

# Classification of fNIRS Finger Tapping Data with Multi-Labeling and Deep Learning

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**Abstract**—Studying the relationship between the brain and finger tapping motions can contribute towards an improved understanding of neuromuscular impairment. Furthermore, acquiring brain data signals non-intrusively during finger tapping exercises, and building a robust classification model can aid in the field of human computer interaction. In this paper, we present a promising approach for spatially descriptive multi-labeling of spatiotemporal functional Near Infrared Spectroscopy (fNIRS) data to autonomously detect different finger tapping levels in different regions of the brain simultaneously. Our multi-class multi-labeling technique assigns labels to the left and right index fingers, and a given label describes one of three different finger tapping frequencies (rest, 80bpm, and 120bpm) to be monitored in the corresponding contralateral spatial location in the brain's motor cortex. We train a CNN/LSTM-based network to classify the aforementioned finger tapping levels spatially and simultaneously. The evaluation, based on simultaneous multi-label predictions for two brain regions, is performed with a metric commonly used in multi-labeling, Hamming Loss, along with confusion matrix-based measurements. Promising testing results are obtained with an average Hamming Loss of 0.185, average F-Score of 0.81, and average Accuracy of 0.81. Moreover, we explain our model and novel multi-labeling approach by generating Shapley Additive Explanation values and plotting them on an image-like background, which represents the fNIRS channel layout used as data input. Shapley values help to add interpretability to our deep learning model and by confirming expected results, offer a pathway to the future development of complex deep learning models that attempt to predict social-cognitive-affective states.

**Index Terms**—CNN, finger tapping, fNIRS, Hamming Loss, LSTM, machine learning, multi-labeling, spatially descriptive, spatiotemporal

## I. INTRODUCTION

Research in Human Computer Interaction (HCI) and Brain-Computer Interfacing (BCI) continues to make strides in the advancement of machines as an aid to people with disabilities and for rehabilitation. Gathering brain data through non-intrusive mediums along with finding robust ways of interpreting the data have been an integral part of this research. For instance, through image processing, a nose tracking cursor and an eye gazing interface give people with impaired motor function the ability to communicate with others [1], [2]. In another work, a classification model was presented based on the use of Electroencephalogram (EEG) data to distinguish between mental counting and wrist rotations [3]. EEG data was also used by León [4] to classify combinations of hand and feet movement imagery for robotic arm control. Other examples include utilizing a hybrid set of data, such as a combination

of EEG and Functional Near Infrared Spectroscopy (fNIRS), to detect different types of motor imagery. Such experiments included classifying the motor imagery related to the force and speed of right hand clenching [6] and motor imagery of left and right hand grasping [7]. Another area of interest in HCI/BCI is to explore the separate ability of fNIRS signals to represent movement and imagery. Three right foot soccer playing motion imageries (i.e. passing, stopping, shooting) were classified by Li et al. [5] with an average accuracy of approximately 79%. Right thumb and little finger physical tapping were distinguished with a validation accuracy of 97.17% by Woo et al. [8]. All the aforementioned studies offer ways of helping those who have compromised motor abilities by providing possible means of communication with the outside world. Moreover, increasing our knowledge of the brain and how to best capture and classify its signals gives hope to those who suffer from locked-in syndrome.

Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) represents the gold standard for brain measurement in cases where it is possible to place participants in the fMRI magnet with minimal motion permitted. Although fNIRS cannot measure deep brain structures like fMRI, it can take comparable measurements of hemodynamic responses across the brain cortex, and it can do so in naturalistic real-world environments due to portability, ease of set up, and decreased sensitivity to a subject's motion [9]. Thus, fNIRS could be a suitable device for BCI applications, where target users can wear the non-invasive device in their naturalistic environments. The motion

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sensitivity of fNIRS sensors is also smaller than that of EEG sensors and fNIRS can provide greater spatial resolution [10]. Although its acquisition of neural information is restricted to 1 cm below the surface of the brain, fNIRS has been a popular way of collecting brain data signals as it is capable of capturing hemodynamic information in a non-restrictive and practical way while providing ample spatial and temporal resolution.

The classification of finger tapping activities with the use of fNIRS data is a popular area of research [10], [16]. Finding a suitable interpretation of data collected by fNIRS sensors as it relates to a subject's physical or mental activity is key to making the data useful for HCI/BCI. In this paper, we propose an approach that aims at capturing the spatiotemporal nature of the fNIRS data with a robust deep learning algorithm, which combines a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and Long Short Term Memory (LSTM). Moreover, assigning labels to the data, which represent the spatial nature of the fNIRS probe configuration can yield information about the location of activation. Therefore, by handling the readings acquired by the fNIRS probe channels similar to video frames, we can apply our novel spatially descriptive multi-label/multi-class deep learning classifier, which we first introduced to detect different activity levels in various regions of interest simultaneously in video data [17]. In this case, finger tapping data would be formatted to represent two regions of interest in the brain, namely, the left and right motor cortices. Channel readings, based on the corresponding probe locations, would be formatted to represent these two sides of the brain.

The data used in this study was collected at a University in the Western United States. The dataset contains 51 sessions of index finger tapings from the right and left hands at three different frequencies from 12 participants. Each session included sequences of both index fingers tapping at the same frequencies, single index finger tapings and rest periods. The different levels of finger tapping frequency (rest, 80bpm, and 120bpm) lend themselves well to a multi-class labeling schema.

Then, applying our novel spatial multi-labeling technique of designating two labels to the two sides of the brain, each of which is assigned a finger tapping frequency level, classification would be based on a multi-label/multi-class schema. This is a novel approach to multi-labeling since in most studies, binary labels are used for the presence (1) or absence (0) of each class in a multi-label [18], [19]. Moreover, in these cases, the multi-label does not provide spatial information the way that our schema does.

