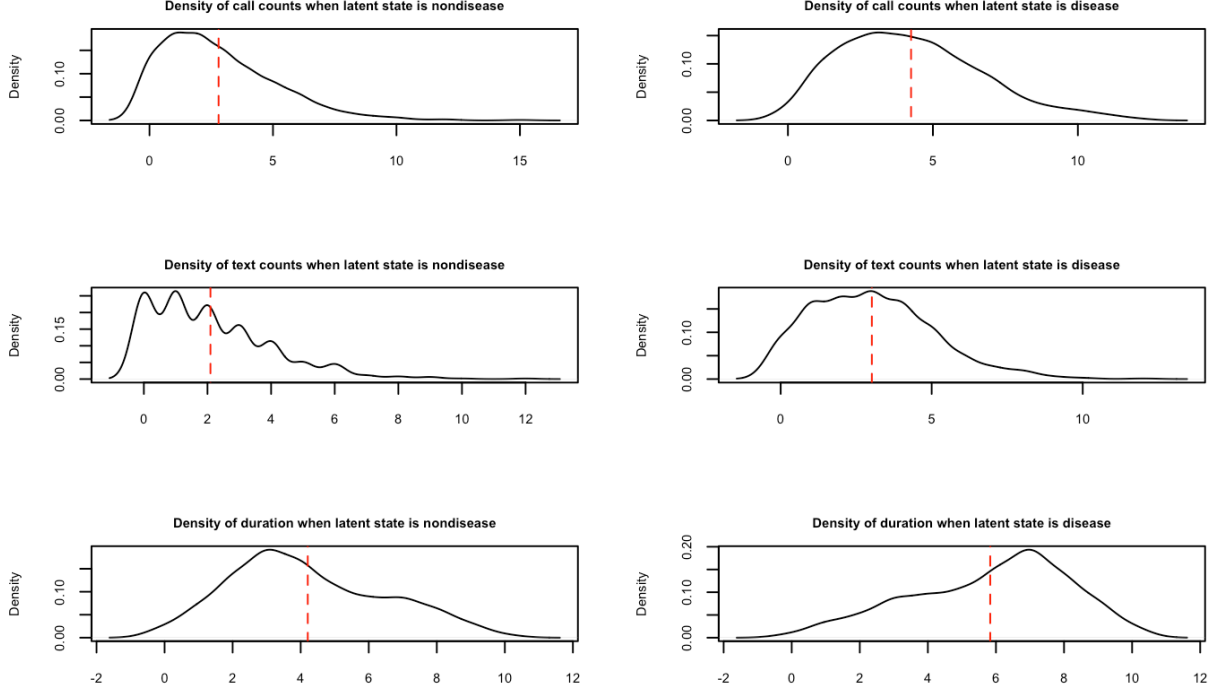The density plot for each variable can be seen from Fig.2

Figure 2: Density plot for each variable

- **survey data**: active daily data collected through mobile app, has an underlying multinomial distribution; questions related to hallucinations are used as a proxy of clinical data to capture the latent episode. We assume that each survey outcome k_{ij} indicates the meantal score derived by the summation of level of response of each subject i for each question in day point t; k_{ijm} denotes the level of response for the kth question, where $m = 1, ...M$, M is the total number of questions. And:
    a) $p(k_{ijm} = 2)$ follows a truncated normal distriburion $N_{[0,1]}(a * p(z_{ij} = 2), 0.05)$
    b)
$$p(k_{ijm} = 1) = 1 - p(k_{ijm} = 2)$$

The survey score for each latent status are shown in Fig.3, from which we can see that when the latent status is disease, the mean survey score is larger than that when the latent status is nondisease.

