

MANIPAL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY MANIPAL (A constituent unit of MAHE, Manipal)

Enhancing EEG-based Imagined Speech Recognition through Spatio-Temporal feature extraction using Information Set Theory

Final Semester Thesis Presentation

Ashrith Sagar Yedlapalli 200902016

Under the guidance of **Dr. Jeevan M**

Department of Biomedical Engineering, Manipal Institute of Technology, Manipal, India

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Outline |

Introduction

- Area of work
- Rationale behind the work
- Objectives
- 2 Literature Review
 - Electroencephalography (EEG)
 - Imagined Speech
 - KaraOne database
 - FEIS dataset
 - Information Sets

Outline ||

3 Methodology

- Overview
- Pre-processing
 - Windowing
 - Feature extraction
 - Additional features
- Models
- Samplers
- Correlation analysis
- 4 Results

Conclusion



Introduction

Area of work

Electroencephalography (EEG) and Imagined/Silent Speech (SS)

- **EEG** \rightarrow A non-invasive brain activity recording method.
- \bullet SS \rightarrow Speech silently formed in the mind without verbal articulation.
- Advantages of EEG-based BCI:
 - Non-invasive and easy to use.
 - Good temporal resolution.
- Challenges in SS recognition using EEG:
 - Low Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR).
 - Limited spectral and spatial resolution.

Introduction

Motivation

Rationale behind the work

- EEG signals are integral to Brain-Computer Interfaces (BCI), enhancing interaction for paralyzed individuals [11].
- BCIs translate brain signals into **actionable commands**, *bypassing natural neuromuscular pathways*.
- Existing BCI paradigms are limited by specific stimuli and class options, hindering practical communication [5].
- EEG signals are utilized in recognizing Imagined Speech (Covert or Silent speech), where users mentally visualize words instead of speaking [5].
- EEG's **non-invasive nature** and **ease of use** make it ideal for recognizing imagined speech.

Introduction

Objectives

Project Objectives

- Conduct a EEG Imagined speech phonological classification
- Extracting rich spatio-temporal features using Information Set theory

EEG

Electroencephalography (EEG)

- EEG is a **non-invasive** method to record brain electrical activity using scalp electrodes [6].
- Since Hans Berger first recorded EEG signals in 1924, EEG has been pivotal in neuroscience research, providing insights into brain activity [14].
- **EEG waveforms** are categorized into Delta (0.5 to 4 Hz), Theta (4 to 8 Hz), Alpha (8 to 12 Hz), Beta (12 to 35 Hz), and Gamma (greater than 36 Hz) bands [7].
- **Preprocessing** involves downsampling, filtering, and windowing to enhance signal quality [7].
- Feature extraction analyzes time, frequency, and spatial domains to capture meaningful data for classification [7].

Imagined Speech

Imagined/Silent Speech (SS)

- Imagined speech, or covert speech, involves mentally representing words or concepts without verbal articulation [5].
- for imagined speech applications generally comprises four steps [7]
 - Signal acquisition
 - Signal processing
 - Feature extraction
 - Classification
- Classification methods include traditional ML (e.g., SVM, kNN, RF) and deep learning (e.g., CNN, LSTM) [7].
- Deep learning models like CNN and LSTM show high performance but require large training data and are computationally expensive.
- Limited data

KaraOne database

KaraOne database [13]

- A publicly available dataset containing data from **3 modalities**: Acoustic, Facial, and EEG data.
- Contains EEG signals from **14 subjects**, recorded during imagined speech tasks.
- Each subject performed 15 trials, each consisting of **four states**: *Rest, Stimulus, Imagined speech*, and *Speaking*.

KaraOne database — Recording

Recording procedure



Figure: A visual representation of the recording procedure used in the KaraOne database. Each trial for each subject consisted of **four states**: *rest, stimulus, imagined speech*, and *speaking*. The imagined speech segment is the focus of this study. [Source: Author; Refer [13]]

KaraOne database — Prompts

Prompts

• The cues consist of **Seven** phonemic/ syllabic prompts:

Four words from Kent's phonetically-similar pairs:

/diy/, /iy/, /m/, /n/, /piy/, /tiy/, /uw/

gnaw, knew, pat, pot

 They were chosen in a way to ensure a balanced representation of nasals, plosives, vowels, voiced, and unvoiced phonemes.