We propose a unique and promising approach to classifying various frequency levels of index finger tapping *simultaneously* with the use of a multi-label/multi-class labeling schema. Our novel multi-labeling approach provides a concurrent detection of different levels of brain activation in the two sides of the brain. The spatiotemporal nature of the fNIRS signal acquired during finger tapping trials is captured during the training and validation of a Convolutional LSTM model. Different from our previous work [17], which focuses on video data, in this work (i) the labels are assigned to fNIRS data formatted to represent the probe configuration for the two sides of the brain; (ii) we employ and generate Shapley Additive Explanation values [56]

to help explain the spatial characteristics of our Convolutional LSTM model; (iii) we plot the Shapley values on an image-like background, which represents the fNIRS channel layout used as data input. Applying Shapley values is notable as it can be used to view the structure of deep learning models (and these deep learning 'black boxes' can often be difficult to interpret) and to show the regions of the brain that were most important for different model predictions. Finger tapping has been heavily studied in the brain measurement domain, and there are known brain activations in the contralateral primary motor cortices, based on which finger is being tapped (left finger activates right primary motor cortex, and vice versa). We use our Shapley values to show that the most predictive channels in our deep learning model align with known spatial characteristics of the brain during finger tapping. By using our model explainability techniques on a benchmark finger tapping task, we demonstrate the potential of applying this approach to more complex classification tasks (e.g. classifying types of workload or emotional states from fNIRS data), where the use of Shapley values can help to explain the model, while also having the potential to add to the field of cognitive neuroscience, whereby complex interactions between interconnected brain regions could be identified with an explainability technique.

The organization of this paper is as follows: We discuss the related work in Section II. We then describe our network model and illustrate the formatting of our dataset, and labeling structure in Section III. We present our experimental results along with further analysis of our proposed method with Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP) values in Section IV. We then conclude the paper in Section V.

## II. RELATED WORK

Finger tapping abilities have been studied as a way of determining the progression of Parkinson's Disease [22], [23]. Similarly, other neuromuscular disabilities caused by cerebral palsy and stroke can be better understood with finger tapping exercises [24], [25]. This means that studying the relationship between the brain and finger tapping motions can contribute towards an improved understanding of neuromuscular impairment. Furthermore, by acquiring brain data signals non-intrusively during finger tapping exercises and building a robust classification model, can aid in the fields of HCI and BCI for people with compromised motor function. Training BCI applications on real, or imagined, finger tapping motions has been heavily studied in part because finger tapping has been found to result in consistent patterns of activation in brain areas involved in motor function. Specifically, right finger tapping shows reliable activation in the left primary motor cortex, and vice versa. Tapping both fingers simultaneously will result in both left and right primary cortices being activated (amongst a host of other regions that are implicated in the execution of motor function) [4], [57].

The classification of brain signals, which show greatest activation during finger tapping motions, can also lead to establishing a brain mapping based on sensor locations [27] thereby assisting in motor skill rehabilitation [26]. Moreover, the study

of finger tapping motor imagery is instrumental in the fields of HCI/BCI [30], [31]. Neural correlates exist between imagined motor movements and real motor movements [68], [69]. Also, neural correlates of different finger tapping frequencies can be detected through hemodynamic responses [70]. Therefore, being able to detect areas of brain activation during physical finger tapings at different frequencies can impart a better understanding of brain activity during imagined finger tapings which could offer a means of communication through BCI for locked-in patients. Moreover, classifying brain activation patterns during finger tapping activities can help measure improvements gained through BCI stroke rehabilitation [26] and assess the progression of Parkinson's Disease [70].

Since hemodynamic response is correlated to finger tapping imagery and execution [28], [32], the study of fNIRS signals evoked during this type of activity is fitting. In general, research based on fNIRS signals has gained popularity over the last several years [33], [34]. Using optical wavelengths between 650 nm and 1000 nm produced by the emitter probes, the detector probes detect the reflected light due to changes in oxygenated (OXY) and deoxygenated (DEOXY) hemoglobin concentrations at the cerebral cortex. The changes in hemoglobin oxygenation are a result of neural activity elicited by stimuli.

The study of neural activation due to finger tapping using fNIRS signals has shown interesting results. Bak et al. [11] performed a ternary classification of left index finger, right index finger tapping, and foot tapping with an SVM model, and obtained an average accuracy of about 70.4%. Woo et al. [8] used a deep convolutional generative neural network to augment their data, and trained a CNN model, which produced a validation accuracy of 97.17% for thumb tapping and little finger tapping classifications. Nazeer et al. [12] used vector-based phase analysis features and a Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA) model to distinguish between left index finger tapping, right finger tapping, and rest. The results, based on a sample size of seven, were 85.4  $\pm$  1.4% for this three-class distinction.

It is difficult to compare the results of the aforementioned studies since different models were used, and different finger tapping exercises were conducted. All were based on fNIRS data, and reported robust classification accuracies. However, the disadvantage of using shallow learning (i.e. SVM, LDA) is the need to choose features that best fit the nature of the data. Nazeer et al. [12] reported robust classifications results with LDA with a small sample size of seven subjects. Woo et al. [8] reported their robust results based on a sample size of 11 subjects and with a deep learning CNN model. The latter study along with research by Trakoolwilaiwan et al. [36] and Wickramaratne et al. [37] have demonstrated that CNN-based algorithms are suitable for learning patterns in raw fNIRS data, thereby eliminating the need for generating handcrafted features. Additionally, recent research has been conducted to support the use of LSTM networks in the classification of fNIRS data [38], [39]. Although the data was not finger tapping related, improvements in classification results were shown as the algorithm was able to capture the temporal characteristics of the data.

The monitoring of simultaneous activity based on spatiotemporal data has been studied for a variety of applications. For example, a Convolutional LSTM was used to predict the simultaneous demands of different modes of transportation in an urban environment [21]. Also, using magnetoencephalography (MEG) and SVM, four types of simultaneous bilateral hand movements were classified with average accuracies of 75% and 70% for physical and imagined movements, respectively [20]. Classification of concurrent events offers a snapshot view of the output states through time providing additional information related to the correlation of these actions. For example, this provides a means of exploring the neural correlates of finger tapping performed by fingers on different hands. Our interest in detecting simultaneous activity in spatiotemporal data necessitates the use of multi-labels. Multi-labeling has been used in video and other spatiotemporal data classification [40], [41]. However, most multi-labeling schemas in current research are based on selecting one of more descriptors (classes) and then referring to them as a multi-label. For example, the multi-labels in the YouTube-8M database [42] are annotations, which describe the contents of the video. Similarly, in combating noise pollution, environmental sounds, which include simultaneous sounds from different sources, are tagged, thereby forming the multi-labels [43]. In the medical field, multi-labels have been used in classifying motor execution and imagery. For example, Olsson et al. [44] classified compound hand movements based on high density surface electromyography (HD-sEMG) recordings using a series of labels that describe the basic movements (i.e.: individual finger movements) needed to attain the final compound movement (i.e.: fist). Therefore, the basic movements defined the individual labels, which were used to build the multi-labels. León [4] used multi-labels to represent different combinations of hand and feet motor imagery captured by EEG data. One of the labels would be assigned a '1' based on the motion(s) detected, and all other labels would then receive a '0'. The previously mentioned examples utilize a pool of classes to choose from in building multi-labels. To the best of our knowledge, the spatially descriptive multi-label/multi-class approach that we employ in our research has not been attempted. In our case, the labels represent spatial regions of interest. Each region of interest gets assigned one of many classes depending on the activity level in the area that is monitored.

