

# Guess the Number - Applying a Simple Brain-Computer Interface to School-age Children

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**Abstract:** Although research into brain-computer interfaces is more common in recent years, studies concerning large groups of specific subjects are still lacking. This paper describes a simple brain-computer interface (BCI) experiment that was performed on a group of over 200 school-age children using the technique and methods of event related potentials. In the first phase, experimental data were recorded in various elementary and secondary schools, mainly in the Pilsen region of the Czech Republic. The task was to guess the number between 1 and 9 that the measured subject thinks on. Concurrently, a human expert made a decision about the target number based on averaged P300 waveforms observed on-line. In the second phase, an application for automatic classification was developed for off-line data. A small subset of the data was used for training; the rest of the data was used to evaluate the accuracy of classification. Two feature extraction methods were compared; subsampling and discrete wavelet transform for feature extraction. Multi-layer perceptron was used for classification. The human expert achieved the accuracy of 67.6%, while some of the automatic algorithms were able to significantly outperform the expert; the maximum classification accuracy reached 77.2%.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Recent advances in cognitive neuroscience and brain imaging techniques have started to provide us with the ability to interface directly with the human brain. In brain-computer interfaces (BCIs), instead of using the brain's normal output pathways, users explicitly try to manipulate their brain activity to produce signals that can be used to control computers. Any BCI has input (e.g. electrophysiological activity from the user), output (i.e. device commands), components that translate input into output, and a protocol that determines the operations. The electroencephalographic signal is widely used in BCI systems as input because of low cost of the device and simple use. This signal is acquired by electrodes on the scalp and processed to extract specific signal features (e.g. amplitudes of evoked potentials) that reflect the decision of the user. These features are translated into commands that operate a device (e.g. a simple word processing program). The user must follow the protocol of the BCI system and maintain attention of focus. Then the BCI system must select and extract features that the user can control and must translate those features into de-

vice commands correctly and efficiently. (McFarland and Wolpaw, 2011)

The technique of event-related potentials (ERPs) uses the electroencephalographic signal enriched by markers denoting the time points of brain stimulation precisely synchronized to the brain activity. The P300 (depicted in Fig. 1) waveform is a cognitive event-related potential with a positive low amplitude. It is usually obtained with the oddball paradigm, which is based on random occurrence of rare (target) stimuli in sequence of frequent (non-target) stimuli. Because of the fact that the P300 is a cognitive reaction to outside events, many brain-computer interfaces are based on the P300 detection. However, the detection of the P300 is challenging because the P300 component is usually hidden in the underlying EEG signal. (Luck, 2005)

Many papers report different approaches for the P300 BCIs, however, it is difficult to compare them directly because they use data recorded from different laboratories and different subjects. Furthermore, various paradigms that differ in many parameters, including inter-stimulus intervals and number of trials averaged, are used. However, there is a benchmark

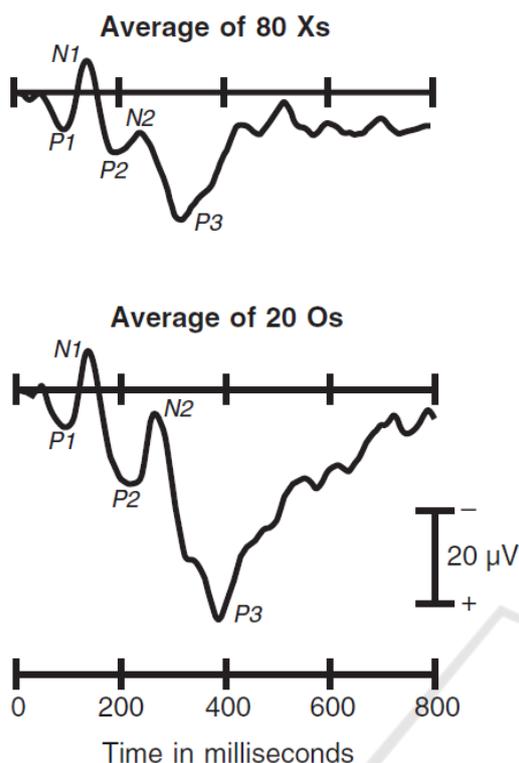


Figure 1: Comparison of averaged EEG responses to non-target stimuli (Xs) and target stimuli (Os). There is a clear P300 component following the Os stimuli. Negative is plotted upward (Luck, 2005).