FEIS dataset

FEIS dataset

- Acquisition System: **14-channel Emotiv EPOC+ headset** with dry electrodes
- Sampling frequency: 256 Hz
- Dataset contents:
 - 16 phonemic prompts
 - 10 repetitions of each prompt per participant
 - 21 participants in total
- Signal pre-processing:
 - Notch filter applied at 50 Hz and 60 Hz using built-in Emotiv software to remove powerline noise
 - No pre-processing for physiological artifacts (blinks, saccades) due to *lack of ocular channels* in the headset
- Epoch Segmentation:
 - EEG epochs segmented into 5-second intervals
 - 10% overlap between consecutive epochs
- Similar preprocessing steps to the KaraOne dataset

FEIS dataset



Figure: Illustration of the model-building procedure for the FEIS dataset.



FEIS dataset

Table: Comparison of KaraOne and FEIS datasets

	KaraOne [13]	FEIS [12]
EEG device	64 channels	14 channels
Sampling rate	1000 Hz	256 Hz
Participants	14 participants	21 participants
Duration	30 - 40 minutes	60 minutes
Prompts	7 phonemes $+$ 4 words	16 phonemes

Information set theory

Information set theory

- **Information set theory** is a **mathematical framework** that deals with the representation and manipulation of *information sets*.
- Information sets are mathematical objects that represent the information content of a given *fuzzy set*.

Information set theory is used in this study to **extract spatio-temporal features** from EEG signals.

Information set theory

Entropy functions

• Entropy functions are used to quantify the uncertainty and measure the information content in a given *information set*.

Table: Entropy functions

Entropy	Formula
Shannon entropy Shannon fuzzy entropy	$\begin{split} E_{Shannon} &= -\sum_{i} p(x_{i}) \log p(x_{i}) \\ E_{X,LT,\mu} &= -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} (\mu_{X}^{k}(x_{i})) \log (\mu_{X}^{k}(x_{i})) \\ &+ (1 - \mu_{X}^{k}(x_{i})) \log (1 - \mu_{X}^{k}(x_{i})) \end{split}$

Information set theory

Information sets

- Applications in extracting effective information from fuzzy sets.
- Utilized in studies by Aggarwal et al. (2016), Medikonda et al. (2020), Mamta et al. (2014).
- Information sets are **derived from fuzzy sets**; Values from the fuzzy set are treated as information source values.
- Source values, upon multiplication with an entropy function yields information values.
- The **sum** of information values in an information set indicates **information**/uncertainty.

Information set theory

Information sets

- Solves two main problems involved with fuzzy sets:
 - **Decouples** information source values and membership grades in fuzzy sets.
 - Extends entropy function to probabilistic or possibilistic domains.

Overview

Data pre-processing

Filtering & Baseline correction

• Feature extraction

- Windowing
- Extracting features
- Additional features
- Feature reduction
 - KaraOne methodology
 - Proposed IFS methodology

Classification

Model training & evaluation



Figure: Methodology flowchart for the proposed work.

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Classification tasks

Classification tasks

Five binary classification tasks of phonological categories are performed

- Vowel-only vs. consonant (C/V)
- **2** Presence of nasal $(\pm \text{Nasal})$
- **O** Presence of bilabial $(\pm$ **Bilabial**)
- Presence of high-front vowel $(\pm/iy/)$
- Presence of high-back vowel $(\pm/uw/)$

Pre-processing

Filtering

- The data was filtered using a **band-pass filter** with
 - Lower cut-off frequency of 0.5 Hz
 - Upper cut-off frequency of 50 Hz.
- This was done to remove the noise from the data.

Baseline correction

- The data was **baseline corrected** using the mean of the first 500 ms of each trial.
- This was done to remove the DC offset from the data.

The data tensor was then used for further processing.

Pre-processing

Windowing

- Windowing was performed over each imagined speech segment of 5 seconds.
- This gave 19 windows per segment, with 500 ms window length.



Figure: Windowing of the data

Pre-processing

Feature extraction

- A set of statistical features and few entropy functions were computed on the windows, giving a total of 27 features per window.
- This results in a feature tensor of size $19 \times 62 \times 27$.