Ensuring that labels are balanced is important to avoid classification skew, which can impact results. Multi-labeling can magnify the problem of label imbalance [40]. Data augmentation is a technique, which increases the number of samples, and helps balance labels [8], [45]. For example, when classifying different levels of activity in surveillance videos [17], we augmented the video data by creating additional videos through rotation of frame quadrants to increase samples of minority labels. Additionally, another approach to label and class balancing is to use resampling techniques, such as Random Undersampling (RUS) and Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique (SMOTE). SMOTENN [47], [59], an interesting balancing technique, combines both oversampling and undersampling. More specifically, it combines SMOTE

oversampling (for the minority classes) with Edited Nearest Neighbors undersampling (for the majority classes). This balancing technique is utilized in our proposed method.

### III. PROPOSED METHOD

By considering the two sides of the brain as the two regions of interest, we use the fNIRS probe layout shown in Fig. 1. Paying attention to the channels in between the sources (in red) and detectors (in blue), the OXY and DEOXY data channels in our fNIRS readings were separated into the two sections of interest, namely, left primary motor cortex and right primary motor cortex. Then, the channels in each respective region were rearranged to reflect the proximity of detectors to the sources. The final configuration is shown in Table I. The two distinct spatial regions each correspond to a label assigned to an index finger as part of our multi-label. With this set-up, we are able to determine the types of activation taking place in each side of the brain simultaneously during index finger tappings.

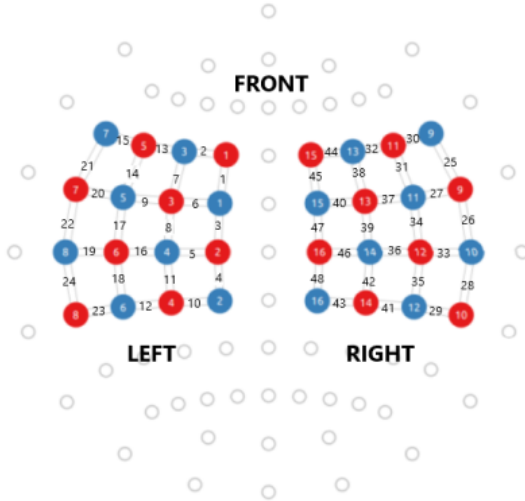


Fig. 1. fNIRS probe layout, with regions on the left and right primary motor cortex covered

LEFT MOTOR CORTX					RIGHT MOTOR CORTX				
CH.1	CH.14	CH.20	CH.6	CH.11	CH.24	CH.45	CH.31	CH.27	CH.40
CH.2	CH.15	CH.17	CH.3	CH.16	CH.23	CH.44	CH.30	CH.34	CH.47
CH.7	CH.21	CH.9	CH.4	CH.18	CH.12	CH.38	CH.25	CH.37	CH.48
CH.13	CH.22	CH.8	CH.5	CH.19	CH.10	CH.32	CH.26	CH.39	CH.46
									CH.42
									CH.36
									CH.29
									CH.35
									CH.41
									CH.43

TABLE I: Channel order format to reflect probe configuration in the left and right regions of interest

In our labeling schema, each spatial region corresponds to an index finger which gets assigned one of three possible finger tapping frequencies: rest, 80bpm, and 120bpm. Our spatially descriptive multi-labels enable the recognition of concurrent finger tappings by the right and left index fingers simultaneously, and the identification of different rates of tapping through a *multi-class* descriptor for each label. Our labeling schema, like most multi-labeling schemas, is more prone to label imbalance. That is why we chose SMOTENN [47], [59], which uses hybrid oversampling/undersampling, to balance our labels. The effect of SMOTENN on the class sample distributions for our two labels is shown in Table II.

Our network model, dataset and the labeling structure are described in detail in the following subsections.

Before SMOTENN	Label #1	Label #2
Class '0'	45.9%	47.1%
Class '1'	27.2%	26.3%
Class '2'	26.8%	26.6%
After SMOTENN		
Class '0'	34.5%	33.8%
Class '1'	32.9%	32.5%
Class '2'	32.6%	33.7%

TABLE II: Class distribution before and after label balancing with SMOTENN

#### A. Network Model

Since the fNIRS signals acquired during index finger tappings are spatiotemporal, we chose to base our network model on a Convolutional LSTM to be able to detect the spatial and temporal properties of the data. The structure of our network model is shown in Fig. 2. The fNIRS input data is formatted into two regions of interest and labeled with our multi-labels. The network contains two 2D convolutional layers, with the first followed by a max pooling layer. Then, following a dropout layer, there is an LSTM layer and a dense layer, which leads to a final output layer. An adaptive learning rate, which decreased by a factor of 2 to a minimum of  $10^{-6}$ , was used along with binary cross-entropy loss and *rmsprop* optimization. Since the class values in our multi-labels are one-hot encoded and the multi-output layer uses sigmoid activation, binary cross-entropy was the suitable choice. The adaptive learning rate and early stopping monitor validation loss so that adjustments are made to the learning rate if the validation loss does not decrease after two epochs and consequently, training automatically stops if the validation loss has stopped decreasing after three epochs. After training, the model was tested on *unseen* fNIRS finger tapping sessions formatted the same way as our training/validation data (detailed next).

As illustrated in Fig. 2, the input to our proposed network model is formatted into two sections, wherein the left and right include the channels, which capture the changes in hemoglobin concentrations for the left and right motor cortices for each participant. Specifically, the channels for each region of interest were grouped into chunks of 50 samples with a sliding window of 10 samples. Batches of these groups were then used to train and validate our model.