Missing data generation

Generate response indicator, R_{ij}. $R_{ij} = 1$ represents that the subject i in day point j reponsed to the survey, vice versa. For missing completely at random, we generate R_{ij} by setting $p(R_{ij} = 1) \sim N_{[0,1]}(0.6, 0.1)$. As for missing at random, we let R_{ij} be associated with some variables, such as text and call counts, and controlling the overall reponse rate falls around 0.6. When the missing pattern is missing not at random, we let R_{ij} be associated with the survey score; $p(R_{ij} = 1)$ will get smaller when survey score get higher, and the overall response rate is about 0.5. Finally replace the value of survey score as NA or missing for time point with $R_{ij} = 0$.
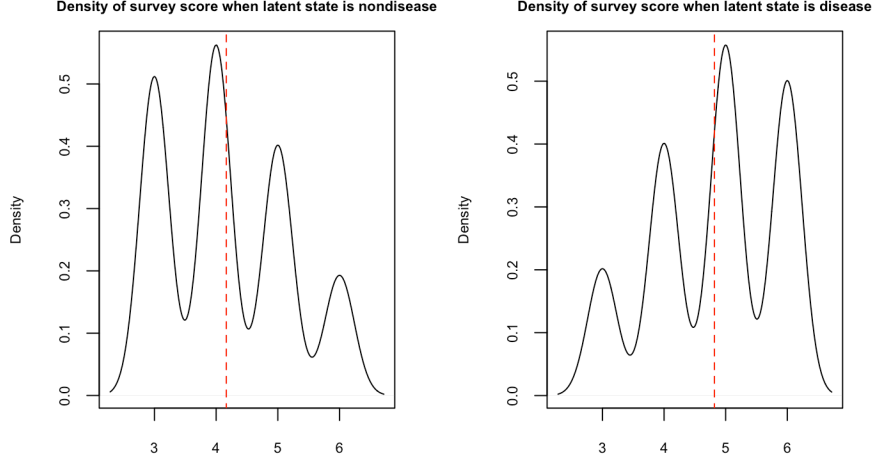
Figure 3: Plot of survey score distribution

Model

LSTM is a special case of RNN, which relies on memory cells containing forget gate, input gate and output gate(Kanjo et al., 2019). It has show significant performance on human activity prediction using mobile data(Neverova et al., 2016). LSTM can bridge very long time lags by the constant error backpropagation within memory cells(Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1997), making it possible to utilize previous information for the present mental status prediction(Yan & Mikolajczyk, 2015). It is widely recognized that the mental disease in the previous time point may affect that in the present time point, so LSTM tends to outperform other traditional RNN models in prediction accuracy. What is more, the process of parameter tuning is simplified to a large extend, because it will automatically balance between multiple parameters such as learning rate, input gate and output gate bias. The process of feedforward in LSTM can be seen from the following functions(Chung et al., 2014):

$$f_j^t = W_f x_j^t + U_f h_j^{t-1} + V_f \bigodot c_j^{t-1} + b_f \rightarrow \tilde{f}_j^t = \sigma_g(f_j^t) \tag{1}$$

$$i_j^t = W_i x_j^t + U_i h_j^{t-1} + V_i \bigodot c_j^{t-1} + b_i \rightarrow \tilde{i}_j^t = \sigma_g(i_j^t) \tag{2}$$

$$z_j^t = W_c x_j^t + U_c h_j^{t-1} + b_c \rightarrow \tilde{z}_j^t = \sigma_c(z_j^t) \tag{3}$$

$$c_j^t = \tilde{f}_j^t \bigodot c_j^{t-1} + \tilde{i}_j^t \bigodot \tilde{z}_j^t \rightarrow \tilde{c}_j^t = \sigma_h(c_j^t) \tag{4}$$

$$o_j^t = W_o x_j^t + U_o h_j^{t-1} + V_o \bigodot c_j^t) \rightarrow \tilde{o}_j^t = \sigma_g(o_j^t) \tag{5}$$

$$h_j^t = \tilde{o}_j^t \bigodot \tilde{c}_j^t \tag{6}$$

where $x_j^t \in R^{N \times 1}$ is the j-th observation of an N-dimensional input vector at current time t, and in this project, x_j^t is the j-th patients at day point t, with an 3-dimensional input vector, which are call/text counts and duration. $\{f_j^t, i_j^t, z_j^t, c_j^t, o_j^t, h_j^t\} \in R^{M \times 1}$, $\{\tilde{f}_j^t, \tilde{i}_j^t, \tilde{z}_j^t, \tilde{c}_j^t, \tilde{o}_j^t, \tilde{h}_j^t\} \in R^{M \times 1}$ are the j-th observation of forget gate, input gate, modulation gate, cell state, output gate, and hidden output at time t before and after activation.