Figure: Extraction of features on the windows

Pre-processing

Table: List of the 27 functions used for feature extraction on the windows. The functions are divided into three categories: **statistical measures**, **entropies**, and **fractal dimensions**.

Feature functions				
Mean	Absolute Mean			
Maximum	Absolute Maximum			
Minimum	Absolute Minimum			
${\sf Minimum} \pm {\sf Maximum}$	Curve Length			
Energy	Nonlinear Energy			
Integral	Standard Deviation			
Variance	Skewness			
Kurtosis	Sum			
Spectral entropy	Sample entropy			
Permutation entropy	Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) entropy			
Approximate entropy Katz fractal dimension Root Mean Square	Petrosian fractal dimension Higuchi fractal dimension Detrended fluctuation			

Pre-processing

Additional features

- **Delta** and **double delta** features were computed on the 27 features, giving a total of 81 features per window.
- This results in a feature tensor of size $17 \times 62 \times 81$.
- The initial two windows were discarded to accommodate the inclusion of these additional features.

Pre-processing



Figure: Addition of **delta** and **double delta** features to the feature tensor. The initial two windows were discarded to accommodate the inclusion of these additional features.

Proposed methodology



Figure: Extracting effective information from the features across both temporal and spatial dimensions resulting in rich **spatio-temporal features**. The two folds of information are separately computed across the temporal and spatial dimensions by extracting the uncertainty in the source values. These are then fused and averaged along the temporal and spatial dimensions to obtain the effective feature vectors.



Proposed methodology

Extracting Effective information — Information Sets

The procedure for computing effective features from the feature tensor is as follows:

Proposed methodology

For each epoch, consider the feature tensor X of size $[W \times C \times F]$.

Consider the feature matrix X_f for the f^{th} feature in (1), which is considered as an **information source matrix**. The features are considered as **information source values** comprising an information set along the temporal and spatial dimensions.

$$X_{f} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11f} & \cdots & x_{1cf} & \cdots & x_{1Cf} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{w1f} & \cdots & x_{wcf} & \cdots & x_{wCf} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{W1f} & \cdots & x_{Wcf} & \cdots & x_{WCf} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \le w \le W \\ 1 \le c \le C \\ 1 \le f \le F \end{bmatrix}$$
(1)

Proposed methodology

The uncertainty across the temporal and spatial dimensions are computed separately using a Gaussian membership function in (2), (3) as follows:

$$G_t(x_{wcf}) = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{x_{wcf} - \mu_{cf}}{\sigma_{cf}}\right]^2\right\}, \quad 1 \le c \le C$$

$$G_s(x_{wcf}) = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{x_{wcf} - \mu_{wf}}{\sigma_{wf}}\right]^2\right\}, \quad 1 \le w \le W$$
(2)
(3)

Proposed methodology

Here μ_{cf} and σ_{cf} are the temporal mean and standard deviation calculated across the windows in (4), while μ_{wf} and σ_{wf} are the spatial mean and standard deviation calculated across the channels in (5).

$$\mu_{cf} = \frac{1}{W} \sum_{w=1}^{W} x_{wcf}, \quad \sigma_{cf} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{W} \sum_{w=1}^{W} (x_{wcf} - \mu_{cf})^2}$$
(4)
$$\mu_{wf} = \frac{1}{C} \sum_{c=1}^{C} x_{wcf}, \quad \sigma_{wf} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{C} \sum_{c=1}^{C} (x_{wcf} - \mu_{wf})^2}$$
(5)

 $\bigvee c = 1$

Proposed methodology

The temporal and spatial fold information in (6) are then obtained by extracting information from the uncertainties in the source values, thereby considering the set $\{I_f^{\lambda}(x_{wcf})\}$ as an information set, which is given by,

$$I_{f}^{\lambda}(x_{wcf}) = x_{wcf} \cdot G_{\lambda}(x_{wcf}), \quad \lambda = \{t, s\}$$
(6)

where λ corresponds to the folds, representing the temporal (*t*) and spatial (*s*) folds respectively.

Proposed methodology

The choice of the **membership function** as a **Gaussian** in (6) is based on the fact that the **mean** of the attributes should remain the same along the temporal and spatial dimensions in the feature matrix, taken independently.