#### B. Dataset

Our fNIRS data was collected with a NIRx NirsSport2 device at a sampling rate of 10.2 Hz. We used the standard NIRX montage that covers the right and left primary motor cortices. Channel readings of changes in light intensity corresponding to changes in OXY and DEOXY hemoglobin concentrations at the cerebral cortex were recorded by the Aurora fNIRS software. Data was bandpass filtered from 0.01 Hz and 0.5 Hz to remove noise. The modified Beer-Lambert Law was applied to convert the light intensities into data representative of relative change in OXY and DEOXY hemoglobin. Z-score normalization was applied to each channel. For each sample (OXY and DEOXY), the channels belonging to the left motor

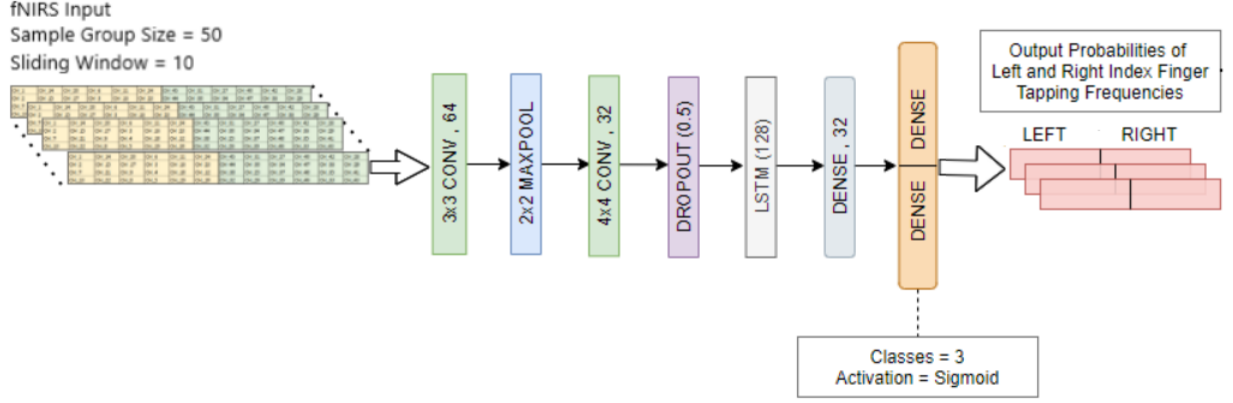


Fig. 2. Proposed deep learning model structure

cortex were rearranged and reshaped to correspond to the probe layout. Subsequently, after the channels for the right motor cortex were formatted accordingly, the two sets of data were concatenated as illustrated in Table I. The final format of the data files included a layer of 4x12 channel-ordered OXY data followed by 4x12 channel-ordered DEOXY data.

Each session included sequences of the following finger tapping combinations: both index fingers at rest; one index finger at rest and the other tapping at either 80bpm or 120bpm, both index fingers tapping at 80bpm, and both index fingers tapping at 120bpm. Due to the complexity of tapping index fingers at two different frequencies simultaneously, the combinations, namely  $[80bpm, 120bpm]$  and  $[120bpm, 80bpm]$ , were not included in the trials. Therefore, there were seven possible multi-labels. Using two labels to spatially represent the left and right motor cortices, one of three classes characterizing the tapping frequency was assigned to each label. The SMOTENN [47], [59] label balancing algorithm was applied to the training and validation data before samples were grouped in sets of 50 with a sliding window of 10 samples. During the grouping process, the label of the middle sample in each group at each location (region of interest), i.e. the label of the 25th sample in this case, was used as part of the multi-label. With a total of 51 finger tapping data acquisition sessions from 12 participants, we initially tested our design by setting aside 10% of the data sessions for testing and trained/validated a model on the remaining part of the data using a random 80% training / 20% validation split. This process was repeated several times. The testing sessions were chosen so that each participant appeared at least twice in the total of all testing trial runs. Likewise, we also conducted a leave-one-subject-out 11-fold cross-validation with a similar process. For each run, a participant's session was set aside for testing. Remaining sessions, not including the subject's other trials, were partitioned in a random 80% training / 20% validation split. One participant was excluded from testing due to an imbalance in the distribution of the number of trial runs.

### C. Proposed Multi-Labeling Structure

Given two spatial regions of interest, namely, the left and right motor cortices, we established a novel approach to multi-labeling. Due to the contralateral relationship between an index

finger's tapping motion and motor cortex activation [58], the left index finger was assigned a label which represents the right motor cortex. The right index finger was assigned a label that represents the left motor cortex. The three tapping frequencies in our data were rest, represented with a '0', 80bpm, represented with a '1', and 120bpm, represented with a '2'. The definition for each type of finger tapping frequency that was used in our labeling schema is shown in Table III.

LEVEL OF TAPPING	DEFINITION
0	rest (No tapping)
1	Index finger tapping at 80bpm
2	Index finger tapping at 120bpm

TABLE III: Three different types of finger tapping frequencies are to be detected in each of the two sides of the brain

As we rearranged and reshaped our fNIRS data into our two regions of interest for each input file (for both OXY and DEOXY layers), we combined the corresponding labels (left index and right index finger) for our multi-labels. For example, suppose that for a particular sample of finger tapping data, the right and left regions of the brain are labeled to have left index finger tapping at 120bpm (level of tapping = '2'); and right index finger tapping is at rest (level of tapping = '0'), respectively. Then, the multi-label of  $[120bpm(2), rest(0)]$  would be assigned to the pertinent sample of fNIRS data as shown in Table IV.

LABEL #1	LABEL #2
Left Index Finger Level of Tapping	Right Index Finger Level of Tapping
2	0

TABLE IV: Example of our spatially and tapping-level descriptive multi-label schema

The finger tapping combinations in our fNIRS database resulted in seven possible multi-labels, namely,  $[rest, rest]$ ,  $[rest, 80bpm]$ ,  $[rest, 120bpm]$ ,  $[80bpm, rest]$ ,  $[120bpm, rest]$ ,  $[80bpm, 80bpm]$ , and  $[120bpm, 120bpm]$ . For each cross-validation run, testing was performed on the five finger tapping sessions that were not in the training and validation set. After

testing, predictions were made, and each type of finger tapping level was assigned a probability for the respective region of interest. The class of the finger tapping frequency (rest(0), 80bpm(1), or 120bpm(2)) with the highest probability was then chosen as part of the predicted multi-label.