P300 speller dataset from the BCI Competition 2003 (Blankertz et al., 2004) and some papers report results achieved on this dataset. Several approaches were able to reach 100% accuracy using only 4-8 averaged trials on the BCI Competition 2003 data (Cashero, 2012). To the best knowledge of the authors of this paper, the BCI Competition 2003 datasets as well as other datasets used in P300 BCI publications are relatively small or not publicly available.

The aim of this paper is to propose a simple BCI and to compare different P300 detection techniques by testing them on a large dataset containing more than 200 records from school-age children. The data and metadata used in this article are freely available on the EEG/ERP portal in the package named “PROJECT DAYS P3 NUMBERS” (Moucek and Jezek, 2009). A “guess the number” experiment was used for this purpose. The goal of the experiment is to figure out the number chosen by a subject. Typically, different classification methods in BCI are evaluated and compared in terms of classification accuracy. Furthermore, because the numbers were also guessed by an expert in the field, a unique opportunity arises to compare both accuracies.

## 2 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The guess the number experiment was originally developed to demonstrate the benefits of using BCI to public. The experiment is based on visual stimulation. The subject is asked to secretly choose a number between 1 and 9 and to concentrate on this number (i.e. the target stimulus). The subject told the experimenters the number they were thinking of at the end of the experiment.

### 2.1 Environment

The experiments were conducted in elementary and secondary schools mainly in the Pilsen region, the Czech Republic between autumn 2014 and spring 2015. The measurements were taken at the time of regular school hours, typically in the morning. Each experiment was performed in a classroom that was dedicated for health entertaining and educating programme, also including Neurosky brain games, ECG monitoring, modeling of body muscles, etc. Unfortunately, the environment was usually quite noisy since many children were in the room at the same time.

### 2.2 Stimulation Protocol

The participants were stimulated with numbers flashing on the monitor in random order. The interstimulus interval was 1500 ms. The flashing number were white on the black background as shown in Figure 2. The subjects were sitting approximately 1 m from the monitor for as long as needed (approximately 10 minutes on average, stopped when the experimenters were convinced that they are able to guess the number thought). They were asked to sit comfortably, pay attention to the stimulation, not to move, and to limit their eye blinking. To increase alertness, the subjects were instructed to silently count the occurrences of target stimuli.

### 2.3 Hardware and Software

The mobile EEG laboratory was used. It was necessary to have equipment that was easy to unpack, install, and pack. Consequently, the following hardware devices were used: a standard small or medium 10/20 EEG cap, the BrainVision standard V-Amp amplifier, standard electrodes, electro gel, conductive paste, and degreasing gel. To speed up the guessing task, only three electrodes were active: Fz, Cz, and Pz. These electrodes are significant for the P300 detection (Luck, 2005).



Figure 2: Numbers 1 - 9 were randomly shown on the monitor.

## 2.4 Measured Subjects

Most subjects were school-age children (average age 13.2): 135 males and 104 females. The total number of subjects of different age with their gender distribution is shown in Figure 3.

## 3 GUESS THE NUMBER - APPLICATION FOR ON-LINE AND OFF-LINE BCI CLASSIFICATION

An application for analysis of the experiments previously described was developed. It is a desktop application written in Java language using Swing for its graphical user interface (a screenshot is shown in Figure 4). The purpose of this application is to enable off-line (experimental data are collected and analyzed after an experiment is performed) and on-line (data are streamed into the application during an experiment) classification. Off-line classification allows users to test preprocessing, feature extraction, and classification algorithms. Subsequently, suitable combinations can be selected for on-line classification.

## 4 PATTERN RECOGNITION

Traditional pattern recognition was used: feature extraction was followed by classification. Two commonly used methods for feature extraction, band-pass filtering with subsampling of the feature vector and discrete wavelet transform, were tested. In both cases, data from three EEG channels were included. A multi-layer perceptron was used for classification.

The workflow of pattern recognition is shown in Figure 5.

