



1 **A Hybrid Spatio-Temporal Deep Belief Network and Sparse Representation-Based**
2 **Framework Reveals Multi-Level Core Functional Components in Decoding Multi-Task**
3 **fMRI Signals**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Decoding human brain activity on various task-based functional brain imaging data is of great
10 significance for uncovering the functioning mechanism of the human mind. Currently, most
11 feature extraction model-based methods for brain state decoding are shallow machine learning
12 models, which may struggle to capture complex and precise spatio-temporal patterns of brain
13 activity from the highly noisy fMRI raw data. Moreover, although decoding models based on
14 deep learning methods benefit from their multi-layer structure that could extract spatio-
15 temporal features at multi-scale, the relatively large populations of fMRI datasets are
16 indispensable and the explainability of their results is elusive. To address the above problems,
17 we proposed a computational framework based on hybrid spatio-temporal deep belief network
18 and sparse representations to differentiate multi-task fMRI (tfMRI) signals. Using a relatively
19 small cohort of tfMRI data as a testbed, our framework can achieve an average classification
20 accuracy of 97.86% and define the multi-level temporal and spatial patterns of multiple
21 cognitive tasks. Intriguingly, our model can characterize the key components for differentiating

22 the multi-task fMRI signals. Overall, the proposed framework can identify the interpretable
23 and discriminative fMRI composition patterns at multiple scales, offering an effective
24 methodology for basic neuroscience and clinical research with relatively small cohorts.

25 **Keywords:** Multi-task classification, Task-based fMRI, Deep belief network, Sparse
26 representation, Functional brain network.

27 **Introduction**

28 For years, researchers have been attempting to decode the human brain states based on
29 functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) data (Haynes & Rees, 2006; Jang, Plis, Calhoun,
30 & Lee, 2017; Rubin et al., 2017; Stanislas Dehaene, 1998), where distinguishing different
31 cognitive tasks from fMRI data and extracting discriminative fMRI composition patterns are
32 effective means to improve our understanding of the relationship among current cognitive tasks,
33 brain responses, and individual behavior (Friston, 2009; Logothetis, 2008). To decode
34 meaningful neurological patterns embedded in diverse task-based fMRI data, various
35 computational and statistical methods have been proposed in the last decades. The most widely
36 used brain state decoding strategy is multi-voxel pattern analysis (MVPA) (Davatzikos et al.,
37 2005; Jang et al., 2017; Kriegeskorte & Bandettini, 2007). Despite its popularity, its commonly-
38 used classification strategy support vector machine (SVM) usually struggles to perform well
39 on high-dimensional fMRI data and thus requires effective techniques for feature
40 selection/extraction (LeCun, Bengio, & Hinton, 2015; Vieira, Pinaya, & Mechelli, 2017).
41 Hence, the feasibility of feature selection/extraction has been investigated using various
42 machine learning methods (LeCun et al., 2015; Vieira et al., 2017; S. Zhang et al., 2016).

43 However, most of these machine learning methods rely on shallow models, and their shallow
44 nature may hinder them from effectively capturing non-linear relationships in the highly noisy
45 fMRI raw data, resulting in difficulties in extracting complex and specific spatio-temporal
46 features (Qiang et al., 2020; Rashid, Singh, & Goyal, 2020; Varoquaux & Thirion, 2014).

47 Recently, studies applying deep learning models such as deep neural network (DNN) and
48 convolutional neural networks (CNN) to decode brain states based on task-based fMRI signals
49 have been reported (J. Hu et al., 2019; Liu, He, Chen, & Gao, 2019; Sotetsu Koyamadaa, 2015;
50 Y. Zhang, Tetrel, Thirion, & Bellec, 2021). Such deep learning models take the advantage of
51 being a multi-layer architecture by stacking multiple building blocks with similar structure,
52 which has demonstrated the ability to significantly reduce noises in raw fMRI data and model
53 the non-linear relationships among neural activities of brain regions, allowing for the extraction
54 of multi-level spatio-temporal features (Bengio, Courville, & Vincent, 2012; Najafabadi et al.,
55 2015; Ren, Xu, Tao, Song, & He, 2021). Nevertheless, there are still some limitations in current
56 brain state decoding strategies based on deep learning models. First, as large-size samples are
57 indispensable for the deep learning model, current decoding models are not suitable for small
58 datasets (Bo Liu, 2017; Litjens et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2020; Wen et al., 2018). For example,
59 Wang et al. (2020) proposed a DNN-based model for tfMRI signal classification, which
60 requires 1034 subjects, making it less practical for clinical populations. Second, most of the
61 decoding models based on deep learning are end-to-end learning and the explainability of such
62 models is elusive (J. Hu et al., 2019; LeCun et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020). Recently, some
63 researchers have attempted to define the key components for decoding brain states using the
64 machine learning method. For example, our previous study based on sparse dictionary learning

65 has determined that the key components for multi-task classification tend to be functional brain
66 networks (FBNs) (Song, Ren, Hou, He, & Liu, 2022). Another research has shown that artifact
67 components such as movement-related artifacts are significantly more informative with respect
68 to the classification accuracy of the multi-task electroencephalogram (EEG) signals
69 (McDermott et al., 2021). However, uncovering the interpretable key features in decoding
70 tfMRI signals has received much less attention.

71 Due to the pitfalls in existing research, it is desirable to develop an appropriate framework
72 capable of identifying the interpretable and discriminative fMRI composition patterns
73 embedded in multi-task fMRI data. Thus, in this study, we aim to extract both multi-level
74 group-wise temporal features and spatial features from tfMRI signals, and define interpretable
75 classification features for multi-task fMRI data simultaneously. Recent studies have revealed
76 that the deep belief network (DBN) can effectively identify multi-layer spatial and temporal
77 features from fMRI signals (Dong, 2020; Ren et al., 2021), which is typically stacked by
78 multiple Boltzmann machine (RBM) (Geoffrey E Hinton & Sejnowski, 1986) and thus can
79 naturally act as a multi-level feature extractor. Furthermore, these prior studies have integrated
80 the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) regression with the DBN model,
81 indicating the efficacy of LASSO regression in extracting relevant spatial patterns. Thus, we
82 here proposed a novel two-stage feature extraction framework based on hybrid DBN and sparse
83 representations framework (DBN-SR) to decode multi-task fMRI signals with the capability of
84 extracting multi-scale deep features. Specifically, the DBN model was utilized to capture multi-
85 level group-wise temporal features, based on which the individual spatial features were
86 estimated by LASSO regression. Subsequently, a sparse representation method that combines

87 dictionary learning and LASSO regression was utilized to further characterize the group-wise
88 spatial features and individual spatio-temporal features for the purpose of classification. Based
89 on the correspondence between the individual classification features and the group-wise spatial
90 features, a relationship between the decoding capability of classification features and their
91 spatial patterns can be effectively established, which can facilitate the interpretation of neural
92 implications associated with the classification features. Finally, due to its strong generalization
93 capabilities in small sample sizes, SVM was employed for the multi-class classification task.

94 Our results demonstrated that the proposed framework could successfully classify seven
95 task fMRI signals on a relatively small dataset. Moreover, by taking advantage of DBN in
96 extracting mid-level and high-level features and sparse coding in brain functional network
97 representation (Lv, Jiang, Li, Zhu, Chen, et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2021; Song et al., 2022), our
98 framework could effectively characterize the multi-level spatiotemporal features embedded in
99 multi-task fMRI signals, which provides the bases to identify the interpretable key components
100 for well characterizing and differentiating multi-task signals. Overall, the proposed model can
101 disclose the underlying neural implications of key components with greater classification
102 capacity, offering an effective and interpretable methodology for decoding fMRI data.

103 **Materials and methods**

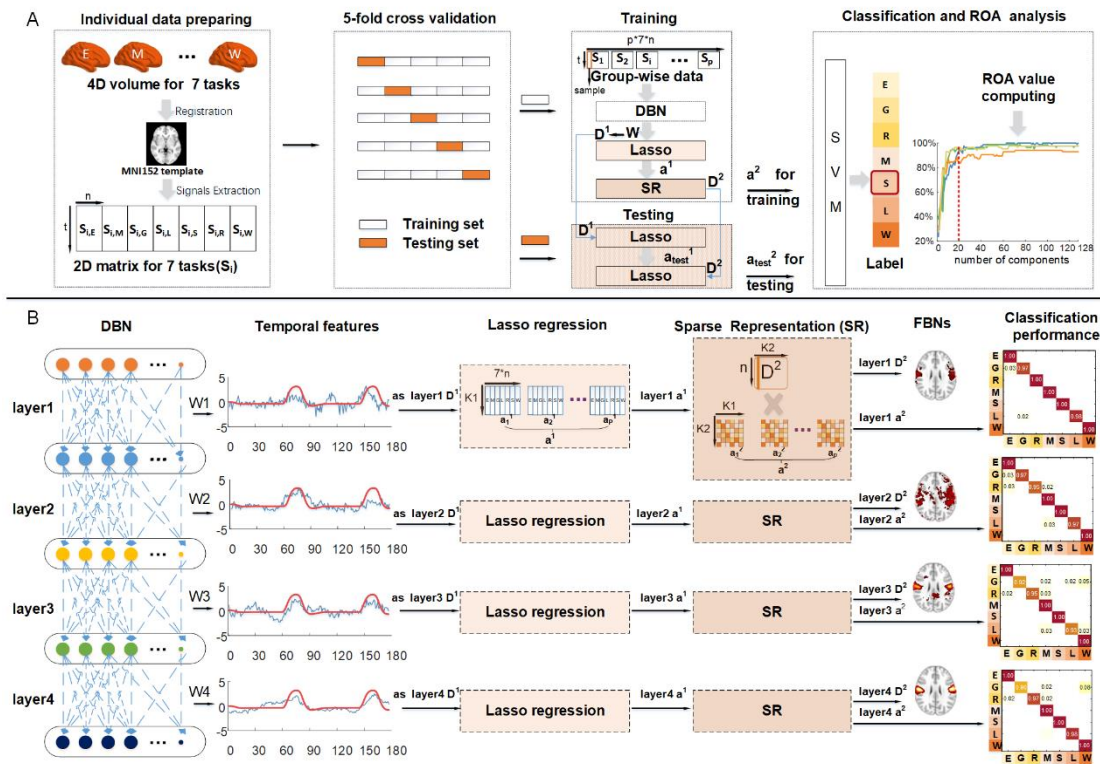
104 **Overview**

105 The framework of our proposed method is illustrated in Figure 1. The pipeline of the proposed
106 framework can divide into four stages: 1) individual data preparation; 2) data preparation for

107 five-fold cross-validation; 3) training and testing process; 4) SVM-based classification and
108 Ratio of activation (ROA) analysis (Fig. 1A). In the data preparation stage, each individual's
109 tfMRI data of seven different tasks were extracted and then spatially concatenated to one signal
110 matrix (the first panel in Fig. 1A). In this work, five-fold cross-validation was performed for
111 model validation, thus the whole dataset was randomly divided into five folds (the second panel
112 in Fig. 1A). In training process, four folds were served as training set, and the tfMRI signal
113 matrices of all the subjects in training set were spatially concatenated to a multi-subject signal
114 matrix. Then, the DBN model was applied to training set to derive the weight matrix W , which
115 served as group-wise temporal features D^1 . Then, the LASSO regression aims to extract the
116 corresponding loading coefficient α^1 based on the defined temporal dictionary D^1 . In the
117 second stage of our model, the loading coefficient α^1 was employed as input to sparse
118 representations (SR) model, where they were decomposed into group-wise dictionaries D^2 and
119 loading coefficient α^2 . In testing process, the individual signal matrix in testing set and the
120 group-wise dictionary D^1 obtained during the training phase was utilized as the inputs to the
121 LASSO regression. This yielded the loading coefficients α_{test}^1 . Subsequently, employing α_{test}^1
122 and the D^2 obtained during the training phase, we performed a second LASSO regression to
123 obtain α_{test}^2 , which were then used as the classification features for the testing subjects (the
124 third panel in Fig. 1A). Note that during the training phase, we utilized the independent training
125 data to learn and train regularization parameters employed for LASSO regression, as well as
126 the group-wise dictionaries D^1 and D^2 , without using any information from the test data.
127 Afterward, to further assess the multi-task fMRI data classification performance of proposed
128 model, the loading coefficient α^2 derived from training set was used to train support vector

129 machine (SVM) for classification, where the loading coefficient α_{test}^2 derived from testing set
130 was then fed into this trained SVM model to identify the testing set labels (the last panel in Fig.
131 1A).