When the LSTM is one layer model, the network output is the hidden output, which means that the $\tilde{h}_j^t$ is the survey score of patients j. Moreover, $\{W_i, W_o, W_c, W_f\} \in R^{M \times N}$ and $\{U_i, U_o, U_c, U_f\} \in R^{M \times N}$ are sets of connecting weights from input and recurrent, $\{V_f, V_i, V_o\} \in R_{M \times 1}$ is the set of peephole connections from cell to gates, $\{b_i, b_o, b_f, b_c\} \in R^{M \times 1}$ represents the corresponding biases of neurons, $\odot$ denotes element-wise multiplication, and σ_g, σ_c, σ_h are nonlinear activation functions assigned for the gates, input modulation, and hidden output. The specific process of LSTM for our project can be seen from Fig. 4
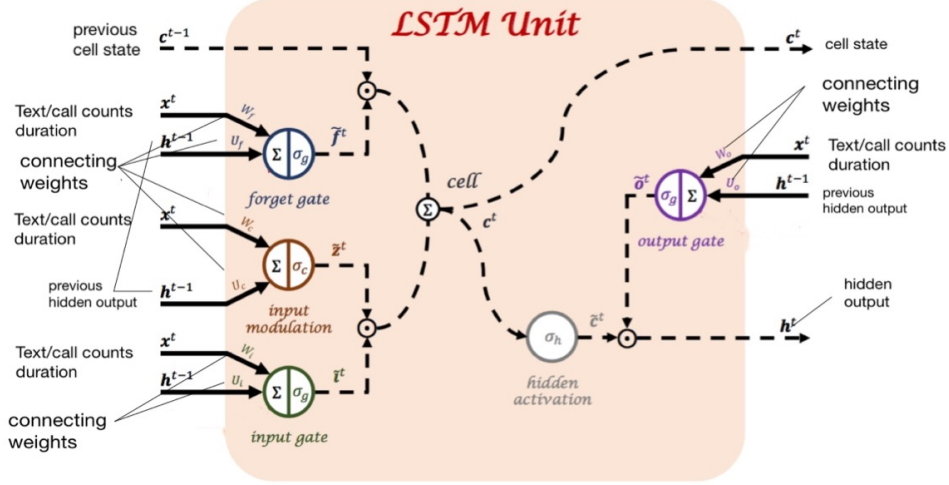

Figure 4: Density plot for each variable

Apart from LSTM model, we will furthere explore additional RNN models, such as GRU model and GRU-D model(Che et al., 2018) to extend the results. GRU model is a simplified version of LSTM model, which contains fewer parameters due to inabsent of output gate. The functions are as follows(Chung et al., 2014):

$$r_t = \sigma(W_r X_t + U_r h_{t-1} + b_r) \tag{7}$$

$$z_t = \sigma(W_z X_t + U_z h_{t-1} + b_z) \tag{8}$$

$$\tilde{h}_t = tanh(W X_t + U(r_t * h_{t-1}) + b) \tag{9}$$

$$h_t = (1 - z_t) * h_{t-1} + z_t * \tilde{h}_t \tag{10}$$

where matrices W_r, W_z, W, U_z, U_r, U, and vectors b_z, b_r. b are model parameters.

GRU-D is a GRU model added by a decay mechanism for the input variables and the hidden states(Che et al., 2018). The functions are as following:

$$\gamma_t = exp\{-max(0, W_\gamma \delta_t + b_\gamma)\} \tag{11}$$

$$\hat{x}_t^d = m_t^d x_t^d + (1 - m_t^d)(\gamma_{x_t}^d x_{t'}^d + (1 - \gamma_{x_t}^t)\tilde{x}^d) \tag{12}$$

$$\hat{h}_{t-1} = \gamma_{h_t} * h_{t-1} \tag{13}$$

$$r_t = \sigma(W_r \hat{x}_t + U_r \hat{h}_{t-1} + b_r) \tag{14}$$

$$z_t = \sigma(W_z \hat{x}_t + U_z \hat{h}_{t-1} + b_z) \tag{15}$$

$$\tilde{h}_t = tanh(W \hat{x}_t + U(r_t * \hat{h}_{t-1}) + b) \tag{16}$$

$$h_t = (1 - z_t) * \hat{h}_{t-1} + z_t * \tilde{h}_t \tag{17}$$

where γ is vector of decay rate, $x_{t'}^d$ is the last observation of the d-th variable, $\tilde{x}^d$ is the empirical mean of the d-th variable.

