

1 Upgrading Voxel-wise Encoding Model via Integrated Integration 2 over Features and Brain Networks

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16 Abstract

17 A central goal of cognitive neuroscience is to build computational models that predict and explain
18 neural responses to sensory inputs in the cortex. Recent studies attempt to borrow the
19 representation power of deep neural networks (DNN) to predict the brain response and suggest a
20 correspondence between artificial and biological neural networks in their feature representations.
21 However, each DNN instance is often specified for certain computer vision tasks which may not
22 lead to optimal brain correspondence. On the other hand, these voxel-wise encoding models focus
23 on predicting single voxels independently, while brain activity often demonstrates rich and
24 dynamic structures at the population and network levels during cognitive tasks. These two
25 important properties suggest that we can improve the prevalent voxel-wise encoding models by
26 integrating features from DNN models and by integrating cortical network information into the
27 models. In this work, we propose a new unified framework that addresses these two aspects
28 through DNN feature-level ensemble learning and brain atlas-level model integration. Our
29 proposed approach leads to superior performance over previous DNN-based encoding models in
30 predicting whole-brain neural activity during naturalistic video perception. Furthermore, our
31 unified framework also facilitates the investigation of the brain's neural representation mechanism
32 by accurately predicting the neural response corresponding to complex visual concepts.

33

1 Introduction

2 A central goal of computational cognitive neuroscience is to build models that explain how the
3 brain perceives sensory information¹. An ideal computational model of sensory perception would
4 be able to both perform the sensory perception task behaviorally and explain the underlying
5 neural basis during the perception process^{2–6}. This implies two critical goals: to model and
6 predict neural activity in the brain with high accuracy and to achieve human-level performance
7 behaviorally. Previous efforts diverge along these two routines. Most studies in visual and
8 auditory neuroscience focus on analyzing how different levels of sensory information are
9 represented in the cortical network and link these neural coding to perceptual behavior.^{4,7–15}
10 These hypothesis-driven works succeeded in interpreting neural coding and identifying the
11 neural basis of behavioral properties. However, due to the limitation of linear models and the ad-
12 hoc choices of features used in these models, these hypothesis-driven methods often fall short in
13 predicting neural activity with high accuracy. Furthermore, these empirical results cannot be
14 directly turned into computational agents that perform such perception tasks thus lack high-level
15 behavioral descriptions. On the other hand, cognitive models, particularly connectionist models,
16 are designed to mimic human sensory perceptual behavior and perform the same tasks as
17 humans.^{16,17} It is not until the surge of deep neural networks over the past decade that these
18 models finally approach and surpass the human level in many sensory cognition tasks.^{18,19} As
19 opposite to the neural coding studies, these artificial neural network (DNN) models excel in
20 computational tasks, but it remains unclear whether and to what extent they reflect the same
21 underlying representation and computations as the neural system.

22 The recent advance in DNN models inspires new efforts that combine computational models
23 with neural coding models.^{5,20–24} Specifically, these powerful pretrained networks are employed
24 to build unit/voxel-wise prediction models in the cortex. These models fit an encoder from the
25 external stimulus to the brain signal and allow for the investigation of representation and
26 computations in large-scale neural circuits through the correlations between artificial neural
27 layers and brain regions. These DNN models have already been optimized for performing
28 corresponding cognitive tasks. As a prediction model, the main goal is to achieve high neural
29 prediction accuracy in order to facilitate further analyses of the underlying coding and
30 computation mechanisms.^{2,6}

31 Previous studies using voxel-wise encoding models have shown that, compared to theory-driven
32 heuristic models, DNN models can predict neural responses with regard to static images and
33 sounds in different ROIs within sensory cortex with higher accuracy.^{5,21,22,25} Some recent studies
34 have also demonstrated that these approaches can be extended to naturalistic stimuli, such as
35 movies and speech.^{23,24,26,27} However, two important challenges have limited the prediction
36 performance of these models. First, the brain is an interconnected network with different areas
37 dynamically reconfigured and involved in different modules during cognitive tasks,^{28–32} while
38 the prevalent voxel-wise encoding models treat each voxel static and independently. Second, by

1 using pretrained task optimized DNN models, it is often assumed that there is a single optimal
2 set of representation features aligned with a specific neural population along the network
3 hierarchy.^{6,22} However, the feature representations are mainly driven by training objectives and
4 enforcing a one-to-one correspondence may not be optimal. These two factors have significantly
5 limited the performance of the current DNN-based models. Even the state-of-the-art DNN-based
6 models can only explain ~50% of the total variance driven by the input stimuli.⁶ Therefore,
7 pushing the model prediction performance towards the upper limit is an urgent demand for such
8 prediction models.

9 To get high encoding prediction accuracy via addressing these two issues, we focus on two sides
10 of the encoding models. On the targeting neural activity side, it is often overlooked in the
11 previous studies that both the stimulus-driven and the spontaneous parts of the neural activity
12 show strong correlating structure at local and network levels.³³⁻³⁶ Thus we ask if we could
13 incorporate correlated activity into the model by harnessing local and network local level
14 structures in the neural activity to facilitate accurate neural encoding prediction. On the stimulus
15 side, existing literature usually extracts feature representations from the stimuli by picking the
16 optimal feature representation from a candidate model pool using model-selection
17 procedures.^{21,25} However, the brain is a linked system where stimuli usually activate a broad
18 network of cortical areas across the whole brain^{9,37}, suggesting that the representation may be an
19 integration of multi-level features rather than driven by a dominating mode. Moreover, an
20 artificial neural network is not designed for replicating the brain topology thus different levels of
21 feature extraction within the same model may also align to different neural populations.³⁸ Thus
22 we ask if we can push the capability of the encoding model towards the ceiling by enriching the
23 feature representations to an integration on multiple levels over multiple regions in modeling the
24 neural responses to naturalistic stimuli.