132 Our DBN-SR based framework can also identify the multi-level temporal features, spatial
133 features, and features for multi-task classification (Fig. 1B). Specifically, the DBN model took
134 fMRI time series from training data as input and produced a weight matrix W for each layer
135 respectively, which represent the multi-layer temporal features of group-wise tfMRI signals
136 (the first two panels in Fig. 1B). These multi-layer temporal features W were served as the
137 temporal dictionary D^1 and used as input to the LASSO algorithm to regress corresponding
138 loading coefficient α^1 , which represents individual-level spatial patterns (the third panel in Fig.
139 1B). Next, the loading coefficient α^1 was used as the input of SR stage to derive the common
140 dictionary D^2 and the loading coefficient α^2 , which represent group-wise spatial patterns and
141 features for multi-task classification for each layer, respectively (the last three panels in Fig.
142 1B).



143 Figure 1. The overview of hybrid deep belief network and sparse representation framework
 144 (DBN-SR). (A) The pipeline of multi-task fMRI data classification analysis via the proposed
 145 model. The seven capital letters refer to seven different tasks respectively (E: emotion, G:
 146 gambling, R: relational, M: motor, L: language, S: social, and W: work memory). (B) The
 147 detailed illustration of using DBN and SR model to extract multi-level temporal features,
 148 spatial features, and features for classification from multi-task fMRI signals. In the second
 149 block, the blue line represents temporal features derived from the weights of DBN, while the
 150 red line represents task design paradigms.

151 Data acquisition and preprocessing

152 We employed the seven task fMRI data from Q1 release of Human Connectome Project (HCP)
 153 in this study (Barch et al., 2013). The details of tfMRI data acquisition and preprocessing
 154 pipeline could be referred to our previous study (Song et al., 2022).

155 Specifically, the seven tasks are emotion, gambling, relational, motor, language, social,
 156 and working memory (WM). The number of time points for each task is shown in Table 1. As
 157 the tfMRI data consist of different time points, we truncated all tfMRI signals to the same time
 158 length (176 frames). In this work, 60 subjects were used from the released dataset

159 **Table1. Details of the condition and frames for seven tasks**

| TASK | EMOTION | GAMBLING | RELATIONAL | MOTOR | LANGUAGE | SOCIAL | WM |
|-----------|---------|----------|------------|-------|----------|--------|-----|
| Condition | 2 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 8 |
| Frames | 176 | 253 | 232 | 284 | 316 | 274 | 405 |

160 The truncation preprocessing, unavoidably, influences the integrity of task design. For
 161 instance, four conditions are excluded from the WM task due to data truncation. Nonetheless,
 162 in terms of other tasks, the truncated tfMRI data include not less than one block for all events
 163 (sFig. 1).

164 Data preparation

165 First, we extracted the whole-brain fMRI signal for each subject using the standard MNI152
 166 template as the mask, resulting in each 2-dimensional matrix. Then the signal matrices of the
 167 seven tasks for each subject were spatially concatenated into a large matrix \mathbf{S}_i^1 ($\mathbf{S}_i^1 = [\mathbf{S}_{i,E}^1, \mathbf{S}_{i,G}^1,$
 168 $\mathbf{S}_{i,R}^1, \mathbf{S}_{i,M}^1, \mathbf{S}_{i,L}^1, \mathbf{S}_{i,S}^1, \mathbf{S}_{i,W}^1] \in R^{t \times (n \times 7)}$, where $\mathbf{S}_{i,E}^1 \in R^{t \times n}$ had t time points and n voxels. The
 169 seven capital letter subscripts refer to seven different tasks respectively (E: emotion, G:

170 gambling, R: relational, M: motor, L: language, S: social, and W: work memory). TfmRI time
 171 series for each voxel were normalized to derive zero mean and unit norm. In this work, five-
 172 fold cross-validation scheme was chosen. Thus, 60 subjects were randomly divided into five
 173 equal folds. In each iteration, one fold (12 subjects) was taken for testing and the rest four (48
 174 subjects) for training. It is noteworthy that the training and testing sets for each iteration were
 175 completely independent. Then, the multi-task fMRI signal matrices of all the subjects in the
 176 training set were spatially concatenated to compose a multi-subject fMRI matrix $\mathbf{S}^1 = [\mathbf{S}_1^1,$
 177 $\mathbf{S}_2^1, \dots, \mathbf{S}_p^1] \in R^{t \times (n \times 7 \times p)}$, where p is the number of training subjects ($p = 48$) (Fig. 1A).

178 As whole-brain fMRI data generally contain enormous voxels, the group-wise tfMRI
 179 signals consisting of multiple tasks and subjects exhibit relatively high dimensionality,
 180 inevitably resulting in an overloaded computational burden and memory consumption. To
 181 tackle these problems, we randomly selected only 10% of voxels' whole-brain signals for each
 182 subject in training stage (Huan Liu 2017; Song et al., 2022). To ensure the uniform distribution
 183 of sampled voxels across different brain regions, we employed the Fisher-Yates shuffle
 184 algorithm implemented by the "randperm" function in MATLAB, known for generating
 185 random permutations with a uniform distribution (Fisher & Yates, 1938). The distribution of
 186 the randomly selected 10% voxels across all subjects can be found in the Supplementary
 187 Materials (sFig. 6-7).

188 **Deep belief network model-based analysis**

189 In this work, we chose DBN to extract group-wise temporal features based on previous research
 190 demonstrating its ability to identify meaningful FBNs (Qiang et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2021). In

191 general, DBN can be regarded as stacked blocks of Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBM) (G.
 192 E. Hinton, Osindero, & Teh, 2006), an energy-based probability generation model that
 193 simulates the potential distribution of input data via interactions between visible and hidden
 194 variables. While units between visible layer v and hidden layer h are connected by weights,
 195 there is no connection within the layer. As a multiple stacked RBM model, the DBN model is
 196 designed to learn and train weights for each layer. As described in Asja Fischer (2012) and X.
 197 Hu et al. (2018), the energy function of the DBN model adopted to update the weights layer by
 198 layer is defined as follows:

$$199 \quad E(v, h) = \sum b_i v_i - \sum b_j h_j - \sum v_j h_j w_j \quad (1)$$

200 Where v_i and h_j refer to the activation state of two layers; b_i and b_j represent their bias; w_j
 201 indicate the weight between layer i and layer j .

202 As introduced in the previous section, the tfMRI signals of randomly selected 10% voxels
 203 in each individual's whole brain of multi-task in training set were spatially concatenated to
 204 generate a multi-subject fMRI matrix for model training, and thus the group-wise tfMRI time
 205 series (176 time points) were taken as training samples for the DBN model. In our work, the
 206 neural architecture of DBN model was set as 4 layers and 128 neurons experimentally and
 207 empirically (see Parameter Selection part). Specifically, the number of visible variables t is the
 208 same as the number of time points of fMRI signal (i.e., 176 in our study), and the number of
 209 hidden variables k_1 in each hidden layer represents the number of latent components expressed
 210 in fMRI data ($k_1=128$). The DBN model was adopted to model group-wise tfMRI matrix \mathbf{S}^1
 211 to obtain a weight matrix w_j from each layer. The weight matrix of visible layer is represented
 212 by $w_1 \in R^{t \times k_1}$, and the weight matrix of each hidden layer refers to $w_j \in R^{k_1 \times k_1}$ ($j=2,3,4$). The

213 multi-layer temporal features W_j in each layer of DBN model can be derived by successive
 214 multiplication of the weight matrices on the adjacent layers ($W_j \in R^{t \times k^j}$), that is,
 215 $W_4 = w_4 * w_3 * w_2 * w_1$, $W_3 = w_3 * w_2 * w_1$, $W_2 = w_2 * w_1$, $W_1 = w_1$. Since each sample
 216 input to the DBN model consists of all time points for each voxel, the weights w_j ($j=1,2,3,4$)
 217 across 4 layers represent the temporal features of the input fMRI data at different levels of
 218 abstraction. Thus, the successive multiplication of weight matrix W_j ($j=1,2,3,4$) obtained from
 219 each layer of the DBN model represents multi-level temporal features embedded in fMRI
 220 signals.

221 Drawing inspiration from the successful application of LASSO regression for deriving
 222 spatial features in previous studies (Haufe et al., 2014; Lee, Jeong, & Ye, 2013), we performed
 223 the LASSO regression to derive individual spatial features. Specifically, the multi-layer
 224 temporal features W_j derived by the DBN model were normalized and then served as the
 225 temporal dictionary $D^1 \in R^{t \times k^1}$ (Calhoun et al., 2001; Tibshirani, 2011). Here, as the successive
 226 multiplication of weight matrices leads to the larger scale of deeper dictionaries, a
 227 normalization procedure ensures reasonable performance of LASSO regression at the same
 228 scale. Subsequently, we employed the original individual signal matrix S_i ($i \in 1, 2, \dots, p$),
 229 along with the temporal dictionary D^1 as input to the LASSO algorithm, which produce the
 230 corresponding individual loading coefficient α_i^1 ($\alpha_i^1 \in R^{k^1 \times n}$, $n=228453$). Since D^1
 231 incorporates the group-wise temporal features, the resulting individual loading coefficients α_i^1
 232 obtained through regression can be considered as spatial sparse representations of each
 233 individual's fMRI signals S_i on the common temporal dictionary D^1 . Consequently, the
 234 individual loading coefficients α_i^1 represent the individual spatial features. Here, all the loading

235 coefficient matrix derived from LASSO regression refers to α^1 ($\alpha^1=[\alpha_1^1, \alpha_2^1, \dots, \alpha_i^1, \dots, \alpha_p^1]$
 236 $\in R^{k1 \times (n \times 7 \times p)}$, $\alpha_i^1 = [\alpha_{i,E}^1, \alpha_{i,G}^1, \alpha_{i,R}^1, \alpha_{i,M}^1, \alpha_{i,L}^1, \alpha_{i,S}^1, \alpha_{i,W}^1] \in R^{k1 \times (n \times 7)}$.

237 Similarly, in order to derive the loading coefficient matrix α_{test}^1 for testing set of each
 238 layer, the group-wise time-series dictionary matrix D^1 derived from the training stage was
 239 applied to model S_{test}^1 to obtain α_{test}^1 by resolving a typical l-1 regularized LASSO problem.
 240 In this work, the regularization parameter λ of LASSO regression was set as 0.1
 241 experimentally and empirically.