### D. Evaluation Criteria

We report our results based on the micro metrics of F-Score and Accuracy. Additionally, we use the measure of Hamming Loss, which is a common metric used in multi-label research, and offers an overall look at a classifier's prediction error [48]. It is an instance-based metric, since it is based on the entire multi-label prediction for each time period of testing data. This metric is often used in BCI and HCI applications. For example, Kalansooriya et al. [46], reported Hamming Loss scores between 0.198 and 0.311 when comparing classifiers to detect emotion from EEG signals retrieved during video game playing. Devlaminck et al. [60] sought to minimize Hamming Loss when comparing classification methods in a BCI application. Reported values between 0.17 and 0.57 were correlated with changes in accuracy measurements. Therefore, to provide a complete picture of our model's performance, we also report micro-averaged F-score and Accuracy, label-based metrics, to consider the label assigned to each region of interest in the testing results separately [48], [49], [50].

**i) Hamming Loss.** For each instance, we compared the group of two predicted classes of finger tapping in our multi-label with the ground truth label assignments. The average Hamming Loss for each testing finger tapping trial was calculated as shown in Eq. (1), where  $S$  represents the number of seconds in a testing finger tapping trial, and  $p_{i,j}$  and  $g_{i,j}$  indicate the predicted level of tapping and the ground truth level of tapping, respectively. Therefore, for each label within a multi-label, a mismatch is assigned a 1. These values are then added and averaged over the product of the number of labels (2) in a multi-label and the time span of the recording in seconds ( $S$ ).

$$\frac{1}{2S} \sum_{i=1}^S \sum_{j=1}^2 [if(p_{i,j} = g_{i,j}, 0, 1)] \quad (1)$$

**ii) Micro-Averaged F-Score and Accuracy.** In order to provide a complete set of performance criteria, we also consider label-based (i.e. single side of the brain) metrics, such as Label-averaged F-Score and Accuracy.

Since our labels can be assigned one of three classes (0,1, or 2) to represent three levels of finger tapping frequency, it is best to perform a micro-average of these parameters. For instance, instead of taking an average of the calculated Accuracy for each level of finger tapping, we determine the overall Accuracy for all levels of tapping at once. The calculations of Micro-Averaged F-score ( $\mu A\_Fscore$ ), and Micro-Averaged Accuracy ( $\mu A\_Accuracy$ ) are shown in Eq. (2), and (3), respectively.

$$\mu A\_Fscore = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^2 (2 * TP)_i}{\sum_{i=0}^2 ((2 * TP)_i + (FP)_i + (FN)_i)} \quad (2)$$

$$\mu A\_Accuracy = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^2 ((TP)_i + (TN)_i)}{\sum_{i=0}^2 ((TP)_i + (TN)_i + (FP)_i + (FN)_i)} \quad (3)$$

## IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Our goal was to detect different levels of finger tapping in two different spatial sides of the brain simultaneously. Through our novel multi-labeling schema and deep learning-based algorithm, we built a model to be able to perform automated classification of spatiotemporal finger tapping data and determine the simultaneous types of tapping taking place by both index fingers. Initially, we tested our design by setting aside 10% of the 51 data acquisition sessions for testing and trained/validated a model on the remaining part of the data. Since the SMOTENN [47], [59] algorithm was applied to this data, the number of instances for different classes, was void of skew and imbalance. After balancing, approximately 200 minutes of multi-labeled fNIRS finger tapping data was available for training and validation using a random 80% training / 20% validation split. Optimal results have been obtained with a window size of 5 seconds and a 1 second sliding window. During training and validation, we monitored training to make sure that validation loss was always smaller than training loss to prevent any possible overfitting. Once the validation loss did not improve for three epochs with an adaptable learning rate, training/validation would end. An overall validation accuracy of 99.52% for both labels supports the validity of our classification schema.

A summary of training and validation metrics is presented in Table V. Average validation losses were always smaller than Average training losses.

Run #	No. of Epochs	Average Training Loss	Training Accuracy Label #1	Training Accuracy Label #2	Average Validation Loss	Validation Accuracy Label #1	Validation Accuracy Label #2
1	27	0.0351	0.9940	0.9942	0.0178	0.9948	0.9947
2	35	0.0214	0.9969	0.9969	0.0064	0.9962	0.9948
3	43	0.0221	0.9963	0.9965	0.0063	0.9941	0.9948
4	19	0.0644	0.9894	0.9887	0.0593	0.9919	0.9932
5	34	0.0197	0.9975	0.9975	0.0106	0.9974	0.9979
6	30	0.0327	0.9941	0.9944	0.0198	0.9953	0.9949
7	39	0.0250	0.9965	0.9965	0.0114	0.9967	0.9959

**TABLE V:** Training and Validation metrics for 7 cross-validation runs

After training and validation, our classifier is then tested on *unseen* similarly configured finger tapping session files. Results were compared to the database's ground truth label annotations. We determined the overall Hamming Loss using Eq. (1) by calculating the average for all groups of two labels for the *unseen* testing finger tapping sessions. We repeated this process seven times and our results are shown in Table VI. These values indicate that our classifier is capable of making correct predictions for both sides of the brain on the testing finger tapping data an average of about 80% of

the time. Additional metrics, namely Micro-Averaged F-score and Accuracy values, were also calculated for each region of interest (i.e. side of the brain), and the results are presented in Table VII.