25 Following this prediction-center principle, we identify three pairs of principles in neuroscience
26 that could benefit the prediction from the machine learning perspective and validate the efficacy
27 based on three levels of corresponding hypotheses. First, the neural activity of the brain is
28 reflected in functional modules that are related but not overlapped with the underlying anatomy.
29 Voxels that are not clustered spatially may also correlated through functional networks and
30 shared both stimulus-driven and non-stimulus endogenous activity.³⁵ Thus we hypothesize that
31 the function-induced cluster-based encoding model provides complementary prediction power to
32 the anatomy-induced model. Second, a brain region may participate in multiple perception
33 processes that could be better captured by different computational models.³⁹ Thus we
34 hypothesize that integrating stimulus-derived features from different processing levels within
35 each model will improve neural encoding accuracy. Thirdly, a brain region may reconfigure its
36 role across multiple perception processes reflected in the form of different modularized
37 structures.³¹ Thus we hypothesize that there exists heterogeneity in model performance across
38 different ways of ROI clustering, and integrating these different atlases further improves model
39 performance.

1 Moreover, we demonstrate the efficacy of the prediction-centered model from two applying
2 views. Since the encoding weights identify an artificial neural network, we show that it serves as
3 a novel metric that reveals functional organizations of voxels that deviate from the pure
4 anatomically defined ROIs. Further, based on the representation similarity scores, we show that
5 our more accurate prediction model actually results in a more similar representation with the
6 brain regarding visual motion. Our approach promotes insight into why we should focus on
7 prediction in building future encoding models.

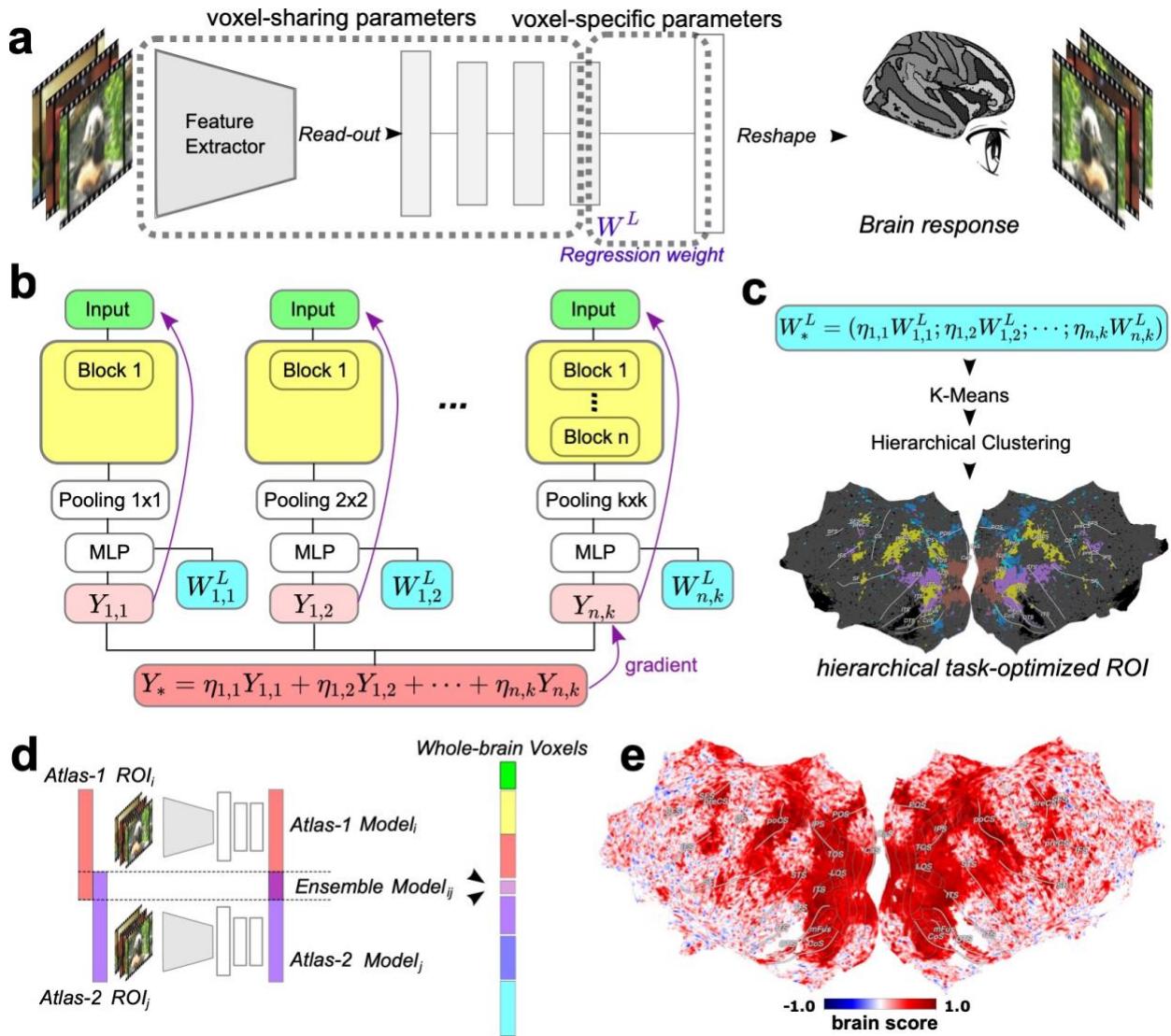
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9 **Results**

10 In this study, brain activity was recorded using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI)
11 when 10 subjects passively viewed 1102 naturalistic video clips. We focus on predicting the
12 brain response from the corresponding video stimuli.⁴⁰ We adopt the general voxel-wise neural
13 encoding framework that has been widely used in the literature.⁴¹⁻⁴³ In particular, DNN models
14 are used to extract feature representations from each individual video stimulus. Another multi-
15 layer perceptron (MLP) network is trained to predict brain activation in each individual voxel
16 regarding each stimulus, using the extracted features from the DNN models.