242 Sparse Representation model

243 Although we successfully obtained individual loading coefficient matrices α^1 and α_{test}^1
 244 through LASSO regression for the training and testing sets, respectively, these features were
 245 unsuitable for classification due to their high dimensionality ($\alpha^1 \in R^{k1 \times n}$, $k1=128$, $n=228453$).
 246 Therefore, our next goal was to extract the multi-level group-wise spatial patterns based on the
 247 individual spatial patterns, and finally excavate multi-level features for multi-task classification
 248 that could distinguish multi-task fMRI signals and reveal the distinctive organization patterns
 249 of different task stimulations. Here, we adopted a sparse representation based model, which
 250 has already been proven as an effective algorithm in previous research to identify the intrinsic
 251 spatial functional patterns and features for multi-task classification from fMRI data (Song et
 252 al., 2022; S. Zhang et al., 2016). Specifically, we first aggregated all the loading coefficient
 253 matrices α_i^1 of all the subjects into one matrix S^2 for each layer of the DBN model ($S^2 = [S_1^2,$
 254 $S_2^2, \dots, S_i^2, \dots, S_p^2] \in R^{k1 \times (n \times 7 \times p)}$, where $S_i^2 = [(\alpha_{i,E}^1)^T, (\alpha_{i,G}^1)^T, (\alpha_{i,R}^1)^T, (\alpha_{i,M}^1)^T, (\alpha_{i,L}^1)^T, (\alpha_{i,S}^1)^T,$
 255 $(\alpha_{i,W}^1)^T] \in R^{n \times (7 \times k1)}$). Then, S^2 would be served as the input for dictionary learning and sparse

256 representation to derive a group-wise spatial dictionary $\mathbf{D}^2 \in R^{n \times k_2}$ and the corresponding
 257 loading coefficients α^2 for each layer, respectively. Note that k_2 represents the number of
 258 dictionary atoms, which was set as the same value as k_1 ($k_2=128$). Here, $\alpha^2 = [\alpha_1^2, \alpha_2^2, \dots,$
 259 $\alpha_i^2, \dots, \alpha_p^2] \in R^{k_2 \times (k_1 \times 7 \times p)}$, where $\alpha_i^2 = [\alpha_{i,E}^2, \alpha_{i,G}^2, \alpha_{i,R}^2, \alpha_{i,M}^2, \alpha_{i,L}^2, \alpha_{i,S}^2, \alpha_{i,W}^2] \in R^{k_2 \times k_1 \times 7}$.
 260 The loss function of sparse representation model yields a sparse resolution constraint on the
 261 loading coefficient α^2 with an l_1 regularization (Eq. (2)), where λ_2 is a regularization
 262 parameter that can balance the regression residual and sparsity level. λ_2 was set as 0.05.

$$263 \quad \text{Min} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{S}^2 - \mathbf{D}^2 \alpha^2\|_F^2 + \lambda_2 \|\alpha^2\|_{1,1} \quad (2)$$

264 To prevent \mathbf{D}^2 from arbitrarily large values that cause the trivial solution of the
 265 optimization, the columns d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k are restricted by Equation (3).

$$266 \quad \mathbf{C} \triangleq \{\mathbf{D}^2 \in R^{t \times k_2}, s.t. \forall j = 1, \dots, k_2, d_j^T d_j \leq 1\} \quad (3)$$

267 As the dictionary \mathbf{D}^2 was obtained by a sparse representation of α^1 , which comprise all
 268 individual spatial features, the learned dictionary \mathbf{D}^2 consequently represents the group-wise
 269 spatial features. Correspondingly, α_i^2 was a sparse representation on the common spatial
 270 dictionary \mathbf{D}^2 . Given the ability of a sparse representation model to effectively reduce the
 271 dimensionality of raw fMRI data while retaining its essential information, the resulting intrinsic
 272 features (α_i^2) derived from the extraction of common temporal and spatial dictionaries can
 273 effectively capture the variations in spatio-temporal patterns of functional brain activity across
 274 different tasks. As a result, these intrinsic features were suitable for multi-task classification.

275 To derive the α_{test}^2 of testing set for post-hoc classification analysis, we also leveraged
 276 the LASSO regression algorithm for each layer. Specifically, the loading coefficient matrix
 277 α_{test}^1 was regarded as the input matrix \mathbf{S}_{test}^2 , and the dictionary matrix \mathbf{D}^2 derived from the

278 training stage was employed to model \mathbf{S}_{test}^2 to learn the loading coefficient α_{test}^2 . All the
279 parameters in testing stage were set the same as in the training stage.

280 **Parameter Selection**

281 The determination of hyperparameters, such as the number of cross-validation folds, the
282 number of layers and neurons of the DBN model, and the regularization parameters of the
283 sparse representation model, was accomplished through a combination of referring to previous
284 studies and learning from the training set, the testing set was not involved in any parameter
285 selection process.

286 The choice of cross-validation folds is crucial as it offers a trade-off between precision
287 and computational cost for performance estimation (Hansen et al., 2013). Commonly used
288 cross-validation folds in current machine learning experiments often include 2-fold, 5-fold, 10-
289 fold, or the leave-one-out method. In theory, while some studies suggest the 10-fold or leave-
290 one-out method may provide a higher estimated accuracy (Kohavi, 1995), some reveals that 5-
291 fold or 10-fold is the optimal choice for balancing computational cost and accuracy (Hansen et
292 al., 2013). However, due to the need for our framework to combine all individuals within the
293 training set to extract group-wise temporal features during training phase, the computational
294 resource demands of the 10-fold or leave-one-out method are greater. Therefore, we opted for
295 the 5-fold approach. To further validate our selection, we conducted a comparative analysis
296 between the 2-fold and 5-fold to assess the decoding accuracy. The findings revealed that the
297 average decoding rate was slightly lower for the 2-fold compared to the 5-fold, providing
298 additional confirmation of our initial selection. (sTab. 1).

299 Our selection of a 4-layer, 128-neuron DBN structure was set based on our previous study
300 utilizing the neural architecture search technique (NAS) for recognizing spatio-temporal
301 features from fMRI data (Xu, Ren, Tao, Song, & He, 2022), which effectively determined the
302 optimal structure for DBN model with 3 layers and 120-150 neurons. Therefore, in our study,
303 we defined the number of neurons as 128 and experimented with both 3-layer and 4-layer
304 configurations to extract meaningful task-related temporal features. Specifically, we compared
305 the group-wise temporal features derived from DBN model with 3-layer and 4-layer structures,
306 in terms of their Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) with task paradigm curve, based on
307 training set (fold 5). The results revealed that the 4-layer DBN outperformed in capturing
308 temporal features, as indicated by the higher PCC values observed in 4-layer structure (Tab. 2).
309 In terms of selecting the number of neurons, we took into consideration computational
310 efficiency. We determined that selecting 128 neurons, a power of two within the desired range
311 of 120-150, would optimize computational speed. Hence, we concluded that the optimal
312 configuration for the DBN model with 128 neurons and 4 layers.

313 The regularization parameter (λ) plays a crucial role in sparse representation and LASSO
314 regression. Although no golden standard exists for determining the value of λ , previous studies
315 on FBN recognition have experimentally set λ within the range of 0.05 to 0.5 (Fangfei Ge,
316 2018; Lv, Jiang, Li, Zhu, Chen, et al., 2015; Shu Zhang 2017). In our previous work on task
317 fMRI data classification using a two-stage sparse representation approach, we conducted
318 parameter selection experiments within the range of λ from 0.05 to 0.5 and found that the
319 highest accuracy was achieved when $\lambda_1=0.1$ and $\lambda_2=0.05$ or 0.1 (Song et al., 2022). Here, λ_1
320 and λ_2 represent the regularization parameters for the LASSO regression and sparse

321 representation, respectively. Therefore, in this study, we determined the λ_1 as 0.1, and
 322 systematically changed the setting of the regularization parameter in the sparse representation
 323 λ_2 ($\lambda_2=0.05, 0.1$) while evaluating their impact on the obtained group-wise spatial features
 324 derived from training set (fold 5). The results showed that when λ_2 was set to 0.05, a greater
 325 number of FBNs could be identified in the group-wise spatial features \mathbf{D}^2 by comparison with
 326 the general linear model (GLM) -derived activation patterns (Tab. 3). Consequently, we set
 327 $\lambda_1=0.1$ and $\lambda_2=0.05$ as regularization parameters for LASSO regression and sparse
 328 representation stage, respectively. To further validate this, we assessed the classification
 329 accuracy on testing dataset using these two different λ_2 values (0.05, 0.1) while keeping $\lambda_1=0.1$
 330 for all 5 folds. The results demonstrated that $\lambda_2=0.05$ achieved higher accuracy, reconfirming
 331 our choice (sTab. 2).

332 **Table 2. Comparison of Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) for 3-layer structure and**
 333 **4-layer structure.**

| Structure | Layer1 | Layer2 | Layer3 | Layer4 | Mean \pm SD |
|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| 3-layer | 0.48 \pm 0.12 | 0.52 \pm 0.06 | 0.50 \pm 0.06 | | 0.50 \pm 0.08 |
| 4-layer | 0.55 \pm 0.00 | 0.63 \pm 0.01 | 0.66 \pm 0.03 | 0.71 \pm 0.02 | 0.64 \pm 0.02 |

334 **Table 3. Comparison of the number of identified FBNs cross each layer for different λ_2**
 335 **values.**

| λ_2 | Layer1 | Layer2 | Layer3 | Layer4 |
|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 0.05 | 15 | 17 | 22 | 45 |
| 0.1 | 12 | 13 | 18 | 27 |

336 Identification of multi-level temporal patterns

337 As mentioned in the ‘‘Deep belief network model based analysis’’ section, W_j of the j -th hidden
 338 layer ($j = 1,2,3,4$) represents the temporal features of group-wise tfMRI for respective layer

339 (Fig. 1B). Here we used PCC as a metric to identify the task-related temporal features (Benesty,
 340 Chen, Huang, & Cohen, 2009; Lv, Jiang, Li, Zhu, Chen, et al., 2015). Specifically, we first
 341 calculated the task paradigm curves convolved with hemodynamic response function (HRF).
 342 Next, we computed the PCC values between the convolved task paradigm curves and the atoms
 343 in the group-wise temporal features \mathbf{D}^1 derived from the DBN model, following standard
 344 procedures employed in previous studies (Kay, Rokem, Winawer, Dougherty, & Wandell, 2013;
 345 O'Reilly, Woolrich, Behrens, Smith, & Johansen-Berg, 2012). The PCC of the identified
 346 temporal features and the task-based stimulus can be defined as Equation (4).

$$347 \quad P_{\text{corr}, c} = \text{corr}(\mathbf{D}_c^1, \text{TASK}) \quad (4)$$

348 Here, \mathbf{D}_c^1 refers to the c -th component in temporal features \mathbf{D}^1 derived from DBN stage ($c = 1,$
 349 \dots, k). TASK represents the task paradigm curves convolved with HRF. Essentially, $P_{\text{corr}, c}$,
 350 measures the temporal similarity between the temporal patterns of \mathbf{D}_c^1 and the task stimulus.
 351 The atoms with the highest PCC value in group-wise temporal features \mathbf{D}^1 were chosen to
 352 represent the multi-layer temporal features.