Cross-Validation Run	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<b>Average Hamming Loss</b>	<b>0.185</b>	<b>0.209</b>	<b>0.235</b>	<b>0.217</b>	<b>0.161</b>	<b>0.211</b>	<b>0.188</b>

**TABLE VI:** Average Hamming Loss of fNIRS finger tapping sessions set aside for testing for 7 cross-validation runs

Cross - Validation	Micro-Averaged F-Score		Micro-Averaged Accuracy	
Run #	Label #1	Label #2	Label #1	Label #2
1	0.819	0.823	0.810	0.818
2	0.803	0.787	0.790	0.786
3	0.775	0.748	0.750	0.752
4	0.793	0.819	0.804	0.812
5	0.838	0.839	0.829	0.841
6	0.760	0.783	0.765	0.759
7	0.827	0.803	0.814	0.811
<b>Average</b>	<b>0.802</b>	<b>0.800</b>	<b>0.796</b>	<b>0.797</b>

**TABLE VII:** Right (Label #1) and Left (Label #2) sides of the brain average label metrics for 7 cross-validation runs

This type of testing provided a general representation of our classifier's ability to classify three different finger tapping frequencies from the two sides of the motor cortex simultaneously. In order to further support our approach, we performed additional testing with a leave-one-subject-out 11-fold cross-validation. For each run, a participant's session was set aside for testing. The remaining sessions, not including other trials performed by the subject, were partitioned in a random 80% training and 20% validation split. One participant was excluded from testing due to an imbalance in the distribution of the number of trial runs. Average Hamming Loss results are shown in Table VIII. This metric displays our classifier's ability of making correct predictions for both sides of the brain on the testing finger tapping data an average of about 83% of the time. Also, Micro-Averaged F-score and Accuracy values, were also calculated for each region of interest (i.e. side of the brain), and the results are presented in Table IX. A discussion of all results is provided in Sec. IV-B.

Subject	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<b>Average Hamming Loss</b>	<b>0.176</b>	<b>0.159</b>	<b>0.158</b>	<b>0.109</b>	<b>0.164</b>	<b>0.188</b>	<b>0.210</b>	<b>0.181</b>	<b>0.182</b>	<b>0.175</b>	<b>0.144</b>

**TABLE VIII:** Average Hamming Loss of 1-vs-all cross-validations for 11 participants

#### A. Visualizing our Proposed Method with SHAP

Motivated by our promising Hamming Loss, Micro-Averaged F-Score and Micro-Averaged Accuracy values, our

Cross - Validation	Micro-Averaged F-Score		Micro-Averaged Accuracy	
Subject #	Label #1	Label #2	Label #1	Label #2
1	0.824	0.735	0.822	0.723
2	0.824	0.853	0.834	0.846
3	0.868	0.809	0.844	0.817
4	0.956	0.824	0.933	0.814
5	0.810	0.862	0.809	0.867
6	0.809	0.838	0.813	0.838
7	0.779	0.794	0.812	0.799
8	0.797	0.75	0.825	0.764
9	0.779	0.853	0.821	0.818
10	0.825	0.825	0.827	0.844
11	0.864	0.848	0.876	0.855
<b>Average</b>	<b>0.830</b>	<b>0.817</b>	<b>0.838</b>	<b>0.817</b>

**TABLE IX:** Right (Label #1) and Left (Label #2) sides of the brain label metrics for leave-one-subject-out 11-fold cross-validations

next goal was to gain further understanding of our network model with Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP) values. SHAP, with its basis in game theory [56], is a way of illustrating model interpretation by assigning impact values on learned features (in the case of deep learning) as they relate to a model's predictions [51], [52]. Using the deep explainer, which is specialized for neural network models, we generated the SHAP values to visualize how our model handles the channel readings when making predictions. The SHAP values reflect a channel's marginal contribution to the output class predictions.

SHAP values are determined based on our deep learning model and testing data. More specifically, in our CNN/LSTM model, an instance (window size = 5 seconds) is represented by the continuous changes in OXY and DEOXY hemoglobin measurements, collected across 48 channels over the Left and Right motor cortices. Thus, when SHAP evaluates a given test instance, it is looking at the value of each of the 96 features/inputs in that instance in the channels shown in Fig. 1. Twenty-four channels are over the left motor cortex and 24 channels are over the right motor cortex. If we consider Fig. 3, we have taken our pretrained CNN/LSTM model, along with each sample representing the condition of [rest(0), rest(0)] and used SHAP to see how the pre-trained model evaluates the OXY and DEOXY features in each instance to ultimately make the final prediction of [rest(0), rest(0)]. We repeat this process for every single [rest(0), rest(0)] 5 second long instance, treating it as a test instance, and using SHAP to evaluate its features. The resulting figure displays the average of the SHAP values for all instances of the target condition. In Fig. 3, the values for '0'(rest) that have the highest impact are shown in red and represent the channels on the right side (top right) and also left side (bottom left) of the layout background from Table I.

A large body of research has found that real, or imagined, finger tapping has reliably been found to activate the primary motor cortices. Tapping the right finger activates the left

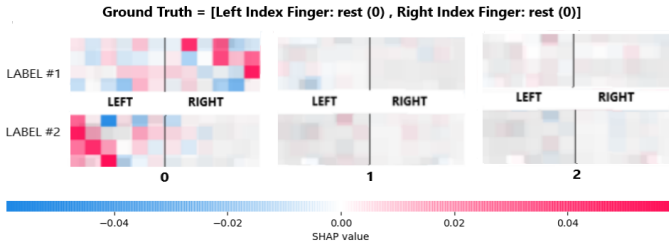


Fig. 3. SHAP values for multi-label [rest(0), rest(0)]

primary motor cortex, and vice versa for the left finger. Tapping of both fingers has been found then to activate both regions simultaneously [4], [57].

When comparing these SHAP values to the channel layout in Table I, we can locate the specific channels with the largest positive impact. This is shown in Fig. 4. Therefore, this allows us to visualize the channels with the highest positive prediction impact on the probe layout as shown in Fig. 5.



Fig. 4. Mapping SHAP values to specific channels for multi-label [rest(0), rest(0)]

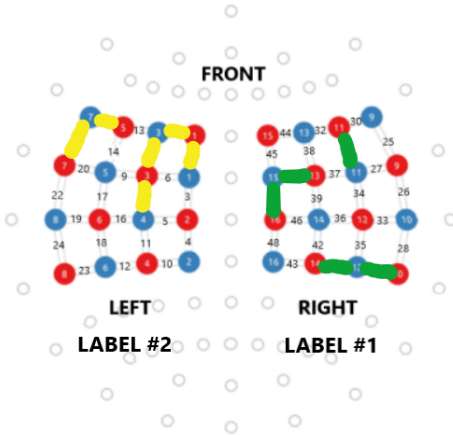


Fig. 5. Highlighting channels with highest positive SHAP values on probe layout for multi-label [rest(0), rest(0)]

SHAP values, based on the other finger tapping combinations were similarly generated. Subsequently, the SHAP values for the multi-labels [rest(0), 80bpm(1)] and [rest(0), 120bpm(2)] are shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. 7, respectively. In Fig. 6, the multi-label [rest(0), 80bpm(1)] represents the simultaneous action of the right index finger tapping at 80bpm while the left index finger is at rest. Similarly, in Fig. 7, the multi-label [rest(0), 120bpm(2)] represents the left index finger at rest while the right index finger is tapping at 120bpm. In both results, as expected, a greater number of positive SHAP values are shown in the right side channels for a prediction of '0' for Label #1. The second label shows the brightest

positive SHAP values in the left side channels for predictions of '1' and '2' for multi-labels [rest(0), 80bpm(1)] and [rest(0), 120bpm(2)], respectively. It is interesting to note the difference in scale between Fig. 6 and Fig. 7, which seems to indicate that the activation levels for the simultaneous detection of an index finger at rest while the other one is tapping at 80bpm is lower than when the tapping is at a higher rate, 120bpm.