17

18 To do this, we developed an iterative integration approach. As demonstrated in Figure 1, our
19 model consists of two parts of integrations: the feature-level integration and the atlas-level
20 integration. First, features of the input stimuli were extracted via feature-level integration that
21 ensembles features from different layers of DNN models under multiple optimization parameters
22 (Fig. 1a). Second, atlas-level integration was performed to combine encoding models based on
23 multiple functional and anatomical atlases (Fig. 1d). Different functional atlases were
24 constructed based on task-optimized parcellations using encoding model weights from voxel-
25 wise encoders (Fig. 1b). These functional atlases grouped voxels with similar representation
26 properties together (Fig. 1c). We demonstrate the two parts of integrations and evaluate the
27 performance of the overall model in the following sections.



1
2 **Figure 1: Overview of the feature-level and atlas-level integration framework.** a) Overview
3 of voxel-wise encoding model framework. We feed input videos to a pre-trained deep neural
4 network feature extractor and take intermediate layers to a multiple-layer perceptron to predict
5 voxel-wise whole brain response captured by fMRI. The whole model is trained end-to-end with
6 all parameters tunable. The last layer, with voxel activations as output, can be interpreted as
7 linear regression with weights denoted as W^L . All the voxels share parameters except for the last
8 linear regression. b) Overview of the feature level integration: we trained models separately
9 while taking different intermediate layers and read-out pooling sizes, denoted as Y . Then we
10 optimized an offline linear combination of their outputs with the linear weights denoted as η . The
11 arrows indicate the gradient flow, and there is no gradient from the combined output to the input
12 video. c) Functional clustering based on voxel-wise encoding weights: regression weights W^L are
13 weighted by the linear combination η . The concatenated regression weights W_*^L are then used as

1 voxel embeddings for clustering. d) Atlas-level integration: each model is trained with voxels
 2 from the same ROI as output, while each atlas contains several ROIs. On different atlases, we
 3 combined the model outputs on their ROI-intersection (overlap of red and purple bars). e) Best
 4 model prediction score were plotted on the whole cortical surface, normalized to noise-ceiling.
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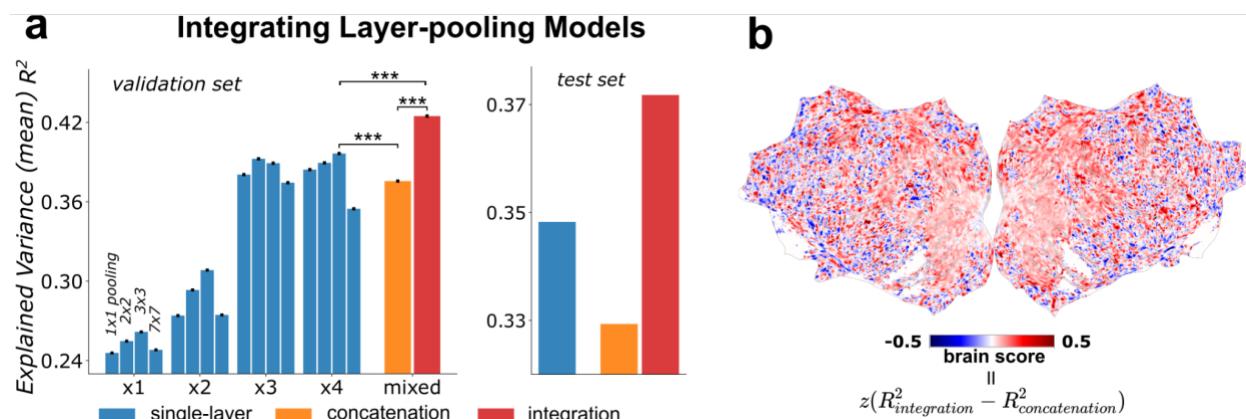
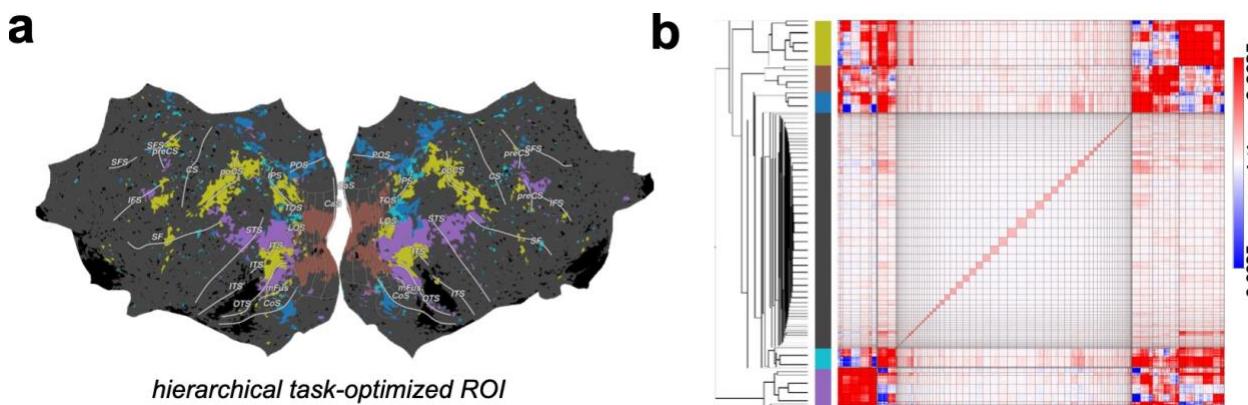


Figure 2. Feature-level integration improves brain prediction performance. a) Averaged brain prediction performance (explained variance) for each individual model. Blue bars: models trained with only one intermediate layer and one pooling size. Orange bar: concatenation model with a naive concatenation of all the input features for blue bar models. Red bar: integrated model that integrates the outputs of blue bar models. b) Cortical mapping of the performance difference between the integration model and the naive concatenation model, scores are noise-normalized.