This is justified based on the assumption that the signals remain statistically stationary over time within the windows, and that the signals are **localised** within their respective spatial regions for each channel. Proposed methodology

The fused information for a given window w and channel c is then computed by summing the fold information across the corresponding window and channel in (7).

$$1 \le w \le W$$

$$\mathcal{I}_{f}(x_{wcf}) = l_{f}^{t}(x_{wcf}) + l_{f}^{s}(x_{wcf}), \quad 1 \le c \le C$$

$$1 \le f \le F$$

(7)

Proposed methodology

The normalised effective information is then computed by taking the mean at each fused information source value along the temporal and spatial folds in (8).

$$E_f = \frac{1}{WC} \sum_{w=1}^{W} \sum_{c=1}^{C} \mathcal{I}_f(x_{wcf})$$
(8)

This gives the following $F \times 1$ effective information vector **E**,

$$\mathbf{E}^{T} = \begin{bmatrix} E_{1} & \cdots & E_{f} & \cdots & E_{F} \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times F}$$
(9)

These are the effective features that are used to represent the spatio-temporal information, thus effectively reducing the $[W \times C \times F]$ feature tensor to a *F*-length feature vector, as in (9).

Proposed methodology

Algorithm 1: Effective Information

Input: $[S \times W \times C \times F]$ feature tensor with S epochs, W windows, C channels, and F features

foreach epoch in feature tensor do

Compute the temporal and spatial fold informations

$$\begin{cases} G_t(x_{wcf}) = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{x_{wcf}-\mu_{cf}}{\sigma_{cf}}\right]^2\right\}, \ G_s(x_{wcf}) = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{x_{wcf}-\mu_{wf}}{\sigma_{wf}}\right]^2\right\}, \\ I_f^{\lambda}(x_{wcf}) = x_{wcf} \cdot G_{\lambda}(x_{wcf}), \lambda = \{t, s\} \\ \text{Compute the fused information from the fold informations} \\ \mathcal{I}_f(x_{wcf}) = I_f^t(x_{wcf}) + I_f^s(x_{wcf}) \\ \text{Compute the effective information vector } \mathbf{E} \\ E_f = \frac{1}{WC} \sum_{w=1}^W \sum_{c=1}^C \mathcal{I}_f(x_{wcf}) \\ \mathbf{Output:} \text{ Feature vector of length } [F] \text{ for the epoch} \\ \mathbf{end} \end{cases}$$

Result: Effective feature matrix of dimensions $[S \times F]$

KaraOne methodology



Figure: EEG features are **ranked** based on their Pearson correlations with the given classes for each task *independenly*. *N* features are selected with the highest absolute correlation coefficients, where $N \in \{5, ..., 100\}$. [Source: Author; Refer [13]]

Models

Models

We use the following models to classify the EEG signals:

- Hanman Classifier
- Decision Tree Classifier
- Random Forest Classifier
- Support Vector Machines

Models — Hanman Classifier

Hanman Classifier

- Based on Information sets [9,8].
- Works by computing the uncertainty of the minimum aggregated normed errors between the test sample and all the training samples for each class and then identifies the class with the lowest uncertainty as the predicted class for the test sample.
- The aggregation of the errors between the test and training samples is done using the Frank t-norm to assess similarity or dissimilarity between them.

Models — Hanman Classifier

Algorithm 2: Hanman Classifier
Input: Train samples, Test samples
Normalize samples along features axis
foreach sample in test samples do
foreach sample in train samples do
Compute the error between the training sample and the input test sample
foreach class do
foreach pair of errors in class do
Compute the <i>t</i> -norm of the error vectors
Compute the minimum of the normed error pair
Compute the possibilistic uncertainty associated with the minimum pair
Compute the class with the minimum uncertainty
Output: Predicted class for the test sample

Result: Predicted classes for the test samples

Models — Hanman Classifier



Figure: Setup of the data points in the classification problem.

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EEG Imagined Speech

Models — Hanman Classifier



Figure: Hanman Classifier classifies by computing the uncertainty of the minimum aggregated normed errors between the test sample and all the training samples for each class and then identifies the class with the lowest uncertainty as the predicted class for the test sample.

