

Real-time detection of voltage patterns in the brain

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Abstract – 30 Nov

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Symbols

Notation

- y Scalars are denoted in lowercase italic.
- \mathbf{z} Vectors are denoted in lowercase boldface.
- \mathbf{A} Matrices are denoted in uppercase boldface.
- \odot Elementwise multiplication. (“Hadamard product”).
- $\sigma(\cdot)$ Sigmoid ‘squashing’ function. $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+\exp(-x)}$, $\in (0, 1)$.
- $\tanh(\cdot)$ Hyperbolic tangent. $\tanh(x) = 2 \sigma(x) - 1$, $\in (-1, 1)$.

Signals

- \mathbf{z}_t Digitized LFP sample at discrete time step t . $\mathbf{z}_t \in \mathbb{R}^c$, with c the number of channels (i.e. the number of electrodes simultaneously recorded from). Input to an SWR detection algorithm.
- o_t Output signal of an SWR detection algorithm, $\in \mathbb{R}$.
- p_t Transformation of o_t , so that it is constrained to \mathbb{R}^+ . Should be high when the corresponding input sample \mathbf{z}_t is part of an SWR segment, and low when it is not. $p_t = |o_t|$ for online linear filters; $p_t = \sigma(o_t)$ for the RNN’s of [chapter 4](#).
- y_t Binary target signal, used when training data-driven SWR detection algorithms. We define $y_t = 1$ when the corresponding input sample \mathbf{z}_t is part of an SWR segment, and $y_t = 0$ when it is not.

Abbreviations

CA1	Cornu ammonis, region 1. Region in the hippocampus where voltages are recorded from (see ???).
CA3	Cornu ammonis, region 3. Region in the hippocampus (see ???). CA3 sends many axons (called “Schafer collaterals”) to CA1.
GEVec	generalized eigenvector. See section 3.2 .
GEVal	generalized eigenvalue. See section 3.2 .
LFP	Local field potential. The extracellular electric potential (see ??).
RNN	Recurrent neural network. See chapter 4 .
SWR	Sharp wave-ripple. The pattern in the LFP that we want to detect in real-time. See ??.

Glossary

Apical	The 'top' side of a pyramidal neuron. In the neocortex: the side near the skull. In CA1: the 'stratum radiatum' side (see ??).
Basal	The 'bottom' side of a pyramidal neuron. In the neocortex: the side towards the center of the brain. In CA1: the 'stratum oriens' side (see ??).
Tetrode	Four thin electrode wires ($< 30\mu\text{m}$ in diameter), bundled together.
Neurite	Either an axon or a dendrite.
Schaffer collateral	Axon originating in CA3 and terminating in CA1.
Soma	(plural: somata). Cell body of a neuron.

Introduction – 9 Nov [9p]

1.1 Closed-loop brain-computer interfaces [1p]

1.2 Sharp wave-ripples [6p]

Description [2p]

Scientific importance [2p]

Biophysics [1p]

Closed-loop technology [1p]

1.3 Problem statement [1p]

1.4 Thesis overview [1p]

Chapter 2

Single-channel linear filtering – 19 Oct [10p]

- 2.1 Offline labelling of SWR segments [3p]
- 2.2 State of the art online SWR detectors [3p]
- 2.3 Quantifying & comparing detectors [4p]

Multi-channel linear filtering – 12 Oct [10p]

3.1 Data-driven algorithms [1p]

In this and the following chapter, we describe *supervised*, or *data-driven* detection algorithms: they require training data $\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{train}}$, and an associated labelling y_t^{train} which marks when there is an event present in $\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{train}}$. We arbitrarily define $y_t \in \{0, 1\}$, with $y_t = 1$ when the corresponding input sample \mathbf{z}_t is part of an SWR segment, and $y_t = 0$ when it is not. The problem of obtaining a reference target labelling y_t for some recording data \mathbf{z}_t is the same as marking SWR segments for offline analysis or for offline evaluation of an online detection algorithm. As described in [section 2.1](#), this can be done either by human expert labellers, or by using an automated *offline* SWR detection algorithm, where we assume that the automated labelling would correspond well to a human expert labelling. In this thesis, we use the automated labelling method of [section 2.1](#) to generate target labellings y_t^{train} .