353 Identification of multi-level spatial patterns

354 The multi-level spatial patterns can also be identified in the second stage of sparse
 355 representation model. Specifically, the $\mathbf{S}_{i,t}^1$ can be factorized into \mathbf{D}^1 and the loading
 356 coefficient $\alpha_{i,t}^1$, which represent the group-wise temporal features and the individual spatial
 357 features, respectively. Here, i refers to i -th subjects ($i \in 1, 2, \dots, p$, and $p=48$ in this work), t
 358 means t kind of task, $t \in \Phi = \{E, G, R, M, L, S, W\}$. To further derive the group-wise spatial
 359 features, the transposition of α^1 could be then decomposed into \mathbf{D}^2 and α^2 as shown in

360 Equation (5). Since the transpose of $\alpha_{i,t}^1$ can be expressed as dictionary \mathbf{D}^2 multiplied by
 361 loading coefficient $\alpha_{i,t}^2$ (Equation (5)), the relationship between $\mathbf{S}_{i,t}^1$ and \mathbf{D}^1 , \mathbf{D}^2 , α^2 can be
 362 deduced as Equation (6) shown, which also consistent with previous studies (Huan Liu 2017;
 363 Song et al., 2022).

$$364 \quad \mathbf{S}_{i,t}^2 = (\alpha_{i,y}^1)^T = \mathbf{D}^2 \times \alpha_{i,t}^2 \quad (5)$$

$$365 \quad \mathbf{S}_{i,t}^1 = \mathbf{D}^1 \times \alpha_{i,t}^1 = \mathbf{D}^1 \times (\mathbf{D}^2 \times \alpha_{i,t}^2)^T \quad (6)$$

366 Since all subjects share the same group-wise temporal dictionary \mathbf{D}^1 , the common
 367 dictionary \mathbf{D}^2 contained group-wise spatial patterns, of which atoms could be used to define
 368 the FBNs. Thus, the corresponding multi-layer spatial features were derived from the common
 369 dictionary \mathbf{D}^2 for each layer of the proposed framework (the fourth and fifth panels in Fig. 1B).

370 We then identified the spatial correlation coefficient (SCC) to quantify the similarity
 371 between spatial patterns obtained from the proposed framework and the GLM -derived
 372 activation patterns. Specifically, the GLM-based analysis was performed individually, followed
 373 by group-wisely analysis using FSL FEAT (<http://www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/fsl/feat5/index.html>).
 374 The group-level GLM-based results were employed for comparison. More details of GLM
 375 analysis are available in previous literature (Lv, Jiang, Li, Zhu, Zhang, et al., 2015). The SCC
 376 is defined in Equation (7) (Ben J. Harrison, 2008; Zuo et al., 2010):

$$377 \quad \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{T}) = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^n (X_p - \bar{X})(T_p - \bar{T})}{\sqrt{\sum_{p=1}^n (X_p - \bar{X})^2 \cdot \sum_{p=1}^n (T_p - \bar{T})^2}} \quad (7)$$

378 where \mathbf{X} is the spatial functional network derived by the proposed framework, \mathbf{T} represents
 379 the GLM-derived activation template, and n refers to the number of voxels of whole brain.

380 **SVM-based classification method**

381 To further classify multi-task fMRI signals, we performed five-fold cross-validation to evaluate
 382 the classification performance of the proposed framework. As the linear SVM has optimization
 383 and generalization capability in limited sample sizes, as well as its proven effectiveness in
 384 multi-class classification (Chang & Lin, 2011b; Jang et al., 2017), we conducted multi-task
 385 classification analysis based on linear SVM classifier, which was established by the LIBSVM
 386 toolbox (Chang & Lin, 2011a). For each layer, as the loading coefficient α^2 contains both
 387 temporal and spatial features embedded in fMRI signals, we first trained the SVM classifier
 388 using α^2 derived from training set, and then evaluated the classification performance by
 389 feeding the α_{test}^2 of testing set into the trained SVM model. Based on the true label of seven
 390 tasks for each loading coefficient α_{test}^2 , the classification accuracy of each layer in each fold
 391 was defined as the percentage of correctly predicted samples. The final classification accuracy
 392 for each layer is the average of five folds for seven tasks. We then calculated the specificity of
 393 each fold for each layer, and the final specificity for each layer is the average of the five folds.

394 **ROA-based analysis**

395 The further goal aimed at uncovering discriminative functional components for multi-task
 396 classification. Inspired by the successful use of the Ratio of activation (ROA) in identifying
 397 discriminative components for decoding resting state fMRI (rsfMRI) and tfMRI (S. Zhang et
 398 al., 2016), we raised a novel ROA metric to identify the key components for seven-task
 399 classification. The ROA of the j -th row in loading coefficients α^2 could be defined as follows:

$$400 \quad N_t = |\alpha^2(j, k)|_0, \text{ } k\text{th column belongs to task}(t)$$

401
$$ROA_j = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (N_t - \bar{N}_t)^2} \quad (8)$$

402 In Equation (8), α^2 represent all the individual spatio-temporal features, $\alpha^2 = [\alpha_1^2, \alpha_2^2, \dots,$
 403 $\alpha_i^2, \dots, \alpha_p^2] \in R^{k_2 \times (k_1 \times 7 \times p)}$ ($k_1 = k_2 = 128, p = 48$). i refers to i -th subject ($i \in 1, 2, \dots, p$). t
 404 represents task index ($t \in 1, 2, \dots, 7$), and T represents the number of task paradigms (i.e., 7 in
 405 our work). Task (t) represents each of the seven different tasks. N_t represents the activation
 406 level for each task, and \bar{N}_t represents the average of N_t ($t = 1, \dots, 7$). Here, the activation level
 407 N_t was defined by counting the number of non-zero entries marked as each task in the
 408 corresponding each row vector of α^2 ($t \in 1, 2, \dots, 7$). As α^2 is a sparse matrix, the task with a
 409 higher count of nonzero elements in the row vectors of α^2 is deemed to be more "active".
 410 Therefore, N_t represents each task's activation level in the row vectors of α^2 . The ROA was
 411 calculated by counting the standard deviation of N_t across the seven tasks. A larger ROA value
 412 (i.e., larger standard deviation) indicates greater differences in activity levels across the seven
 413 tfMRI signals, which were more discriminative for multi-task classification.

414 To validate that the components of higher ROA values capture greater capacity in
 415 classifying the multi-task fMRI signals, an experiment was designed as illustrated below. After
 416 sorting the ROA values for all components (i.e., rows in loading coefficients α^2) from highest
 417 to lowest, we iteratively adopted more rows sorted by their ROA values in α^2 as feature inputs
 418 for training the SVM classifier, that is, the components with higher ROA values were used
 419 preferentially for training. Afterwards, the corresponding components of α_{test}^2 from testing set
 420 were entered into the trained SVM model to evaluate the classification accuracy. Specifically,
 421 to define the key components with greater capacity for multi-task classification in each layer,
 422 we have repeated this ROA analysis using α^2 derived from each layer of proposed model. Here

423 we applied the same classification scheme described in the previous section “SVM-based
424 classification method”.

425 After establishing the ROA metric for the classification features α^2 , our subsequent
426 objective is to elucidate the neural implications of these classification features. Given that each
427 row of α^2 corresponds to each column of D^2 (i.e., each atom in D^2), and these atoms can be
428 mapped back to brain space, we thus established a relationship between the brain activations
429 derived from the atoms in D^2 and the ROA values of the row vectors of α^2 . This connection
430 allows us to interpret neural implications of classification features.

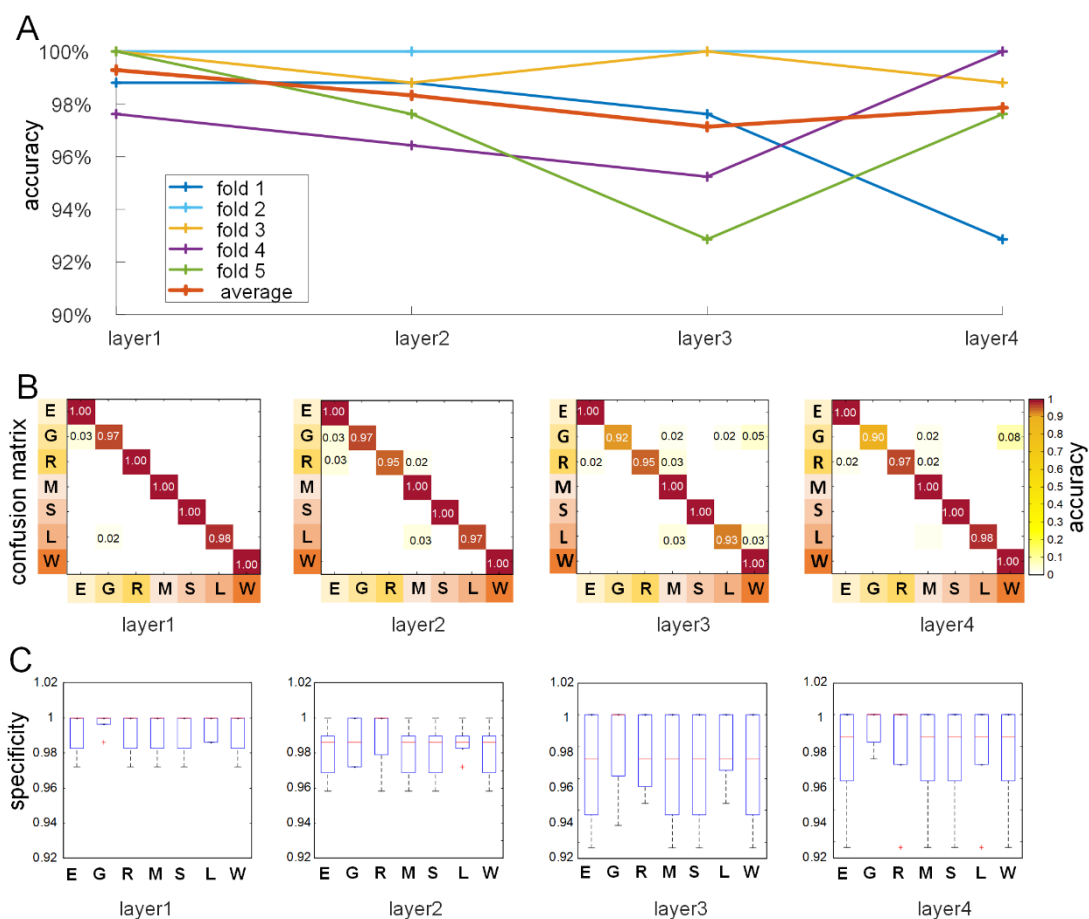
431 **Result**

432 **Classification performance of multi-task fMRI signals**

433 By applying the proposed DBN-SR framework to multi-task fMRI data using five-fold cross-
434 validation strategy, our results reveal that the fMRI data of seven tasks can be accurately
435 classified. In detail, the classification accuracy for five-fold ranges from 92.86% to 100%, with
436 an average accuracy of $97.86\% \pm 3.42\%$ (Mean \pm SD) in the layer 4 (Fig. 2A), which
437 demonstrated the proposed framework can effectively uncover the inherent differences in
438 composition patterns of multi-task fMRI signals.

439 We also explored the classification performance based on features derived from each layer
440 of the proposed framework (Fig. 2). The trend of the classification accuracy curves for five
441 folds is relatively steady, with an average accuracy of $98.15\% \pm 0.90\%$ (Mean \pm SD) (Fig. 2A).
442 Moreover, the average accuracies across five-fold from layer1 to layer4 are 99.29%, 98.33%,

443 97.14%, and 97.86%, respectively. We depicted confusion matrices for each layer to represent
 444 the average classification accuracy of the seven tasks, as shown in Figure 2b. The results
 445 indicate that all the average classification accuracies for seven tasks across five-fold are greater
 446 than 95% in each layer, except for three major confusions, that is, gambling task in layer 3 and
 447 layer 4, relational task in layer 2 and layer 3, and language task in layer 3 (Fig. 2B). In addition,
 448 the specificity of classification results of the first two layers is slightly higher than that of the
 449 deeper two layers (Fig. 2C). Overall, the classification performance of the shallower layers is
 450 relatively better than that of the deeper layers.