Models — Decision Tree Classifier

Decision Tree Classifier [10]

- Works by approximating the features and learning them by a series of if-then rules, recursively dividing data into subsets based on features that maximize information gain.
- Information gain is computed using either the Gini impurity function or the Shannon entropy function:

$$E_{Gini} = \sum_{k} p_k (1 - p_k)$$
 $E_{Shannon} = -\sum_{k} p_k \log p_k$

- Its complexity is closely related to its depth.
- Tend to overfit, do not generalize well, and are sensitive to changes in the data.

Models — Random Forest Classifier

Random Forest Classifier [2]

- An ensemble method that works by creating a forest of decision trees.
- The forest's outcome relies on a **majority-voting principle**, selecting the most predicted class (mode of the predictions) from the ensemble.
- By aggregating predictions of multiple trees, RFC achieves higher accuracy and **better generalization** compared to a single DT.
- Can handle large datasets and is robust to overfitting, overcoming the problems in individual decision trees.

Models — Random Forest Classifier



Figure: Random Forest Classifier: An ensemble of multiple Decision Trees.

Models — SVM

Support Vector Machine (SVM)

- SVMs operate by identifying the **optimal hyperplane** to effectively separate data into distinct classes.
- This involves finding a hyperplane with the **maximum margin** between classes, thereby maximizing the separation between the hyperplane and the closest data points from each class.
- SVMs excel in high-dimensional areas and can achieve nonlinear classification by utilizing kernel functions that convert input data into feature spaces of higher dimensions.

Models — SVM



Figure: The classifier finds the hyperplane that best separates the data into different classes.

Models — Parameters

Model parameters

A Grid search was performed to obtain the best parameters for each model.

Table: Parameters for the different models

Model	Parameters
Hanman Classifier	alpha=0.5, beta=1, a=1, b=0, q=2
Decision Tree Classifier	<pre>min_samples_split=2, max_depth=None,</pre>
	criterion='gini'
Random Forest Classifier	<pre>max_depth=100, n_estimators=100,</pre>
	class_weight='balanced'
Support Vector Machines	C=1, kernel='rbf', gamma='scale',
	shrinking=True

Samplers

Samplers

- Random Over Sampler (ROS)
- SMOTE (Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique) [3]
- ADASYN (Adaptive Synthetic Sampling) [4]

Samplers — Random Over Sampler

Random Over Sampler (ROS)

- A simple method that addresses class imbalance by **randomly** selecting and replicating samples from the *minority class*.
- Over-samples by duplicating original minority class samples
- Need to be used with caution to avoid overfitting.

Samplers — SMOTE

Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique (SMOTE) [3]

- Generates synthetic samples for the minority class by interpolating between minority class samples.
- New samples are created by selecting one of the *k* nearest neighbors and interpolating.
- Number of synthetic samples generated is proportional to the minority-to-majority class ratio.

Samplers — ADASYN

Adaptive Synthetic Sampling (ADASYN) [4]

- Enhances SMOTE by focusing on samples near the decision boundary of the classifier.
- Uses an internal *k*-nearest neighbors (*k*-NN) classifier to identify samples near the boundary.
- Generates synthetic samples based on the density distribution of the minority class.

Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis: EEG vs. Acoustic features

In addition, **Pearson correlation coefficients** are computed between the EEG and acoustic features, comparing the $17 \times 81 = 1377$ audio features with each of the 62 EEG channels across all imagined speech segments in the dataset. This provides an estimate of how well each EEG channel predicts the resulting audio.

Channel	Τ7	FT7	TP7	FT8	P3	CP5	T8	P5	P7	C4
Pearson r	0.2397	0.2343	0.2297	0.2291	0.2284	0.2282	0.2281	0.2280	0.2277	0.2263
p-Value	0.0434	0.0467	0.0550	0.0521	0.0579	0.0573	0.0528	0.0568	0.0571	0.0492

Table: Top 10 highest mean correlations and their corresponding *p*-values between the acoustic and EEG features in each of the 62 channels over all the imagined speech segments in the dataset.

Correlation analysis



Figure: EEG electrode placement according to the International 10–20 system with the Modified Combinatorial Nomenclature (MCN). The red circles indicate the **top 10 EEG channels** with the highest absolute correlation coefficients between the **Acoustic** and **EEG** features.