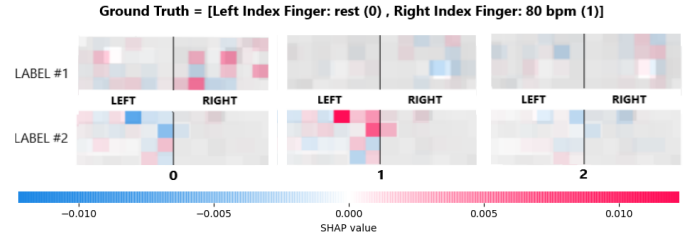


Fig. 6. SHAP values for multi-label [rest(0), 80bpm(1)]

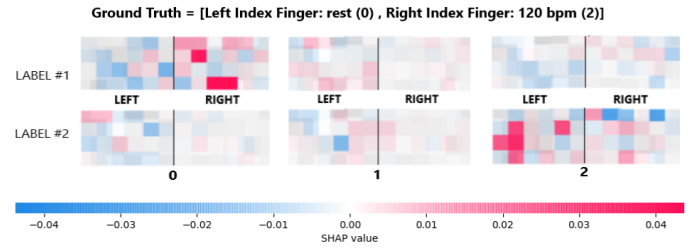


Fig. 7. SHAP values for multi-label [rest(0), 120bpm(2)]

A similar difference in scale persists when comparing the SHAP values for the multi-labels [80bpm(1), rest(0)] and [120bpm(2), rest(0)] as shown in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9, respectively. In Fig. 8, the left finger is tapping at 80bpm while the right finger is at rest. In Fig. 9, the left finger is tapping at the higher rate, 120bpm, and the right finger is at rest. Corresponding channels from the two sides of the motor cortices show the brightest SHAP values, as expected.

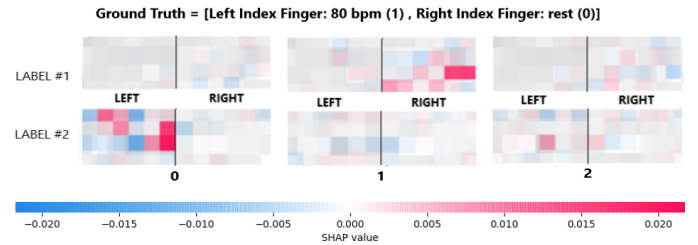


Fig. 8. SHAP values for multi-label [80bpm(1), rest(0)]

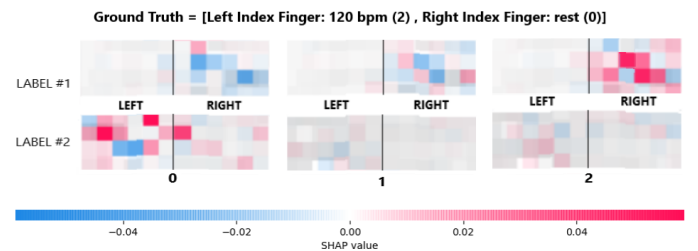


Fig. 9. SHAP values for multi-label [120bpm(2), rest(0)]

Finally, the SHAP values for the multi-labels, which represent both index fingers tapping at the same rate, namely [80bpm(1), 80bpm(1)] and [120bpm(2), 120bpm(2)], are shown in Fig. 10 and Fig. 11, respectively. As anticipated, simultaneous activation is seen in the channels representing both sides of the motor cortices for the same classes in the two figures.

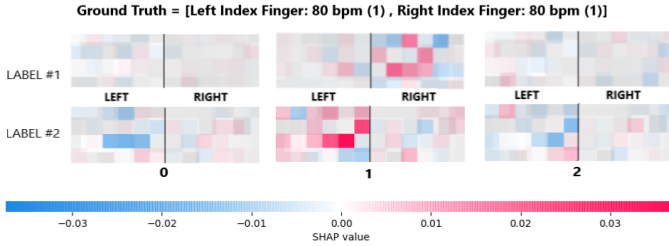


Fig. 10. SHAP values for multi-label [80bpm(1), 80bpm(1)]

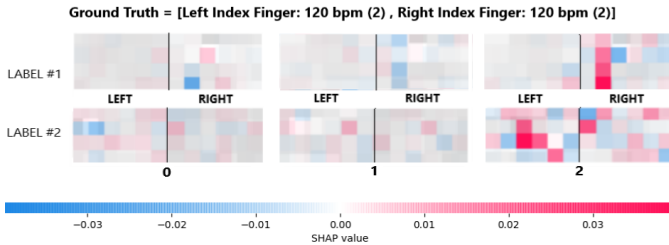


Fig. 11. SHAP values for multi-label [120bpm(2), 120bpm(2)]

Overall, the SHAP values support the well-established contralateral correlation between the sides of motor cortex activation and finger tapping hand [58]. Also, higher levels of activation are exhibited when one finger is at rest and the other finger is tapping at a class level of ‘2’ as compared to a class level of ‘1’ as seen in Fig. 6 through Fig. 9. The smaller scale for the resulting 80bpm SHAP values (Fig. 6 & Fig. 8) as compared to the 120bpm (Fig. 7 & Fig. 9) supports this. Therefore, this study reinforces the use of SHAP values as a way of understanding a deep learning ‘black box’ model. The locations of the brightest positive SHAP values provide an affirmative backing of León’s [4] statement that: “During the preparation of a motor task certain cortical and subcortical regions are activated; contrarily, in the course of motor imageries most of the activity is found within the primary motor cortex over the corresponding contralateral hemisphere.”