451
 452 Figure 2. Classification performance. (A) The classification accuracy of five-fold in each layer.
 453 (B) The average confusion matrices of five-fold cross-validation on the seven tasks. (C) The

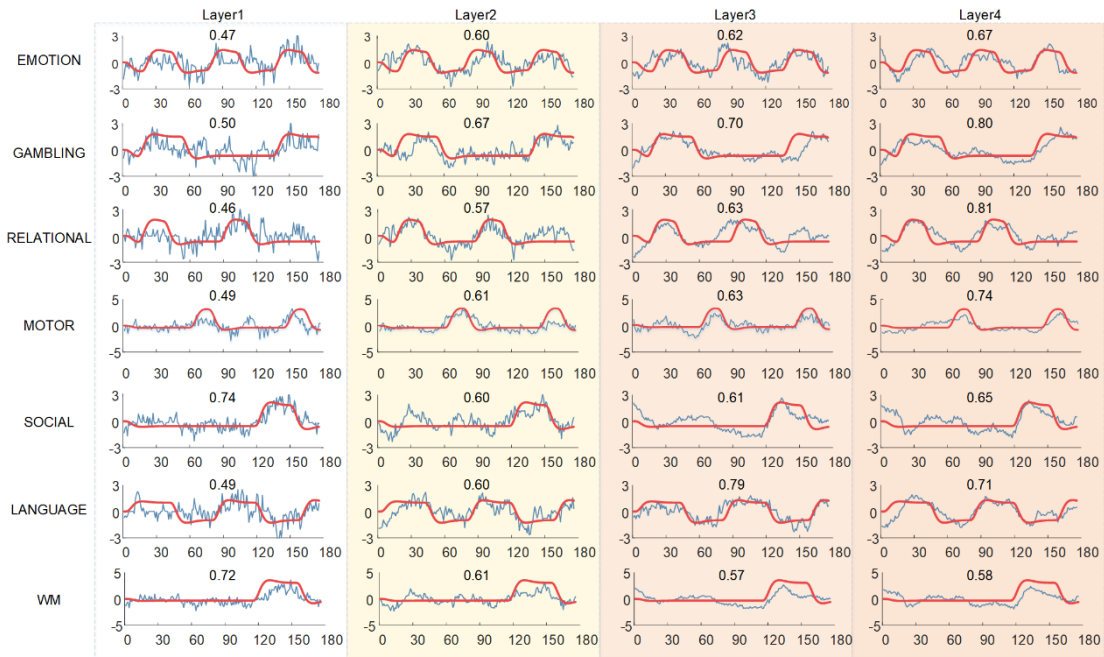
454 average specificity of five-fold cross-validation classification on the seven tasks.

455 **Identified multi-level temporal and spatial patterns of multi-task fMRI signals**

456 Multi-level temporal patterns

457 Our DBN-SR based framework can effectively identify the temporal patterns of multi-task
458 fMRI signals at multi-scale (Fig. 3). In each layer, we quantitatively compared the PCC of the
459 identified temporal features and each task-based stimulus. Those atoms with the highest PCC
460 value in temporal dictionary D^1 were chosen to represent the task-related temporal patterns.
461 We randomly select one training fold as an example to show the representative temporal
462 patterns for each layer (fold 5) (Fig. 3). The average PCC values of seven tasks for all 5-fold
463 can be found in Supplemental Table 6.

464 The overall multi-level temporal patterns are relatively consistent with the task design
465 paradigms. Specifically, the average PCC of seven tasks from layer1 to layer4 is 0.55 ± 0.12 ,
466 0.61 ± 0.03 , 0.65 ± 0.07 , and 0.71 ± 0.08 (Mean \pm SD), respectively, where the highest correlation
467 is observed in layer4 (Fig. 3). Intriguingly, there exist gradient in the resolution of temporal
468 patterns derived from different layers. In the shallow layer, all the identified temporal patterns
469 are mixed with many random noises, resulting in a relatively poor correlation with task
470 paradigms. In comparison, in the deeper layer, the temporal patterns are smoother and more
471 consistent with the original task design curves, indicating that DBN-SR model can filter noises
472 in each layer while keeping useful information of brain activities, which agrees with the former
473 research (H. Huang et al., 2018; Wei Zhang, 2020).



474

475 Figure 3. Comparison of group-wise temporal patterns for seven tasks across different layers,
 476 including the identified temporal features (blue lines) and the task paradigms (red lines). The
 477 quantitative similarities (PCC) of identified temporal features with task paradigms are also
 478 provided. The y-axis represents the stimulus response amplitude, while the x-axis represents
 479 time point. The background colors represent different layers of our DBN-SR model. The lighter
 480 colors represent shallower layers, while the darker colors represent deeper layers.

481 Multi-level spatial patterns

482 Our framework can also effectively identify the spatial patterns from different layers. The most
 483 predominant spatial patterns identified by the proposed framework are the task-evoked FBNs,
 484 including emotion, gambling, relational, motor, social, language, and working memory. In each
 485 layer, we quantitatively compared the SCC of the identified spatial patterns and the GLM-
 486 derived activation patterns. Those atoms with the highest SCC value in spatial dictionaries D^2
 487 were chosen to represent the spatial pattern. We randomly selected one training fold to illustrate

488 the representative FBNs for each layer (Fig. 4).

489 Overall, the spatial patterns are generally consistent with the GLM-derived activation
 490 patterns, with increasingly precise resolution from shallow to deep layers. Quantitatively, the
 491 average SCC of seven tasks from layer1 to layer4 is 0.36 ± 0.20 , 0.26 ± 0.11 , 0.40 ± 0.12 , and
 492 0.48 ± 0.12 (Mean \pm SD), respectively, where the highest SCC is observed in layer 4 (Fig. 4).
 493 Intriguingly, there exist distinct differences among spatial patterns derived from different layers.
 494 The spatial patterns across layers show a trend of increasing consistency with the GLM-derived
 495 activation patterns, and are more compact in deeper layers for most tasks. Meanwhile, more
 496 FBNs can be found in the deeper layers compared with shallow layer. For example, some FBNs
 497 cannot be identified in the first three layers, such as FBNs related to gambling and relational
 498 tasks (Fig. 4).

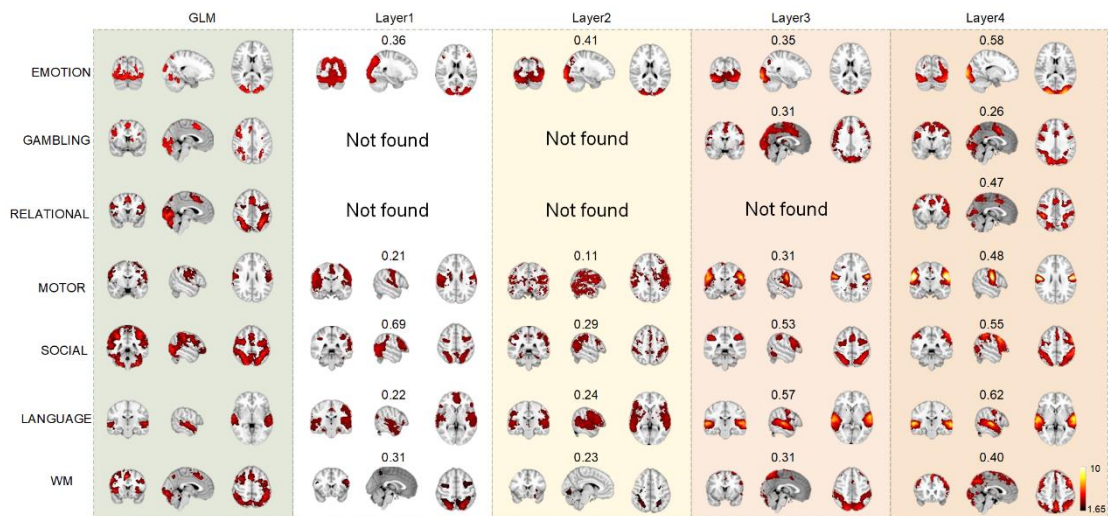
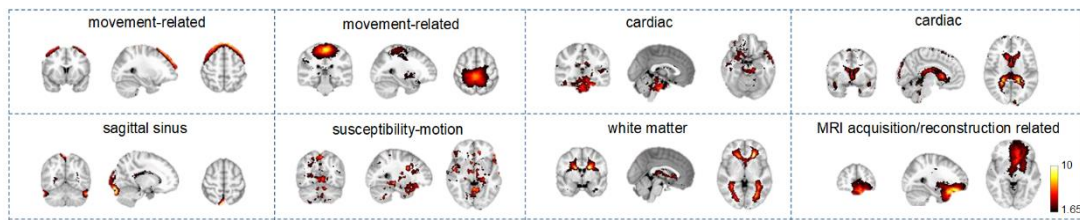


Figure 4.

501 Comparison of group-wise spatial patterns for seven tasks across different layers. The spatial
 502 correlation coefficient (SCC) between each identified spatial pattern and GLM-derived
 503 activation pattern is labeled on top of each brain map.

504 Apart from FBNs, the proposed framework can also effectively detect various artifact-
 505 related components. Specifically, the atoms in spatial dictionary D^2 can represent the group-

506 wise spatial features and can be mapped back to the 3D brain volume. Subsequently, we
 507 manually inspected whether spatial map matched the known types of artifacts based on
 508 previous study (Salimi-Khorshidi et al., 2014). Through this process, we found several artifact-
 509 related components, including movement-related, cardiac-related, sagittal sinus, susceptibility-
 510 motion, white-matter, and MRI acquisition/reconstruction related (Fig. 5).



511
 512 Figure 5. Identified artifact components, including movement-related, cardiac-related, sagittal
 513 sinus, susceptibility-motion, white-matter, and MRI acquisition/reconstruction related.

514 Overall, our effective DBN-SR model is capable of characterizing the multi-level
 515 spatiotemporal features of brain function. The quantitative analysis further demonstrates that,
 516 in deeper layer, the representative temporal features correspond well with task design curves,
 517 and the spatial features are relatively more consistent with the GLM-derived activation. In
 518 addition to task-evoked functional components, our framework could also effectively identify
 519 artifact components from group-wise multi-task fMRI data, laying the groundwork for further
 520 research into the functional role of these components in multi-task classification.