Performance metric analysis

Table: Average accuracies (%) across modalities and classes given the SVM-quad classifier from KaraOne methodology, and for select classifiers based on the proposed methodology.

			Task				
Method	Classifier	Modality	C/V	\pm Nasal	\pm Bilabial	\pm /iy/	\pm /uw/
		EEG	18.08	63.50	56.64	59.60	79.16
		FAC	62.54	48.10	63.73	40.25	20.68
KaraOne	SVM-quad	AUD	81.05	40.48	39.98	37.63	18.33
		EEG+FAC	72.17	48.41	63.73	56.03	19.60
		EEG+AUD	61.13	62.72	39.99	49.15	83.75
		ALL	75.72	51.87	63.73	46.01	20.20
	RF + ROS		81.60	60.98	62.86	64.95	90.94
IFST	$HC + NS \; / \; ROS$	FFC	77.35	54.63	58.05	57.84	89.41
	DT + ROS	EEG	69.55	55.61	55.96	61.25	82.65
	SVM + ADASYN		75.47	44.74	54.91	56.03	40.14

Performance metric analysis

- The Random Forest classifier with Random over sampler (RF+ROS) achieved average accuracies of 60% – 90%, significantly improving over KaraOne SVM classifiers 18% – 79%.
- The proposed methodology outperforms KaraOne SVM classifiers in most tasks, with RF+ROS showing the best performance among all models except Task 2 (\pm Nasal).
- Overall, improved performance is observed compared to KaraOne baseline models, despite some preprocessing steps being omitted.
- Variation exists among classifiers and samplers, reflecting their ability to handle uncertainties in EEG data.

Performance metric analysis

- Different samplers impact classifier performance significantly, indicating the necessity of balancing classes with samplers.
- Random Forest performs best due to its ability to handle data uncertainties by averaging multiple decision trees, reducing variance and overfitting.

Performance metric analysis

- The Hanman classifier with No Sampler (HC+NS) and Random over sampler (HC+ROS) show *identical metrics* due to the classifier computing the least possibilitic uncertainty among all the pairs of norm errors among all the classes. Since ROS doesn't generate new samples but only duplicates the existing ones randomly, the classifier doesn't see any new samples and hence the metrics are identical.
- SMOTE and ADASYN samplers induce significant changes, highlighting the Hanman classifier's *sensitivity* to dataset alterations through sampling.

Limitations

Limitations

- The KaraOne feature selection method shows variability in the attributes of selected features for each task, greatly influenced by the choice of *N*.
- Introducing new data can alter the set of selected features, often discarding many without contributing additional information.
- In contrast, the proposed methodology maintains a fixed number of attributes per feature, independent of *N*, utilizing information from all features across windows and channels.
- Unlike KaraOne, which requires access to speaking segments in trials, the proposed method focuses solely on imagined speech segments.

Limitations

Limitations

- Restricted Vocabulary Size: EEG-based BCI systems for imagined speech classification are limited in recognizing a wide vocabulary due to subtle neural signals easily confounded by noise and overlapping mental activities.
- Mental Repetition Challenges: Participants often repeat the same word or phrase mentally for data generation, leading to mental fatigue and reduced signal quality, thereby impacting BCI system performance.
- Individual Variability: EEG signals vary significantly across individuals, necessitating personalized models that may be resource-intensive and challenging to generalize.

Applications

Application scenarios

Potential applications include:

- Brain-computer interfaces for communication in military settings.
- Assistive technologies for individuals with speech impairments due to neuro-biological disorders such as Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), where *physical movement is impaired* but *cognitive function remains intact* [1].

Conclusion

Summary

- Explored Information set theory techniques to extract rich spatio-temporal features from EEG signals for imagined speech classification.
- Utilized features that significantly **reduce the dataset size** for training, while maintaining classification performance.
- Addressed the challenge of effectively utilising all information present in EEG signals without increasing computational complexity.

Conclusion

Future scope

Future scope of work

- Collecting more data
 EMOTIV EPOC+ headset
- Deep Learning models
 - Evaluating the effectiveness of the IFS features
 - Possible with more data
 - Transfer Learning
- More tasks
 - Inter-subject variability
 - Inter-session variability
- Multi-class classification
 - Possible with more data
 - Each phoneme is a class

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