Feature-level integration. The prevalent practice for training a DNN-based voxel-wise encoding model depends on the strategy of choosing the best feature space with the highest prediction score,⁶ or concatenating features from multiple intermediate layers.²⁴ We challenge these strategies both from neuroscience and deep neural network perspectives. Instead of these rather heuristic feature-selection strategies, we propose a systematic way of feature-integration via ensemble learning. On the one hand, there may not exist a one-to-one matching between the DNN feature layers and different neural populations, and one specific neural population may be involved in multiple different levels of information processing spanning over a set of features across the DNN hierarchy.³⁸ On the other hand, the convergence speed varies when using intermediate layers and pooling sizes. For example, STS prediction model using high-level DNN features converges two times faster than lower-level DNN features (see Supplementary Table S4 for more details), and a prediction model using smaller size pooling features converges faster than features with larger pooling size. As a result, a different subset of features may converge to their corresponding optimum at different rates for the same ROI; and the same subset of features may also converge at different rates for different ROIs. Therefore, a single-layer model with a naive concatenating strategy may suffer from the issue of desynchronization for the learned dynamics, and a single model would overfit one ROI and underfit another ROI simultaneously.

1 To address this issue, we propose that integrating the features across multiple layers with
2 separate optimizations under multiple atlases will improve the prediction accuracy over adopting
3 a single concatenation model.
4
5 To test this hypothesis, we implemented the proposed layer-level integration model and
6 compared the model performance against baseline models including concatenation model and
7 single layer encoding models. Specifically, we took a state-of-the-art visual model, the Swin-
8 Transformer model.⁴⁴ We first trained separate encoding models using every intermediate layer
9 of the DNN. These models were optimized end-to-end separately and their backbone
10 Transformer parameters were not fixed. Then we ensembled the outputs of all models through a
11 weighted summation (Fig. 1b), and the ensemble was weighted and optimized using the
12 differential evolution algorithm to maximize the ROI-averaged validation score. This layer-level
13 ensemble model achieved mean $R^2 = 0.425$ on the validation set (Fig. 2a). As a comparison, our
14 full ensemble model dominated the best single-layer model (mean $R^2 = 0.397$) with paired
15 $t(161325) = 15.7, p = 2.21\text{e-}55$ and the all-layer-concatenation model (mean $R^2 = 0.376$) with
16 paired $t(161325) = 27.4, p = 3.38\text{e-}165$ under the two-sided two-sample t-test. The significantly
17 improved explained variance of the layer-level integration model over the fully concatenated
18 model indicates the existence of desynchronization in encoding models across layers and
19 suggests the necessity of integrating multi-layer features under various optimization parameters
20 rather than relying on a single model.
21
22 Furthermore, it is worth pointing out that our model was robust and the results generalized to
23 additional testing sets as well (Fig. 2a). In addition, our Swin-Transformer-based encoding
24 model also outperformed other ensemble models using other architectures, such as 3D ResNet
25 (see Supplement Table S1).

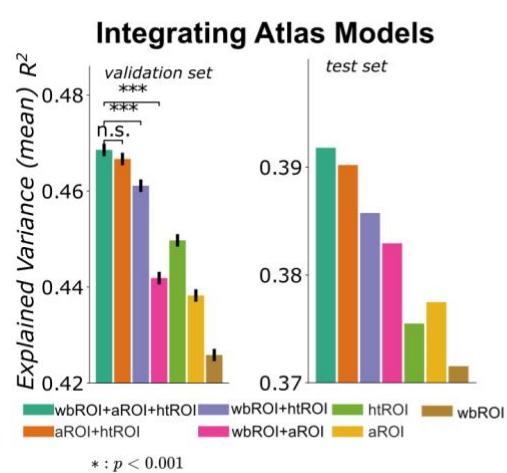


26
27 **Figure 3 Hierarchical task-optimized ROI (htROI) atlas defined by brain encoding model**
28 **weights.** a) Task-optimized ROI atlas based on hierarchical clustering. Each color represents an
29 ROI, corresponding to the colored column in b). b) Hierarchical clustering: voxels are first
30 clustered by K-means clustering. Vertical and horizontal black lines in the similarity matrix

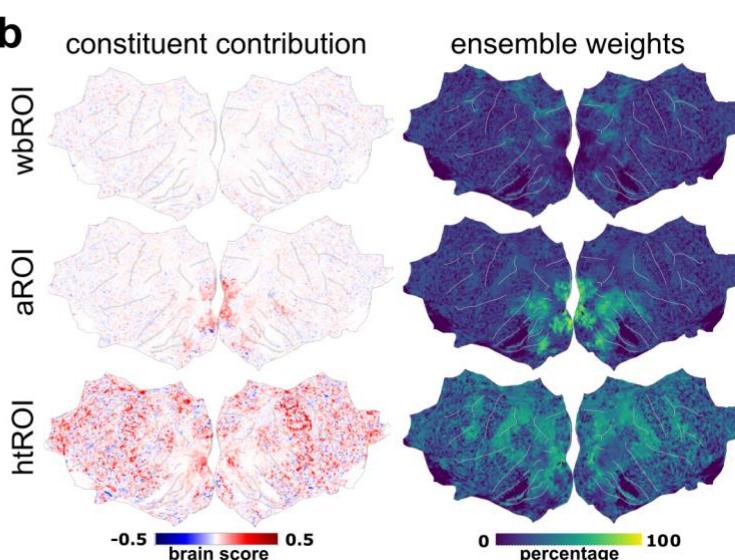
1 indicate clusters by K-means, each pixel is a voxel pair. An additional hierarchical clustering is
2 performed on K-means cluster centroids, and the final clusters are identified by cutting the
3 dendrogram.