521 Identification of discriminative features by ROA analysis

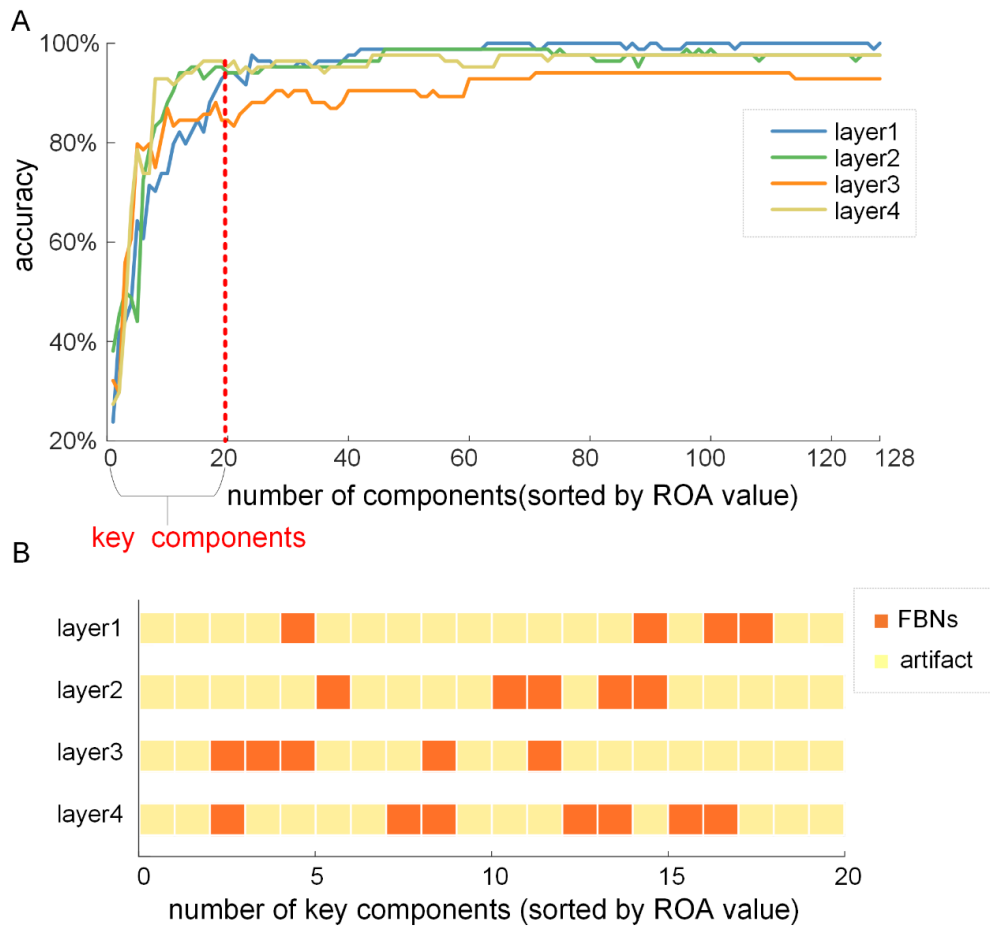
522 As depicted in the “ROA-based analysis” section, we first computed the ROA index by sorting
 523 the ROA values of all the components in loading coefficients α^2 of the training set, then, in
 524 order to evaluate the classification performance, the corresponding components in the loading

525 coefficient α_{test}^2 of testing set were fed sequentially into the trained SVM classifier according
526 to the ROA index. Here, the classification results of each layer on one randomly selected testing
527 fold dataset (fold 5) using different number of components, sorted by their ROA values, are
528 illustrated in Fig. 6A. While the number of components increases from 1 to 20, the accuracy
529 curves of four layers grow monotonically, and the average accuracy of all curves rises to
530 91.96%. When more than twenty components are included for classification, the accuracy
531 curves of four layers exhibit a plateau with accuracies reaching close to 100%, indicating that
532 the additional components with lower ROA values contribute less to the successful
533 classification of multi-task signals. Thus, the top twenty components with higher ROA values
534 can be regarded as key components for the classification task to some extent. Generally, our
535 method can effectively disclose the key components with great classification capacity. In
536 addition, the findings are consistent across different testing folds, hence the additional results
537 of the other four folds are included in the Supplementary Materials (sFig2-5).

538 To further investigate the neural implications of key components with greater
539 classification capacity, we inspected the spatial patterns of the top twenty key components
540 identified by ROA analysis in each layer. By further analyzing the composition of the twenty
541 key components in each layer, we found that these key atoms are either FBNs or artifact-related
542 components, which were identified by visually examining their spatial patterns with established
543 templates and further calculating their SCC with GLM-derived activation maps.

544 Intriguingly, our results show that the top twenty key components in the four layers are
545 largely composed of artifacts, while the proportion of FBNs in key components is small as a
546 whole. On the other hand, the proportion of FBNs is relatively higher in deeper layers compared

547 to shallower layers (Fig. 6B). This conclusion aligns with the findings when using the top 40
 548 components as key components (sFig. 8).



549
 550 Figure 6. ROA classification results in each layer (fold 5). (A) Classification accuracy for
 551 SVM-based classification of four layers using the different number of components sorted by
 552 their ROA values. (B) The composition of twenty key components sorted by ROA value across
 553 each layer.

554 **Discussion**

555 In this study, we proposed a hybrid spatio-temporal deep belief network and sparse
 556 representation framework to decode multi-task fMRI signals on a relatively small cohort

557 dataset. Our framework could classify fMRI signals of seven tasks with high accuracy and
558 detect multi-level temporal patterns and FBNs, suggesting the effectiveness of the proposed
559 method. In addition, our framework can reveal key components including artifact components
560 and functional brain networks in multi-task classification and uncover their underlying
561 neurological implication.

562 Our proposed framework is composed of several elements, including DBN model,
563 LASSO regression, sparse representation, and SVM classifier, resulting in a relatively complex
564 structure. Nevertheless, our framework achieved a relatively higher classification accuracy in
565 comparison to prior research that also conducted classification of 7 task states on the HCP
566 dataset (X. Huang, Xiao, & Wu, 2021; Wang et al., 2020), while also yielding interpretable
567 classification components. Specifically, Wang et al. (2020) reported two standard machine
568 learning algorithms, namely MVPA-SVM and DNN, and X. Huang et al. (2021) proposed a
569 novel framework (CRNN) incorporating multiple modules such as CNN, recurrent neural
570 network (RNN), and attention mechanism. The average accuracy of our framework (98.15%)
571 is much higher than that of MVPA-SVM (69.2%) and comparable to the accuracies of DNN-
572 based model (93.7%) and CRNN-based model (94.31%) (X. Huang et al., 2021; Wang et al.,
573 2020). Additionally, the neuroscientific implications of their results remain elusive. In
574 conclusion, our proposed model achieved higher decoding accuracy than these models, while
575 also providing a more comprehensive and interpretable methodology for decoding fMRI data.

576 Furthermore, our model unveils multi-level temporal and spatial patterns, demonstrating
577 a resolution gradient spanning from shallow to deep layers. Specifically, in the deeper layers,
578 the identified temporal features are better correlated to the original task paradigm curves.

579 Meanwhile, more diverse FBNs can be detected and the spatial features show more consistency
580 with the GLM-derived activation patterns, in deeper layers.

581 Intriguingly, although more higher-order FBNs can be detected in deeper layers, the
582 classification accuracy using features for multi-task classification derived from deeper layers
583 is lower than that of shallower layers, indicating that these higher-order FBNs are not much
584 helpful for multi-task classification. To validate this observation, we specifically selected only
585 FBNs components from all available components across all five folds for multi-task
586 classification, resulting in an average accuracy of $97.08\% \pm 2.14\%$ (Mean \pm SD), slightly lower
587 than the classification rate obtained using all components ($98.15\% \pm 0.90\%$) (sTab. 3). The
588 possible reason is that the FBNs evoked by different cognitive tasks may have co-activated
589 brain regions, thus the FBNs components alone may not fully reveal the potential fundamental
590 differences in functional composition patterns of multi-task fMRI data. On the other hand,
591 ROA-based analyses indicate that artifact components occupy higher proportion of key
592 components for multi-task classification in shallower layers than that in deeper layers, along
593 with higher classification accuracy and specificity in the shallower layers. These findings
594 suggest that the artifact components play an important role in multi-task fMRI signal
595 classification, which is also consistent with previous research, where the artifact components
596 of the EEG signal are significantly more informative than brain activity concerning
597 classification accuracy (McDermott et al., 2021).

598 While our study provides novel insight into the core functional components in decoding
599 multi-task fMRI signals, it is important to note that there are three limitations. The first
600 limitation is the manual setting of parameters for DBN and sparse representation framework,

601 mainly including the number of neuron nodes and layers in DBN and the sparsity penalty
602 parameter of SR. Thus, automatic optimization of model parameters is one of the future
603 research directions. The second limitation stems from our inability to detect FBNs related to
604 gambling and relational tasks within the first two to three layers of the DBN-SR framework.
605 This could be attributed to more noise present in the group-wise temporal features D^1 extracted
606 at lower levels (Fig. 1). Additionally, LASSO regression may not be well-suited for handling
607 noisy shallow features, thus making it challenging for LASSO regression to accurately capture
608 the underlying spatial patterns. To address this limitation, future studies could explore
609 alternative regression approaches that are better suited for handling noisy shallow features,
610 thereby improving the accurate acquisition of the underlying spatial patterns. The third
611 limitation is that our study employed a relatively small dataset, consisting of 60 individuals out
612 of 68 from HCP Q1 dataset. To assess the robustness of our model, we included the remaining
613 8 individuals from the same dataset as a hold-out dataset, 6 of which do not have complete data
614 for all 7 tasks (sTab. 4). However, this does not affect their suitability as an independent lock
615 box dataset to test the performance of our trained model. The results revealed that the average
616 decoding accuracy for these 8 individuals (96.43%) was comparable to the 5-fold cross-
617 validation accuracy of the 60 individuals (sTab. 5), suggesting the robustness of our model.
618 Nonetheless, we acknowledge that a larger dataset would lend further support to our findings.
619 In future work, we aim to apply our model to more extensive or multicenter datasets to evaluate
620 its generalizability and robustness.

621 Overall, with the superiority of interpretability and effectiveness of DBN-SR model on
622 small datasets, our framework could potentially be useful to differentiate abnormal brain

623 function in clinical research.

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633 (<https://www.humanconnectome.org/study/hcp-young-adult/document/q1-data-release>).