Method dealing with missing values

In order to get full use of missing values, researchers often first filling missing values and then trained these imputed dataset. This process needs additional models, time or data, and the quality of imputed data can not be guaranteed. The most common used method is to ignore missing values and get complete data analysis. Many researchers assumps that missing values has no effect to validity of outcome, so analysis is confined to samples with complete dataset(Zhang et al., 2013). The second method is imputation. There are multiple ways to impute the missing values, such as mean, forward, simple, KNN(Batista & Monard, 2003), MissForest(Stekhoven & Bühlmann, 2011), CubicSpline(Boor, 1978), and MICE(Azur et al., 2011). Among these method, KNN can not impute missing values in time series with different length in that it takes each time step as one sample. In this project, we only focus simple imputation method such as mean, forward and MICE. The third method is to add missing indicators to original datasets. In clinical studies, missing values may carry rich information of patients status. By treating these artifacts as features, the realibility of outcome may be improved.(Lipton et al., 2016)

Reference

Azur, M. J., Stuart, E. A., Frangakis, C., & Leaf, P. J. (2011). Multiple imputation by chained equations: What is it and how does it work? *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research*, *20*(1), 40–49. https://doi.org/10.1002/mpr.329

Batista, G., & Monard, M. C. (2003). A study of k-nearest neighbour as an imputation method. *In His.*

Boor, C. de. (1978). A practical guide to spline. In *Applied Mathematical Sciences, New York: Springer, 1978: Vol. Volume 27.* https://doi.org/10.2307/2006241

Che, Z., Purushotham, S., Cho, K., Sontag, D., & Liu, Y. (2018). Recurrent neural networks for multivariate time series with missing values. *Scientific Reports*, *8*(1). https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-24271-9

Chung, J., Gülçehre, Cho, K., & Bengio, Y. (2014). Empirical evaluation of gated recurrent neural networks on sequence modeling. *CoRR*, *abs/1412.3555.* http://arxiv.org/abs/1412.3555

Hochreiter, S., & Schmidhuber, J. (1997). Long short-term memory. *Neural Computation*, *9*(8), 1735–1780. https://doi.org/10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735

Kanjo, E., Younis, E. M., & Ang, C. S. (2019). Deep learning analysis of mobile physiological, environmental and location sensor data for emotion detection. *Information Fusion*, *49*, 46–56. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.inffus.2018.09.001

Kim, Y. J., & Chi, M. (2018). Temporal belief memory: Imputing missing data during rnn training. *Proceedings of the 27th International Joint Conference on Artificial Intelligence*, 2326–2332.

Lipton, Z. C., Kale, D. C., & Wetzel, R. C. (2016). Directly modeling missing data in sequences with rnns: Improved classification of clinical time series. *CoRR*, *abs/1606.04130.* http://arxiv.org/abs/1606.04130

Little, R. J. A., & Rubin, D. B. (2002). *Statistical analysis with missing data.* John Wiley & Sons, Inc. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119013563

Neverova, N., Wolf, C., Lacey, G., Fridman, L., Chandra, D., Barbello, B., & Taylor, G. (2016). Learning human identity from motion patterns. *IEEE Access*, *4*, 1810–1820.

RUBIN, D. B. (1976). Inference and missing data. *Biometrika*, *63*(3), 581–592. https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/63.3.581

Sathyanarayana, A., Joty, S., Fernandez-Luque, L., Ofli, F., Srivastava, J., Elmagarmid, A., Arora, T., & Taheri, S. (2016). Sleep quality prediction from wearable data using deep learning. *JMIR mHealth and*

uHealth, *4*(4), e125. https://doi.org/10.2196/mhealth.6562

Stekhoven, D. J., & Bühlmann, P. (2011). MissForest—non-parametric missing value imputation for mixed-type data. *Bioinformatics*, *28*(1), 112–118. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr597

Suhara, Y., Xu, Y., & Pentland, A. S. (2017, April). DeepMood. *Proceedings of the 26th International Conference on World Wide Web.* https://doi.org/10.1145/3038912.3052676

Torous, J., Staples, P., & Onnela, J.-P. (2015). Realizing the potential of mobile mental health: New methods for new data in psychiatry. *Current Psychiatry Reports*, *17*(8). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11920-015-0602-0

Yan, F., & Mikolajczyk, K. (2015). Deep correlation for matching images and text. *2015 Ieee Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (Cvpr)*, 3441–3450.

Zhang, Q., Jones, A. S., Rijmen, F., & Ip, E. H. (2010). Multivariate discrete hidden markov models for domain-based measurements and assessment of risk factors in child development. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics*, *19*(3), 746–765. https://doi.org/10.1198/jcgs.2010.09015

Zhang, Q., Rahman, A., & D'este, C. (2013). Impute vs. ignore: Missing values for prediction. *The 2013 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks (Ijcnn)*, 1–8.