4
5 **Constructing hierarchical task-optimized ROI (htROI) atlas.** In the previous section, we
6 built a voxel-wise encoding model that integrates DNN representation features across different
7 spatiotemporal scales. The model weights of the encoding model reflected the task-driven
8 functional receptive properties of each individual voxel. To fully exploit the functional structure
9 in the neural activity across the cortex, we next constructed a hierarchical task-optimized atlas
10 (htROI) based on these voxel-wise functional encoding model weights. Specifically, different
11 voxels shared the same parameter in the encoding model except for the last linear layer (Fig. 3a).
12 We concatenated the weights of the last linear layers from multiple models into a vector and used
13 it as the feature vector for each voxel, reflecting task-optimized functional receptive properties.
14 Next, we performed hierarchical clustering⁴⁵ to divide the whole brain into 6 modules (Fig. 3b),
15 including an early visual cluster that mainly covered V1, V2, V3, and V4, a higher-level visual
16 cluster that includes part of the lateral occipital complex (LOC), fusiform gyrus and posterior
17 superior temporal cortex, and a somatosensory cluster that includes the post-central sulcus (Fig.
18 3a).
19

a



b



20
21
22 **Figure 4 Atlas-level integration further improves brain prediction performance. a)**

23 Averaged brain prediction performance over the whole brain (explained variance) for models
24 using different brain atlas partitions (aROI - anatomical ROI partition, htROI - hierarchical task-
25 optimized ROI, wbROI - whole brain). b) Cortical mapping of different atlas-based models. Left
26 panel: constituent contribution measured by the gain in prediction score when adding each atlas
27 model. Right panel: ensemble weight shows the contribution from a specific atlas model in each
28 voxel from a complete ensemble including all atlas models.

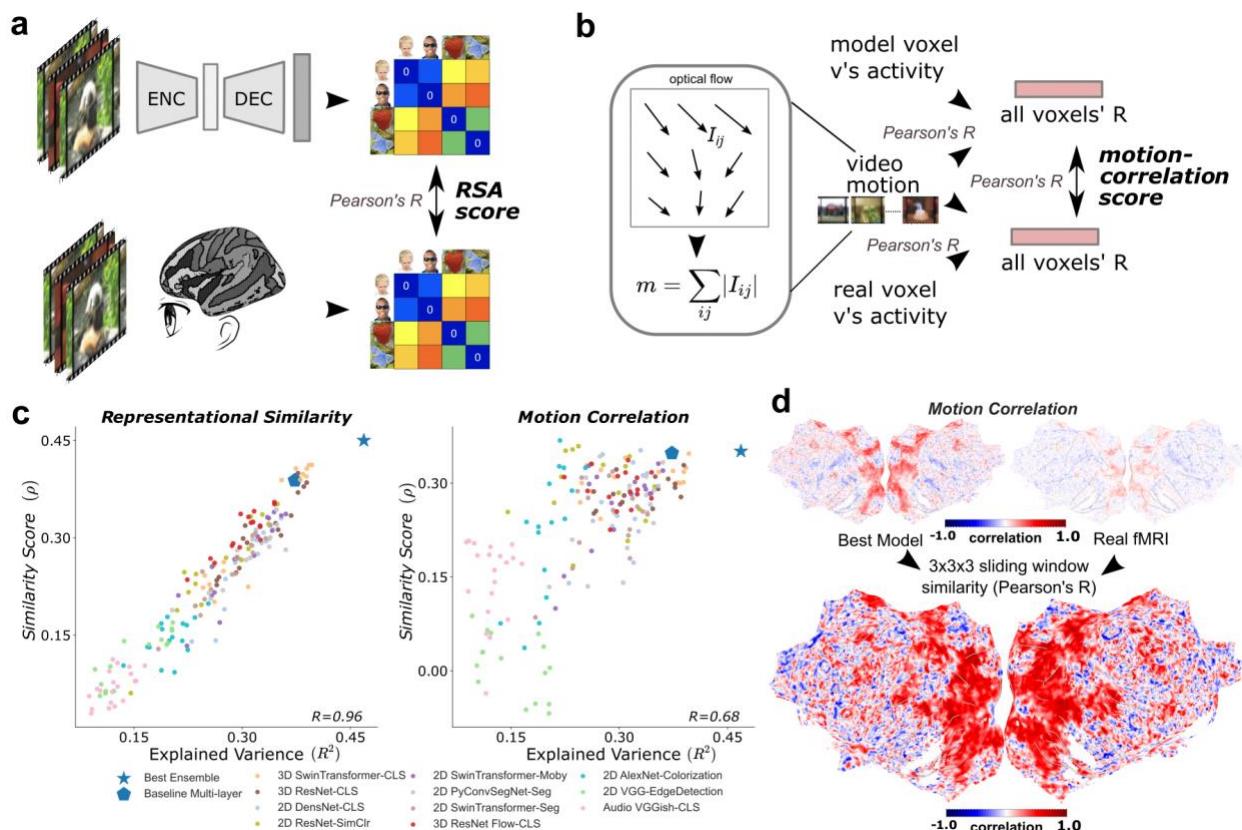
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2 **Atlas-level model integration.** After building the task-optimized functional atlas, we next
3 integrated voxel-wise encoding models trained on both functional and anatomical atlases to build
4 the final integrated encoding model. Considering the optimization of representation homogeneity
5 within each region, we constructed the prediction model for the voxels in each region separately.
6 We applied the SwinTransformer infrastructure as the backbone and train the prediction model
7 with shared parameters except for the last linear layers. The final voxel-wise neural prediction
8 was a weighted sum of model prediction from all integrated models based on different atlases.
9

10 Here we validate whether incorporating brain atlas information into the encoding model would
11 benefit the brain prediction performance, compared to treating whole brain as a homogeneous
12 predicting target. Furthermore, as a functional brain atlas, htROI reflects the functional
13 organization of the voxels, and including htROI in the final integrated model provides additional
14 encoding information that facilitates the brain activity prediction, compared to anatomical-based
15 atlas. To test these hypotheses, we examined our final integrated model performance and
16 compared it against models trained on anatomical atlases only. Specifically, we adopted three
17 atlases that parcellate cortex into different ROIs: the proposed hierarchical task-optimized ROI
18 (htROI), the anatomical ROI (aROI), and the whole-brain ROI (wbROI) that takes the whole
19 brain as a single ROI. The model integrating all three atlases together achieved the best
20 performance on both the validation and test datasets (Fig. 4a, $R^2 = 0.4686$ on the validation set,
21 $R^2 = 0.3918$ on the test set).