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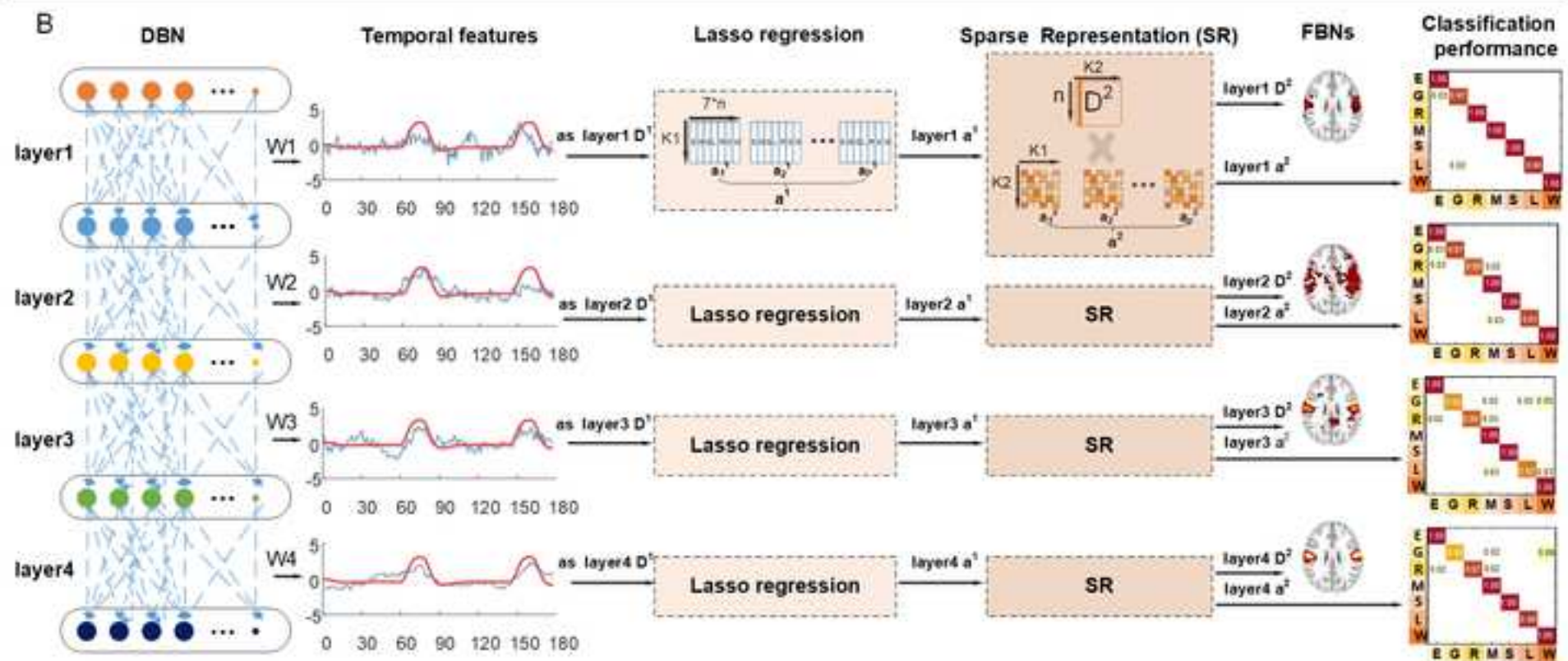
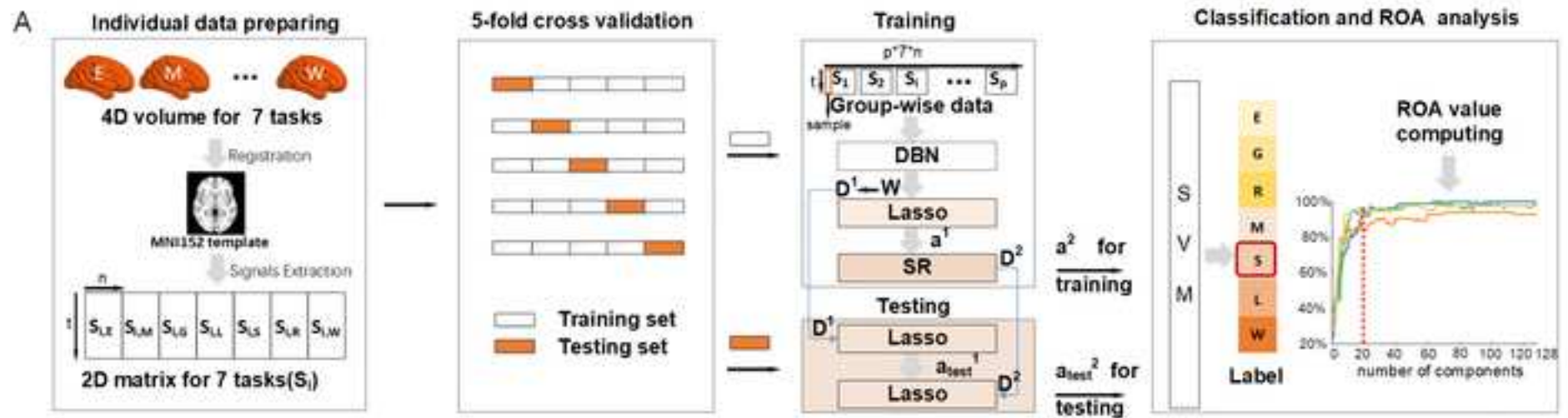
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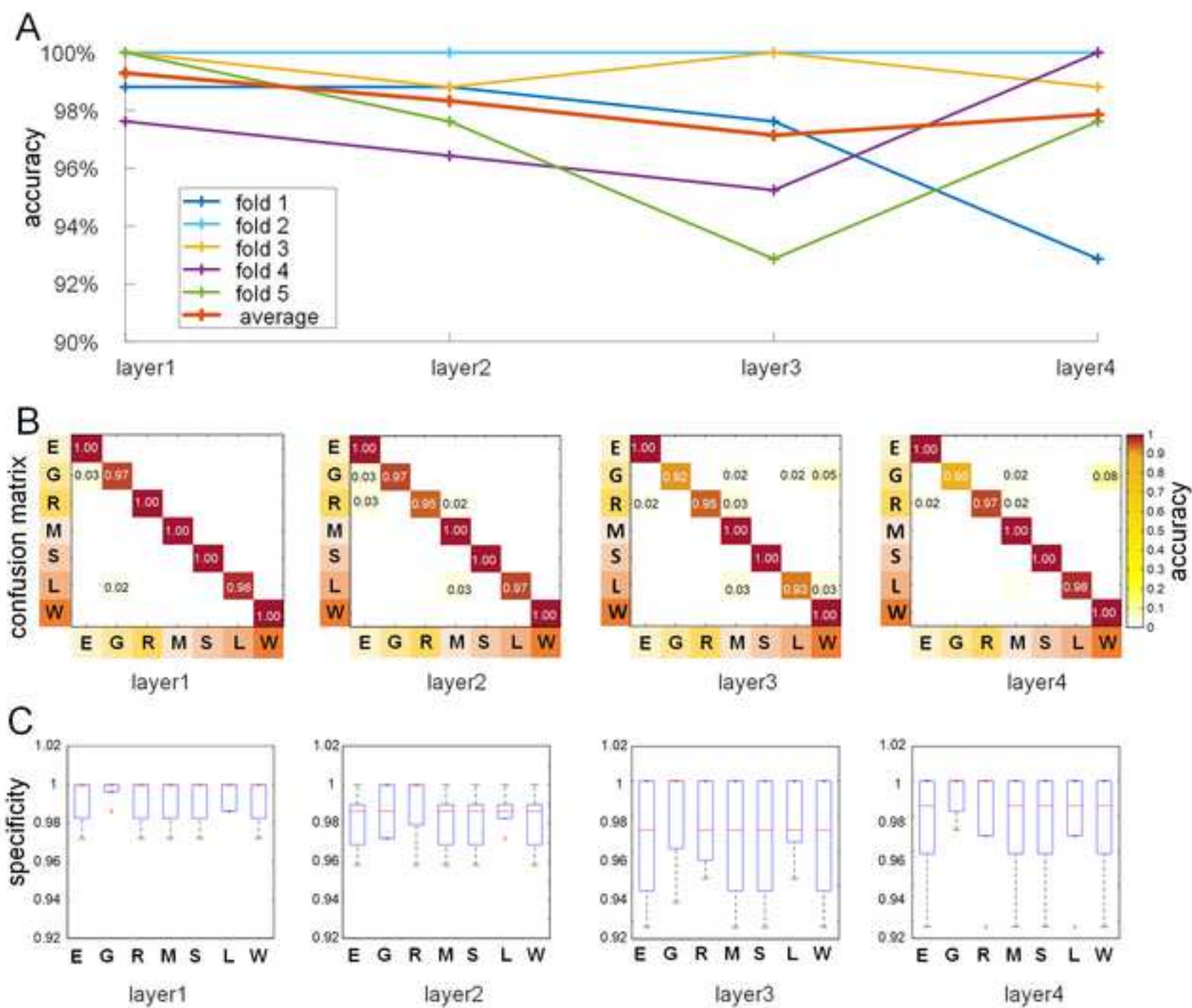
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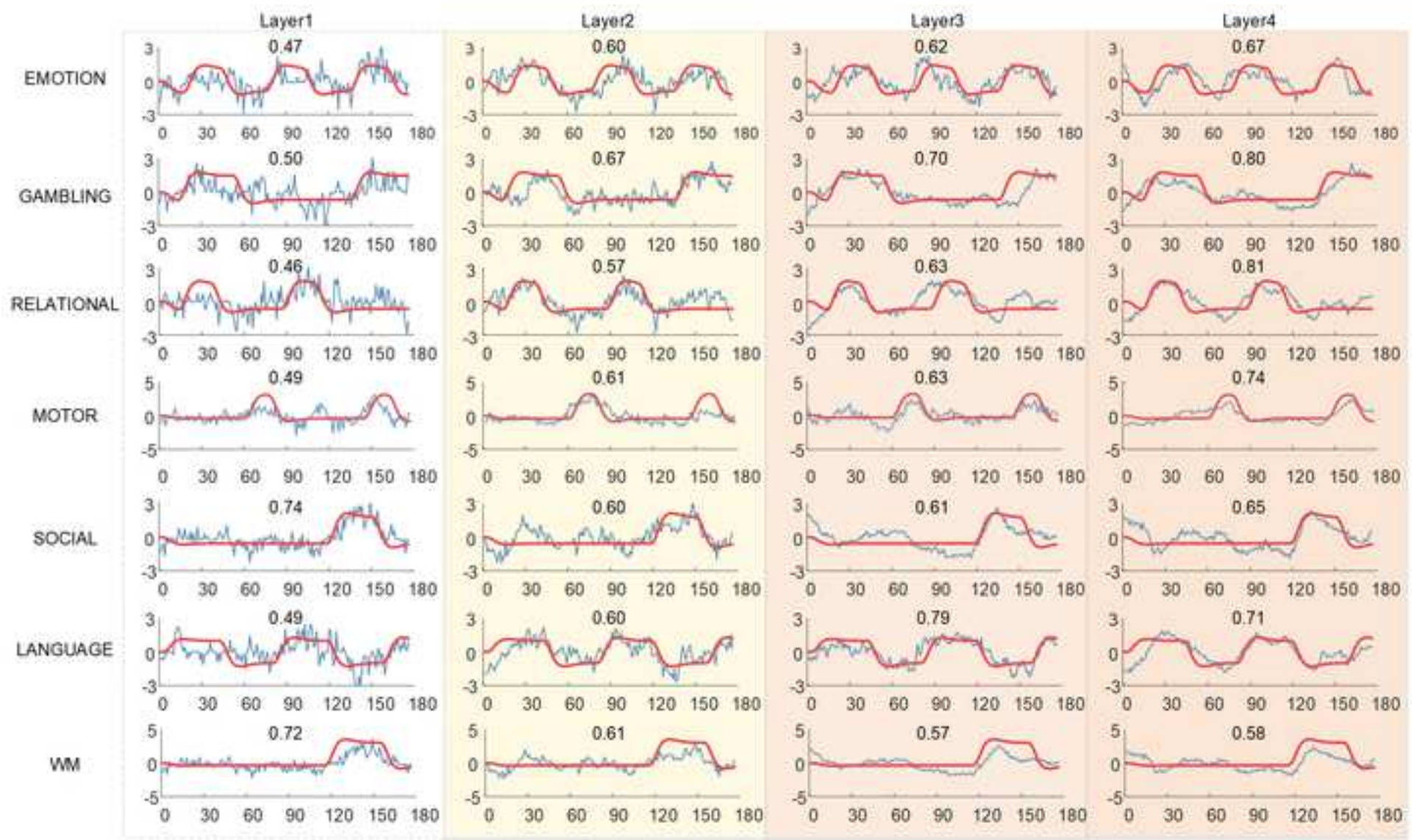
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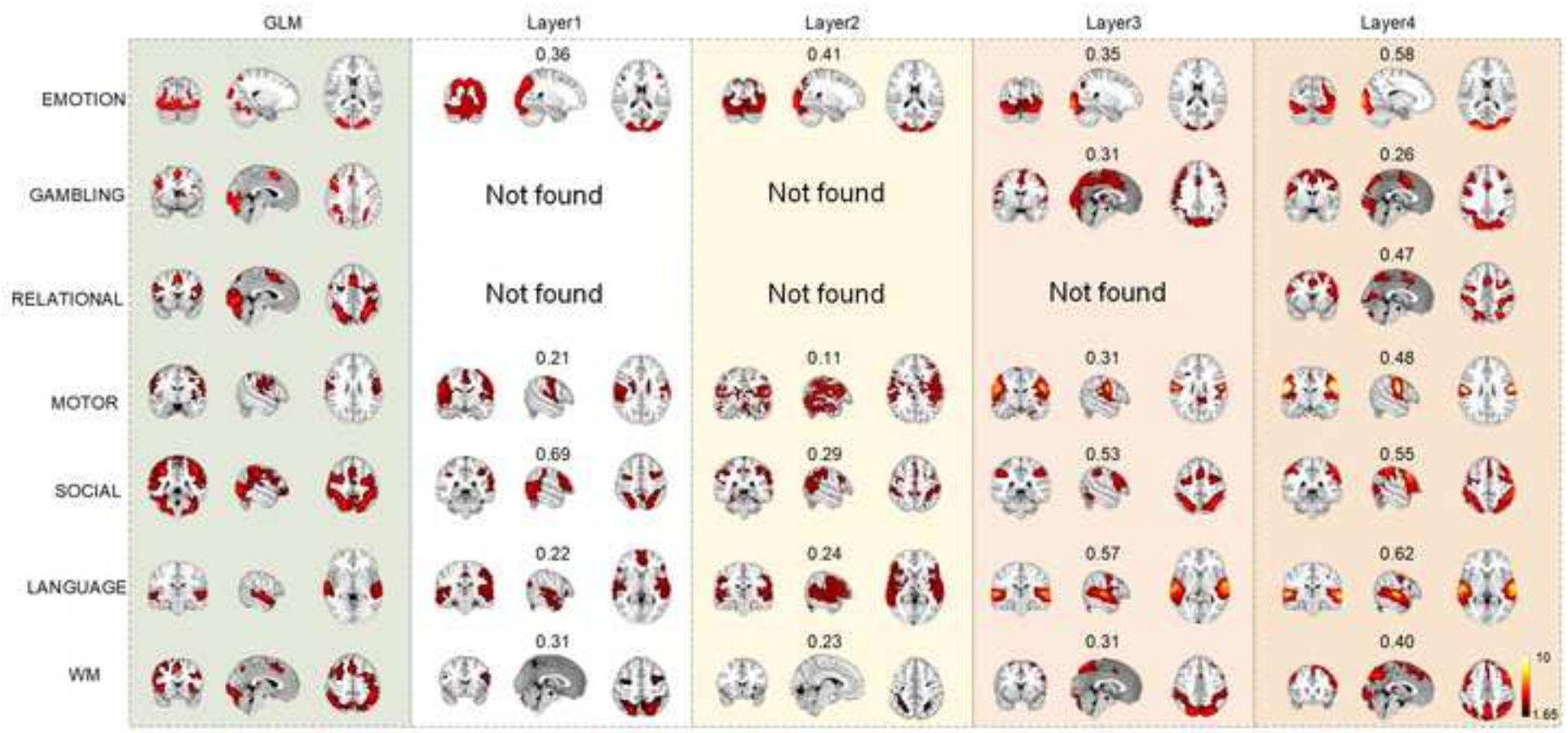
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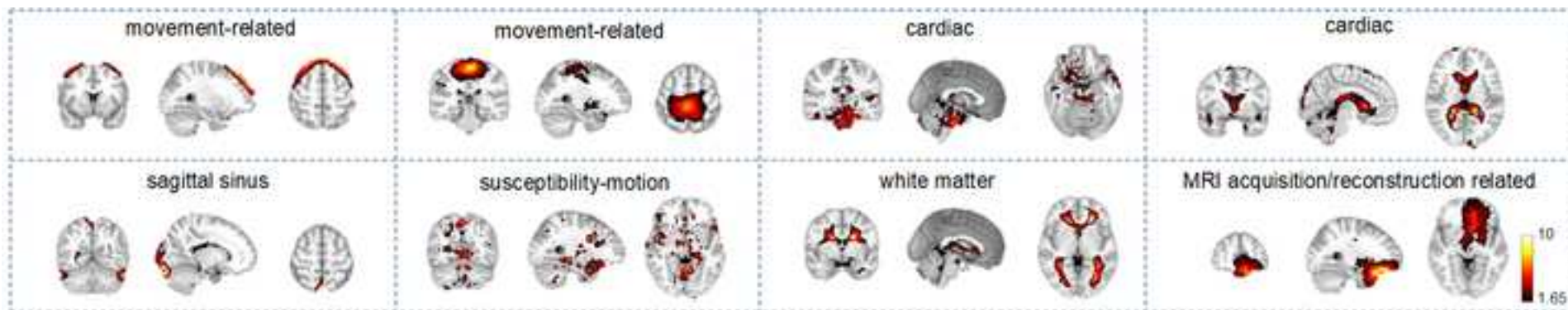
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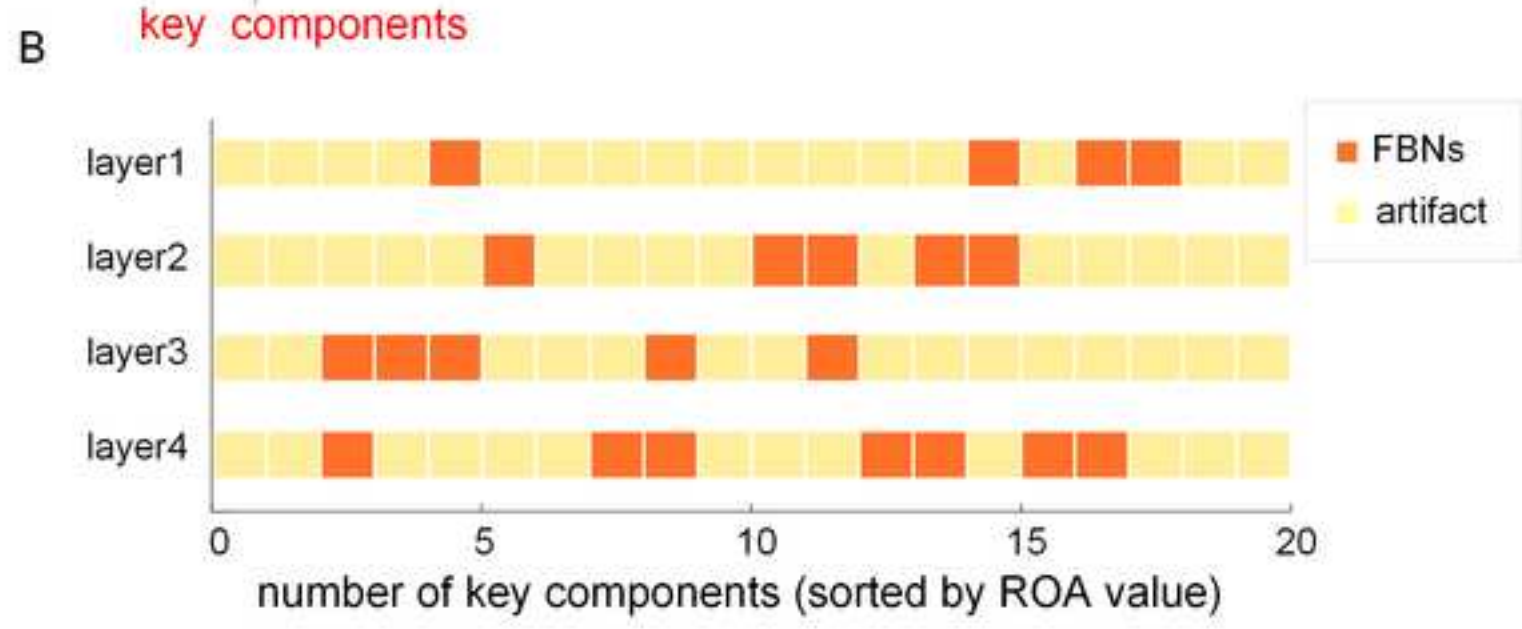
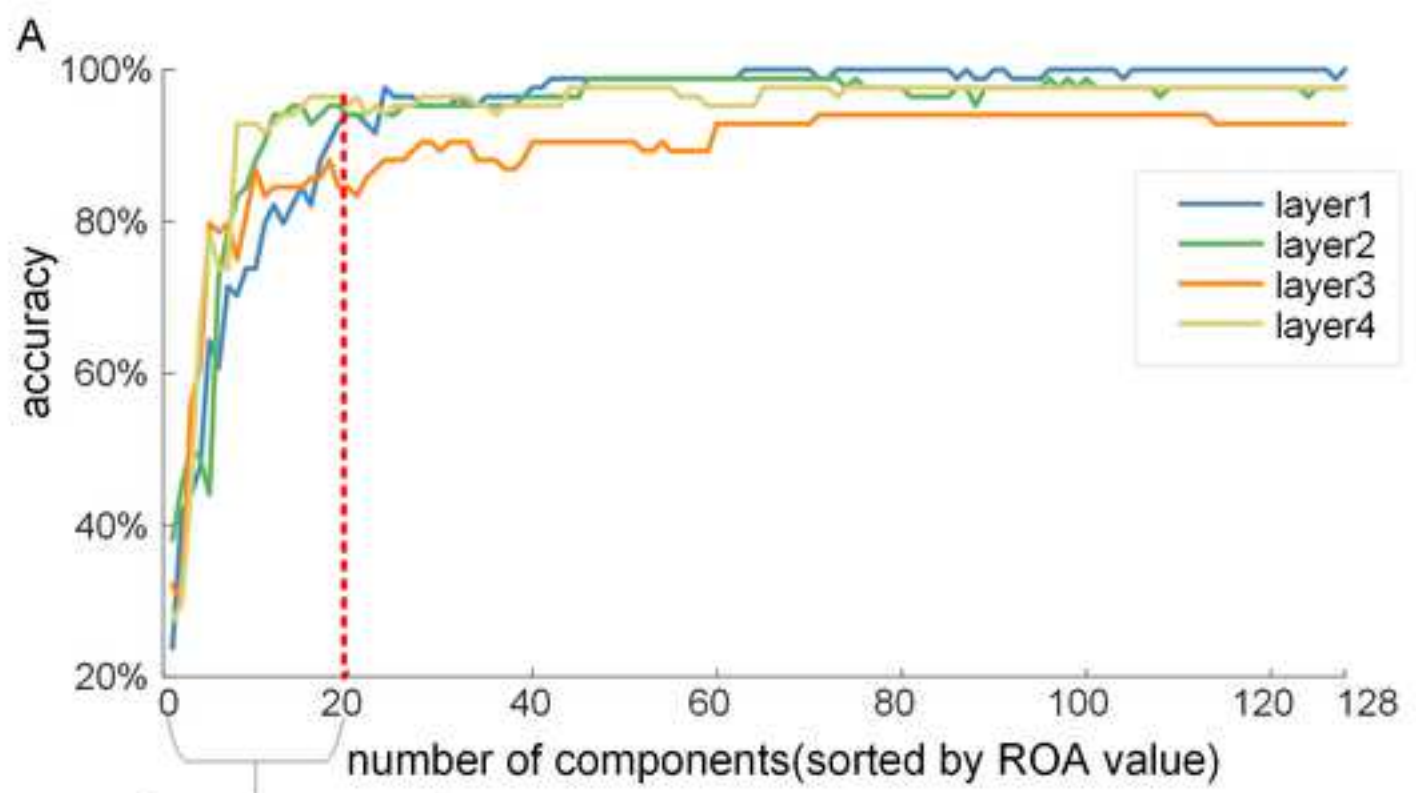












Decoding different cognitive processes using task-based functional magnetic resonance imaging (tfMRI) is crucial for understanding the relationship between brain activities and cognitive states. However, existing machine learning-based feature extraction methods for decoding brain states may struggle to capture the complex and precise spatiotemporal patterns of brain activity from the highly noisy raw fMRI data. Additionally, current deep learning-based end-to-end decoding models struggle to unveil interpretable components in tfMRI signal decoding.

To address these limitations, we proposed a novel framework, the hybrid spatio-temporal deep belief network and sparse representations (DBN-SR) framework, which effectively distinguished multi-task fMRI signals with an average accuracy of 97.86%. Furthermore, it simultaneously identified multi-level temporal and spatial patterns of multiple cognitive tasks. By utilizing a novel Ratio-of-Activation metric, our framework unveiled interpretable components with greater classification capacity, offering an effective methodology for basic neuroscience and clinical research.