By showing that SHAP produces expected results on finger tapping data, where we have known a priori hypotheses about the patterns of activation expected during different finger tapping conditions, we propose that SHAP can and should be further explored on more complex deep learning models that attempt to predict a variety of social-cognitive-affective states (e.g., workload, attention, trust, frustration). With a growing body of literature using machine learning to predict these mental states from brain data, there is a growing need to evaluate and interpret these models [61], and SHAP can provide one additional means of interpretation. Furthermore, with new wearable biotechnology developments, we are seeing

more models that are trained from data collected in operational settings [62] - [67]. These models may make predictions of complex social-cognitive-affective states and SHAP can be used on those models to add to the neuroscience of human information processing, shedding light on the neural correlates and interconnected brain regions underlying these highly complex states.

## B. Further Discussion of Results

We have presented all seven of our multi-labels using SHAP values, and were able to demonstrate that the positive impact values (in red) were located in corresponding sides of the brain. For example, the SHAP values for the multi-label [120bpm(2), rest(0)] are showing the highest activation on the right motor cortex for class ‘2’ and left motor cortex for class ‘0’. These map correctly to the left index finger tapping label of ‘2’ and the right index finger tapping label of ‘0’. This supports our model’s weight assignments for the learned features after training and validation.

Our Hamming Loss results show that on average, for the first and second testing trials, correct predictions were made 80% and 83% of the time, respectively. The corresponding micro-averaged F-score and accuracy metrics were also close to these results in both cases. These outcomes are better than the accuracy obtained by Bak et al. [11] who obtained an average accuracy of about 70.4% when classifying fNIRS data based on left index finger tapping, right index finger tapping, and foot tapping with an SVM model. Their model was meant to distinguish between the three types of tapping separately and not simultaneously, as in our approach with a multi-label. Moreover, classification was binary and not multi-class. Another study as reported by Woo et al. [8] showed that augmentation followed by training a CNN model resulted in a validation accuracy of 97.17% for thumb tapping and little finger tapping. Once again, a binary classifier was used to distinguish the tappings of two different fingers but, in this case, the fingers were on the same hand. Although these results are based on a simpler classification than ours, for a more commensurate comparison, we tested the classification network employed by Woo et al. [8], AlexNet, on our dataset. We tested the AlexNet algorithm using the training/validation data from our first set of testing trials. Resulting validation metrics (AlexNet) are presented next to the ones extracted from Table V (Our Network) in Table X. The resulting overall average AlexNet validation accuracy of 87.8% falls short of our network’s results, thereby supporting our network model as presented in Fig. 2. AlexNet does not include an LSTM layer, which is important to capture label dependency in our multi-labels. This is supported with our network’s overall average validation accuracy of 99.52% presented in Tables V and X.

Nazeer et al. [12] used a sample size of seven subjects in support of classification accuracy results of 85.4 +/- 1.4% when distinguishing between left finger tapping, right finger tapping, and rest. This result, although based on a three-class classification like ours, does not include different tapping frequencies and multi-labels. Our approach goes one step further where discerning between left index finger tapping and

Run #	Average Validation Loss (AlexNet)	Validation Accuracy Label #1 (AlexNet)	Validation Accuracy Label #2 (AlexNet)	Average Validation Loss (Our Network)	Validation Accuracy Label #1 (Our Network)	Validation Accuracy Label #2 (Our Network)
1	0.2675	0.8626	0.8821	0.0178	0.9948	0.9947
2	0.2302	0.8954	0.8872	0.0064	0.9962	0.9948
3	0.2579	0.8458	0.8543	0.0063	0.9941	0.9948
4	0.1911	0.8876	0.8623	0.0593	0.9919	0.9932
5	0.1355	0.8974	0.8743	0.0106	0.9974	0.9979
6	0.1901	0.8907	0.8767	0.0198	0.9953	0.9949
7	0.1080	0.8750	0.8951	0.0114	0.9967	0.9959

**TABLE X:** A comparison of validation metrics for 7 cross-validation runs based on AlexNet and our network

right finger tapping is embedded in our multi-labeling schema allowing us to be able to successfully differentiate between three different tapping frequencies simultaneously for each time step. It eliminates the need to distinguish between right and left finger tapping while providing the ability to classify more complex information.

Our proposed approach introduces a novel spatially descriptive multi-labeling schema, which uses two labels to represent the two sides of the brain. As both labels are classified *simultaneously*, one of three finger tapping frequencies can be assigned to each label. As our SHAP values illustrate, our model is able to learn the correct features of the fNIRS data, which contribute to the class predictions of our multi-labels. Finally, our multi-labeling classification was able to benefit from the use of the LSTM, known for its ability to detect label dependencies [53]–[55].

## V. CONCLUSION

Providing a means of communicating with the outside world for those who have compromised motor function has played an important role in HCI/BCI research. Gaining a better understanding of how to capture the information in fNIRS brain signals to autonomously detect different levels of simultaneous index finger tapping frequencies can contribute to this endeavor. For example, being able classify physical finger tapings at different frequencies can impart a better understanding of brain activity during imagined finger tapings, offering a path of communication through BCI for locked-in patients. Also, understanding brain activation patterns during finger tapping activities can assist in stroke rehabilitation and assess the severity of Parkinson's Disease. We have presented a promising approach to multi-labeling spatiotemporal data to detect different classes in two regions of interest *concurrently*. In this case, we have applied our approach to detect three different levels (rest, 80bpm, and 120bpm) of finger tapping for both index fingers at the same time. The spatial aspect of our fNIRS data, formatted to reflect probe layout, is captured with CNNs and the temporal one is captured with an LSTM. Our novel multi-labeling technique enables us to classify activity on both sides of the brain simultaneously with our network. Our network's SHAP values support its ability to choose appropriate spatial features (which importantly aligns with the known spatial characteristics of finger tapping on the primary motor cortices) when making predictions. By using Shapley's model explainability technique on these benchmark finger tapping tasks, we demonstrate the potential of applying this approach to the more complex neuroscience classification

of human information processing tasks, where the use of Shapley values can help to explain the model, while also having the potential of shedding light on the neural correlates and interconnected brain regions underlying highly complex social-cognitive-affective states.

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