22
23 To further examine whether the integration is necessary, we performed two levels of ablation
24 study. First, we took the wbROI which obtained $R^2 = 0.4259$ on the validation set and $R^2 =$
25 0.3715 on test set as the baseline. Both the htROI and aROI outperformed whROI. The aROI
26 obtained $R^2 = 0.4383$ and paired $t(161325) = 6.8, p = 1.16e-11$ when compared to wbROI under
27 the two-sided two-sample t-test, as well as $R^2 = 0.3775$ on the test set. The htROI obtained
28 $R^2 = 0.4497$ and paired $t(161325) = 13.1, p = 3.21e-39$ when compared to wbROI under the two-
29 sided two-sample t-test, as well as $R^2 = 0.3755$ on the test set. This confirms that incorporating
30 the network module information would contribute to the prediction model. Next, we examined
31 whether the combination of htROI and aROI outperformed each of them separately. The
32 combination of htROI and aROI (i.e., htROI + aROI in Fig. 4a) achieved $R^2 = 0.4667$ and $R^2 =$
33 0.3902 on the test set. For the comparison, it had paired $t(161325) = 9.2, p = 3.26e-20$ when
34 compared to htROI and $t(161325) = 15.4, p = 1.43e-53$ when compared to aROI under the two-
35 sided two-sample t-test. This supports the claim that the anatomical and functional atlases
36 contain complementary information to each other and the prediction model benefits from
37 integrating over both atlases. A possible explanation here is that the htROI is designed to
38 maximize the representation similarity in signals of voxels within the same cluster while the
39 aROI provides prior information of module location. Indeed, the improvement of combination

1 over htROI is mainly located on the visual cortex while the improvement over aROI is broadly
 2 distributed over the whole brain (Fig. 4b).

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 8 **Figure 5: Representation similarity analysis and motion correlation analysis using the**
 9 **proposed integrated encoding model. a)** Schematic for computing RSA score. We first
 10 compute the representation dissimilarity matrix (RDM) in the stimulus space, then compute the
 11 similarity score as the Pearson's correlation coefficient between RDMs from model prediction
 12 and from real fMRI signal. **b)** Schematic for computing motion-correlation score. We estimate
 13 the motion index as a scalar value for each video by summing all of its optical flow vector
 14 magnitudes. The motion-correlation score is calculated by correlating each voxel's activation to
 15 this motion scalar across videos. Finally compare the similarity of motion-correlation score from
 16 model prediction and from real fMRI across all voxels. **c)** The correlation between RSA and
 17 motion-correlation scores and the brain prediction score of each model (explained variance).
 18 Each point is a model with a specific layer-pooling configuration. **d)** *Top*: motion-correlation for
 19 each voxel in the integrated prediction model (left) and real fMRI signal (right). *Bottom*: local
 20 similarity between the prediction model and real fMRI, estimated as the spatial correlation within
 21 the $3 \times 3 \times 3$ sliding window.

22

1 **Improvement of conceptual representation through more accurate prediction models.** In
2 the previous sections, we built a more accurate model by applying deep neural network models
3 with brain network modularization. The ultimate goal of such models is to better understand
4 neural coding in the brain. Here we demonstrate that with this more accurate voxel-wise
5 prediction model we can better characterize the encoding patterns of image features across the
6 cortex.

7

8 Representational geometry of neural populations has been widely studied in neuroimaging to
9 understand the neural coding of sensory information and cognitive processes.^{46,47}
10 Representational similarity analysis (RSA) has become one of the standard methods to compare
11 representations across spaces and to test cognitive and computational theories.⁴⁶ We first
12 analyzed the representation geometry in the predicted activity and the actual BOLD signal using
13 RSA. For each model configuration, we computed the representational dissimilarity matrices
14 (RDMs) of all video stimuli using the model prediction and the actual observed brain responses
15 correspondingly. We then computed a representational similarity score as Pearson's correlation
16 between the RDMs for the predicted activity of the chosen model and the actual observed brain
17 response. We found that the representational similarity score is strongly correlated with the
18 model's prediction performance ($r = 0.96$, $p = 3.7e-104$) and our proposed model achieved both
19 the highest representational similarity score ($\rho = 0.4501$) as well as the prediction performance
20 (explained variance $R^2=0.4686$). This indicates that more accurate prediction models also
21 demonstrate more similarity in terms of representational geometry of visual stimuli across the
22 broad visual network in the cortex (Fig. 4).

23

24 We next evaluated how our proposed model characterized motion-specific coding in the cortex,
25 which is crucial for analyzing naturalistic video processing. To do this, we defined the motion
26 index in each individual stimulus as the sum of the optical flow vectors' magnitude. To quantify
27 the neural encoding of motion information, we computed the voxel-wise motion representational
28 similarity, which was Pearson's correlation between the predicted or actual brain response and
29 the motion index. We found that the prediction accuracy (explained variance) was positively
30 correlated to the motion representational similarity of the predicted neural activity ($r = 0.68$, $p =$
31 $1.3e-25$), suggesting that our model was able to capture motion-related coding in the brain
32 response. Furthermore, we also evaluated the consistency between the predicted and actual
33 motion representational similarity across the cortex. We found that our model showed high
34 motion coding consistency across a broad range of cortices, including the early visual cortex, the
35 dorsal and ventral visual pathway, and the sensorimotor cortex. This suggests that the
36 performance improvement is beyond simply characterizing low-level texture features in the early
37 visual cortex, but also covers cortical areas involved in intermediate and higher-level information
38 processing.