Before a supervised algorithm can be used for real-time detection, its parameters have to be ‘tuned’. This is done using a training dataset $(\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{train}}, y_t^{\text{train}})$, during the so called *training phase*. Parameters are changed such that the algorithm’s output o_t for an input $\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{train}}$ matches the target labelling y_t^{train} well. [Sections 3.2](#) and [4.2](#) describe how this tuning can be done for two concrete detection algorithms.

The hope is that the trained algorithm also performs well on input data $\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{test}}$ not part of the training set. That is, that the algorithm has good *generalization performance*. When this is not the case and the algorithm is tuned so that it only performs well on the training data, we say that the algorithm has been *overfit*. Often, so called *regularization* methods exist to discourage overfitting on the training data. Some example regularization methods are discussed in [sections 3.4](#) and [4.3](#).

3.2 Linear signal-to-noise maximisation [2p]

In this chapter, we search for a linear combination of channels that yields an output signal o_t useful for sharp wave-ripple detection. More precisely, we search for a vector

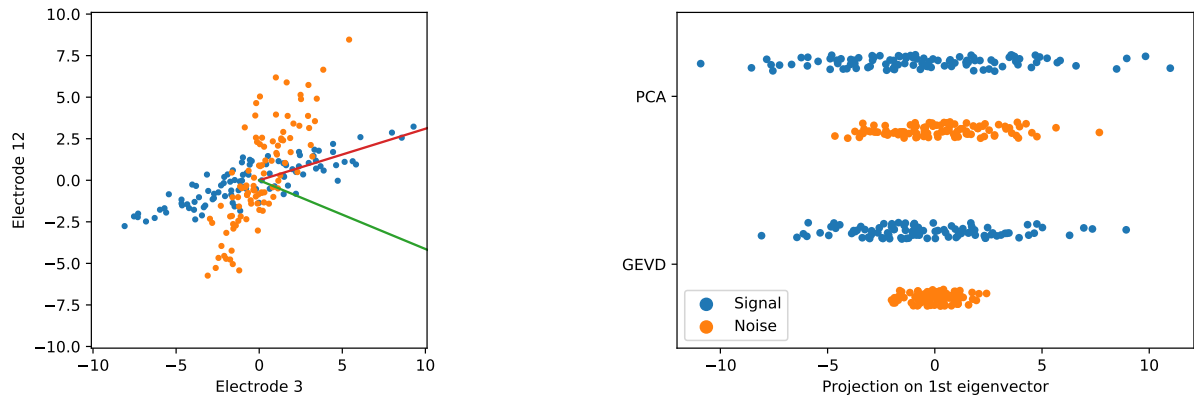


Figure 3.1: **Linear signal-to-noise maximisation.** Toy example to illustrate the generalized eigenvector approach to signal detection. *Left*: multi-channel time-series data plotted in ‘phase space’ (meaning without time axis), with blue dots representing samples where the signal was present, and orange dots representing samples where it was not. Actually toy data drawn from two 2-dimensional Gaussian distributions with different covariance matrices. Red vector: first eigenvector of the signal covariance matrix (also known as the first principal component). Green vector: first generalized eigenvector of the signal and noise covariance matrices. *Right*: Projection of both data sets on both the ordinary eigenvector (“PCA”) and the generalized eigenvector (“GEVD”). The ratio of the projected signal data variance versus the projected noise data variance is maximised for the GEVD case.

$\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^c$ in channel (or electrode) space to project the samples $\mathbf{z}_t \in \mathbb{R}^c$ on, so that the output signal

$$o_t = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z}_t \quad (3.1)$$

has high variance (or power) during SWR events, and low variance outside them. This principle is illustrated with a two-dimensional toy dataset in [fig. 3.1](#). We can then detect SWR events using threshold crossings of the envelope of o_t , as discussed in [section 2.2](#).

The remainder of this section describes how this vector \mathbf{w} can be found.

The optimization problem

Suppose all training samples $\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{train}}$ are gathered and divided over two data matrices $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times n_S}$ and $\mathbf{N} \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times n_N}$, where \mathbf{S} (for ‘signal’) contains all n_S samples of $\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{train}}$ where an SWR is present, and \mathbf{N} (for ‘noise’) contains all n_N other samples. (These matrices can be easily constructed by concatenating all segments in $\mathbf{z}_t^{\text{train}}$ where an SWR is present, and all segments where there is no SWR present).