39

40

1 Discussion

2 In this work, we introduced a systematic and data-driven framework of optimizing voxel-wise
3 neural encoding models by integrating DNN representation features and brain network structure
4 information through iterative ensemble learning. Two key ingredients of our proposed method
5 are: 1) the asynchronous integration of multi-scale representation features from DNN models; 2)
6 functional clustering based on encoding model weights, and integration of encoding models over
7 both functional and anatomical atlases. We demonstrated that our proposed method achieved
8 state-of-the-art performance on a large-scale dataset in predicting neural responses to naturalistic
9 videos.

10 The classical view of visual processing in the cortex supports a domain specific theory of neural
11 coding in the visual cortex with the visual cortex as a hierarchical feedforward processing
12 model.^{9,37,48} These models and theories assume that each cortical area is often exclusively
13 involved in a limited set of functional processing stages and feeds the processed information
14 forward to the next level along the hierarchy. This classical view has guided the computational
15 modeling of the visual cortex in the same way. Previous studies often use a single layer of
16 representation features from pretrained models for a certain ROI.^{21,24} It is also demonstrated that
17 there is a coarse alignment between hierarchical layers in vision CNN and areas in the ventral
18 visual stream.²² However, recent studies have challenged this hierarchical idea from
19 anatomical,³⁷ experimental³⁹ and computational³⁸ perspectives, and reveal non-hierarchical
20 processing in the visual cortex. Here we demonstrate a comprehensive framework that exploits
21 the non-hierarchical processing properties by ensembling all different layers of representation
22 from DNN models. Using a data-driven approach, we showed that ensembling lower and higher
23 levels of representations from the DNN hierarchy improved encoding accuracy for both the
24 classical “early” and “late” areas. Our results suggest that both hierarchical and non-hierarchical
25 structures exist in the visual pathway. By evaluating the contributions of different layers and
26 components of the ensemble model, we offer a systematic way of quantifying hierarchical and
27 non-hierarchical structures in the visual system.

28 The idea of using an *in silico* optimal observer model to infer the underlying computational
29 mechanism in a biological system can be dated back to at least Marr’s three level’s of analysis.²
30 With the emergence of DNN in vision, DNN-based models have been widely adapted as a
31 compositional model of the sensory system, and have shown to be powerful tools in predicting
32 neural activity and behavior.⁵ With a more accurate model, we are able to approach the nonlinear
33 coding property of neural population from a new perspective. Traditional models of single
34 neuron/voxel in the visual system, such as receptive field⁴⁹ or population receptive field
35 models⁵⁰, mostly adopt a theory-driven structural approach. These models mostly use
36 gaussian/gabor filter banks and generalized linear models to denote receptive encoding
37 properties in the image space.⁴¹ These previous methods are particularly tailored for more

1 intuitive receptive structures in early areas and have been very effective in accounting for
2 important properties, such as retinotopic map. Our approach allows us to evaluate highly
3 abstract, dynamic and nonlinear coding properties in intermediate and higher-level cortical
4 areas,⁵¹ and account for multi-sensory integration in the more abstract feature embedding space
5 facilitated by the effective ensemble of deep neural network models. These advances allow us to
6 better characterize the neural activity across the cortex.

7 These more accurate prediction model of the brain can also be used as a preliminary tool to
8 define functional ROI. Our model has shown great ability to generalize across subjects. Thus, we
9 can use such models to define functional ROI based on general naturalistic stimuli without
10 running traditional localizer tasks, which only covers a limited set of stimuli.⁵² This not only
11 saves running time, but also extends the scope of traditional localizer to a novel virtual simulated
12 version. On the other hand, these models also provide novel approach to find optimal stimuli as
13 localizer. Recent study has provided data-driven frameworks to identify optimal stimulus for
14 specific neural circuits using close-loop models.^{53,54} Our model can be fitted into such
15 frameworks and used as the encoder for close-loop brain modulations. In these applications, the
16 ability to accurately predict and generalize to a broad spectrum of input space is crucial.

17 There are a few aspects that our model can be further improved. Currently we mainly constraint
18 the ensembled models in vision and use the ViT model as the backbone of our specific
19 instantiation of the proposed framework. In a more generalized case, different models from a
20 broader range of modalities can be integrated into the same framework to account for different
21 sensory modalities, such as audition, and to test different hypotheses about neural coding in
22 different cortical networks. Another potential future direction is to explore the generalization and
23 transferability of our proposed approach on different subjects and stimuli as the testing set.

24

25

1 Methods and Materials

2 Dataset in brief

3 We work on the Algonauts 2021 challenge dataset. Details on data acquisition and preprocessing
4 are provided elsewhere.⁴⁰ Briefly, the dataset consists of 1102 fMRI brain responses per subject
5 (10 subjects), 1000 for training, and 102 held out for online submission. Each stimulus is a 3-
6 second clip of daily events, participants watched the video without playing the sound. Training
7 set videos are scanned 3 times and averaged; test set videos are scanned 10 times to estimate
8 noise ceiling and then averaged. The dataset provides voxel masks for 9 anatomical ROIs (V1,
9 V2, V3, V4, LOC, EBA, FFA, STS, and PPA). BOLD activation is extensively preprocessed by
10 GLMdenoise,⁵⁵ and the stimulus responses are expressed in the regression coefficients of the
11 general linear model. Voxels are filtered by thresholding noise ceiling with 161326 voxels in
12 total for all 10 subjects.

13

14 Voxel-wise encoding model architecture

15

16 The voxel-wise encoding model consists of a feature extractor (Video Swin Transformer pre-
17 trained on Something-Something V2 Dataset⁵⁶), a max-pooling read-out head, and a Multi-Layer
18 Perceptron (MLP) prediction head. The outputs is activation values for every voxel in one ROI.
19 One interesting property of this model is that, except for the last linear layer, all the other
20 parameters are shared among all the voxels. This can be formulated as $Y = f^{1:L-1}(X) W^L$,
21 where $Y \in R^{B \times N}$ is output voxel prediction, B is the batch size, N is number of voxels, $W^L \in$
22 $R^{D \times N}$ is the weight for the last layer, D is channel size, X is the input video, and $f^{1:L-1}$ denotes
23 all transformations before the second last layer. We call the parameters in $f^{1:L-1}$ voxel-shared
24 parameters and W^L voxel-specific parameters (Fig. 1a). W^L contains all the information about an
25 arbitrary voxel, so we use it as task-optimized voxel embeddings for clustering.

26

27 **Feature extractor.** The deep learning feature extractor model can be formulated as a sequential
28 transformation of input x^0 given by $x^L = \delta^L \circ x^{L-1}$, where x^L is the hidden representation at
29 layer depth L , δ^L is the transformation operation. The pre-trained Video Swin Transformer
30 model consists of 4 major blocks with descending spatial size and increasing channel size (see
31 Table S5 for the details).

1 **Read-out and Prediction head.** We take \mathbf{x}^l and connect it to a read-out head, which consists of
 2 an adaptive max-pooling operation with output size $1 \times \mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{n}$, $\mathbf{n} \in \{1, 2, 3, 7\}$. The output
 3 feature of this read-out head is denoted as $\mathbf{u}^l_n = \text{pooling}_{1 \times n \times n}(\mathbf{x}^l)$. The prediction head is a
 4 multilayer perceptron (MLP), with Exponential Linear Unit (ELU) activation function on 3
 5 hidden layers, 2048 feature channels per layer. The last layer is set to be without nonlinearity, its
 6 output dimension equal to the number of voxels in the ROI.

7

8

9 **Feature-block models ensemble**

10 We train separate models on a cartesian product of all intermediate layers (l) and pooling sizes
 11 (n), \mathbf{u}^l_n denotes extracted feature, then ensemble their output \mathbf{y}^l_n as described in Algorithm 1.
 12 These models are trained to their individual early stopping point. The ensemble is intended to be
 13 hierarchical. First, multiple pooling size models are assembled within the same layer, and then
 14 ensemble inner-loop outputs are generated. If this hierarchy is violated, the validation score will
 15 be overfit and the test score will suffer. (Supplementary Table S1).

16

17 Algorithm 1. Hierarchical ensemble of separately trained feature-block models

18

19 For layer l in $\{1, 2, \dots\}$:

20 For pooling size n in $\{1, 2, \dots\}$:

21 Load pre-trained feature extractor weights;

22 Random initialize prediction-head weights;

23 Train $\mathbf{y}^l_n = \text{model}_{l,n}(\mathbf{u}^l_n)$

24 $\mathbf{y}^l = \text{Concatenate}([\mathbf{y}^l_1, \mathbf{y}^l_2, \dots])$ # ensemble all pooling sizes

25 $\mathbf{y} = \text{Sum}_{\eta}([\mathbf{y}^1, \mathbf{y}^2, \dots])$ # ensemble all layers

26

27

28 The ensemble operates on model output \mathbf{y} as

29

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_i \eta_i \mathbf{y}^i, \quad (1)$$

30 where η denote ensemble weights solving $\text{maximize}_{\eta} \{\sigma(\mathbf{y}_{\text{val}}, \mathbf{y})\}$, σ is the averaged voxel-wise

31 Pearson's correlation (R) over inputs. The weight η is optimized to maximize the prediction

32 score on the validation set through differential evolution.⁵⁷

1

2 **Hierarchical task-optimized ROI**

3 We take the last linear layer weight $W^L \in R^{D \times N}$ as voxel embeddings for clustering. Note that
4 W^L of different models are in separate embedding spaces defined by $f^{1:L-1}(X)$, to keep all voxel
5 embeddings in the same space, the model for deriving htROI is trained with all whole-brain
6 voxels. To adapt to ensemble models, we multiply voxel embeddings by their ensemble weight
7 η_i and concatenate to obtain a joint voxel embedding $W^L = (\eta_1 W^L_1, \eta_2 W^L_2, \dots, \eta_n W^L_n)$, where
8 $(W^L)^T$ is then used as input for a K-means ($K = 100$) clustering with euclidean distance, then the
9 cluster centroids are feed to a agglomerative hierarchical clustering with Ward's method. This 2-
10 stage clustering method help reduce memory and computation usage significantly. Then ROIs
11 are identified by dividing the clustering dendrogram (Fig. S1b Left), note that clusters can be
12 subdivided or merged according to their hierarchy. We also plot a voxel-wise correlation matrix
13 (Pearson's R) to help identify clusters (Fig. S1b Right).

14 **Atlases ROI intersection combination**

15 For each voxel v_i , suppose its predicted stimulus induced by the model trained on anatomical
16 atlas is y^s_i and the prediction from the model trained on functional atlas is y^t_i , its final output
17 will be a weighted sum from these two models, i.e. $w^s_i \cdot y^s_i + w^t_i \cdot y^t_i$, where w^s_i and w^t_i
18 are the ensembling weight specialized for each voxel. For two or more atlas models, we denote
19 V^A_i as voxels in the i th ROI in atlas A, and V^B_j as voxels in the j th ROI in atlas B, the
20 intersection of V^A_i and V^B_j is V^{AB}_{ij} . Since we trained separate models for each atlas, we
21 ensemble their outputs on V^{AB}_{ij} to maximize prediction score on V^{AB}_{ij} . This is repeated for all
22 V^{AB}_{ij} and iterates over all voxels exactly once. The ensemble weight is optimized on the mean
23 of intersection voxels, we also consider voxel-wise ensemble methods, but found voxel-wise
24 methods overfit to the validation set (Supplementary Table S2).

25

26 **Data availability**

27 The fMRI data used in this study is available at <http://algonauts.csail.mit.edu/challenge.html>.

28

29 **Code availability**

30 The analysis code used for this study is available at <https://github.com/huzeyann/htROI-neural-encoding>

32

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