[Equation \(3.1\)](#) then becomes, in vector notation:

$$\mathbf{o}_S = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{S}$$

$$\mathbf{o}_N = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{N},$$

where each element of the row vectors \mathbf{o}_S and \mathbf{o}_N corresponds to one (multichannel) sample of \mathbf{S} or \mathbf{N} . [Figure 3.1](#) (right) shows the distribution of the values in two example data vectors \mathbf{o}_S and \mathbf{o}_N .

We want to find the weight vector $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ that maximises the variance of \mathbf{o}_S versus the variance of \mathbf{o}_N , i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mathbf{w}} &= \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{\text{Var}(\mathbf{o}_S)}{\text{Var}(\mathbf{o}_N)} \\ &= \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{\frac{1}{n_S} \mathbf{o}_S \mathbf{o}_S^T}{\frac{1}{n_N} \mathbf{o}_N \mathbf{o}_N^T} \\ &= \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{\frac{1}{n_S} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{S}^T \mathbf{w}}{\frac{1}{n_N} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{N} \mathbf{N}^T \mathbf{w}}\end{aligned}\tag{3.2}$$

In this last equation, we recognize the empirical covariance matrices \mathbf{R}_{SS} and \mathbf{R}_{NN} , which are defined as:

$$\mathbf{R}_{SS} = \frac{1}{n_S} \mathbf{S} \mathbf{S}^T \tag{3.3}$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{NN} = \frac{1}{n_N} \mathbf{N} \mathbf{N}^T \tag{3.4}$$

$\mathbf{R}_{SS} \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times c}$ and $\mathbf{R}_{NN} \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times c}$ are symmetric matrices, where each diagonal element yields the variance of a channel, and each off-diagonal element yields the covariance between a pair of channels.

The condition for the optimal weight vector, [eq. \(3.2\)](#), is thus equivalent to:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{R}_{SS} \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{R}_{NN} \mathbf{w}} \tag{3.5}$$

In [appendix A](#), we show that the solution $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ to this optimisation problem is the first so called “generalized eigenvector” of $(\mathbf{R}_{SS}, \mathbf{R}_{NN})$.

The generalized eigenproblem

An arbitrarily scaled vector \mathbf{w}_i is a so called *generalized eigenvector* (GEVec) for the ordered matrix pair $(\mathbf{R}_{SS}, \mathbf{R}_{NN})$ when the following holds:

$$\mathbf{R}_{SS} \mathbf{w}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{R}_{NN} \mathbf{w}_i, \tag{3.6}$$

where the scalar λ_i is the so called *generalized eigenvalue* (GEVal) corresponding to \mathbf{w}_i . The largest scalar λ_1 for which [eq. \(3.6\)](#) holds is the ‘first’ GEVal, and as mentioned before, the corresponding GEVec \mathbf{w}_1 is the solution $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ to [eq. \(3.5\)](#).

Since the 1960’s, numerically stable algorithms exist that solve the generalised eigenproblem [eq. \(3.6\)](#) [1]. A specialized algorithm is applicable when the input matrices are symmetric – as is the case for \mathbf{R}_{SS} and \mathbf{R}_{NN} . This algorithm (based on the Cholesky factorization and the classical QR-algorithm for ordinary eigenproblems) is implemented in the LAPACK software package (as `dsygv`), and can be easily accessed using e.g. the `eig` function from MATLAB, or the `eigh` function from SciPy’s `linalg` module.

Figure 3.2: A signal-to-noise maximising linear combination of channels.

3.3 Combining space and time [1p]

3.4 Regularization [1p]

3.5 Channels [1p]

3.6 Delays [1p]

3.7 Multiple eigenvectors [2p]

3.8 Spectral preprocessing [1p]

Nonlinear signal detection – 2 Nov [9p]

- 4.1 Recurrent neural networks [2p]
- 4.2 Optimization [3p]
- 4.3 Regularization [2p]
- 4.4 Channels [1p]
- 4.5 Network size [1p]

Discussion – 16 Nov [4p]

5.1 Comparing detectors [2p]

5.2 Further work [2p]

Conclusions – 30 Nov [1p]

References

- [1] Gene H. Golub and Charles F. Van Loan. *Matrix Computations*. Fourth edition. The Johns Hopkins University Press, 2013.

Appendices

A	Generalized eigenvectors maximise signal-to-noise
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Appendix A

Generalized eigenvectors maximise signal-to-noise