### 4.1 Preprocessing and Feature Extraction

The raw input data were measured with the sampling frequency of 1 kHz. However, continuous EEG (without synchronization marks) is not suitable for ERP detection. Therefore, the data were split into epochs. Each epoch started 100 ms before the stimulus and ended 750 ms after the stimulus. The pre-stimulus interval was used only to correct the baseline (by subtracting the mean in the pre-stimulus interval from the whole epoch). Subsequently, the reduction of dimensionality was needed.

The input for further feature extraction methods involves only a part of each epoch because the P300 component can occur only in a specific interval after a stimulus. The number of samples in each epoch (see Table 1) was skipped (referred to as Skip samples). The next 512 samples (suitable for DWT and related to the area of occurrence of the P300 component) were selected for feature extraction. Subsequently, subsampling or discrete wavelet transform (DWT) was used to reduce input data dimension and extract features. The subsampling method reduces data dimension by a given subsampling factor; this was set to 32. Before skipping out samples, in half of the classification experiments, high (16 Hz and higher) and low (0.4 Hz and lower) frequencies were filtered from baseline corrected epochs using Chebyshev 1 IIR filter (Chebyshev filters minimize the error between the idealized and the actual filter characteristic). Subsampled epochs were stored into 1-dimensional feature vector  $f$ . The second method used for feature extraction was DWT since the method was successfully used for P300 processing (Quiroga and Garcia, 2003). The basic idea of wavelet transform is to decompose the input signal into a set of basis functions called wavelets (Letelier and Weber, 2000). This is done by scaling and dilatation of a prototype wavelet called the mother wavelet by the following equation:

$$\Psi_{a,b}(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \Psi\left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right)$$

where  $\psi$  is the analyzing wavelet,  $a$  is the scaling factor, and  $b$  is the time shift. In DWT the dilated and translated version of the wavelet function performs a high-pass and low-pass filtering respectively. Hence the convolution of the original signal with the high-pass filter produces the Detail coefficients. Similarly, approximation coefficients are computed by a convolution of the signal with a low-pass filter. (Markazi et al., 2006)

Daubechies 8 mother wavelet was used to ex-

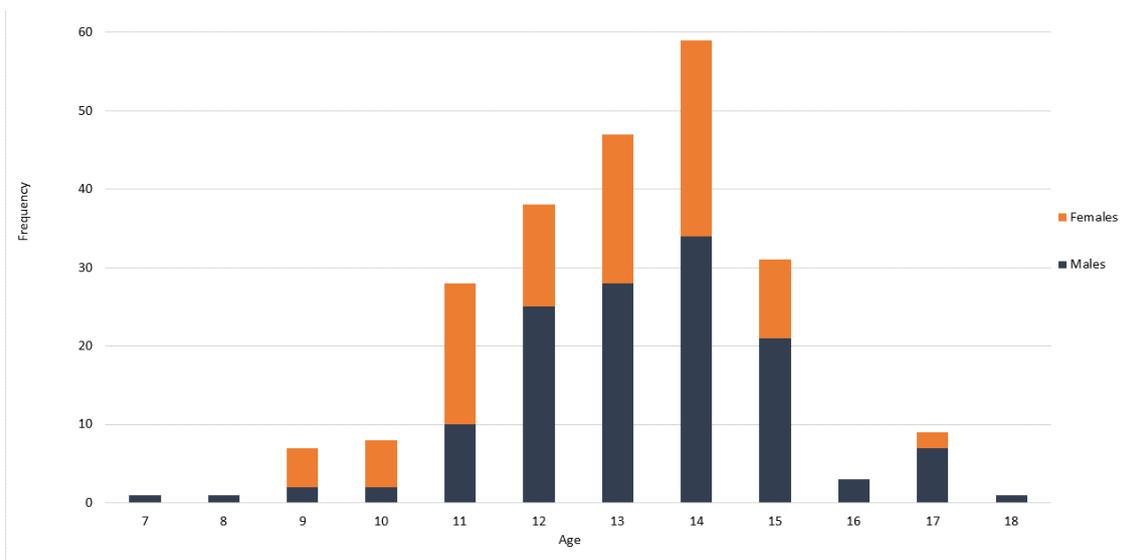


Figure 3: The total number of subjects of different age with their gender distribution.

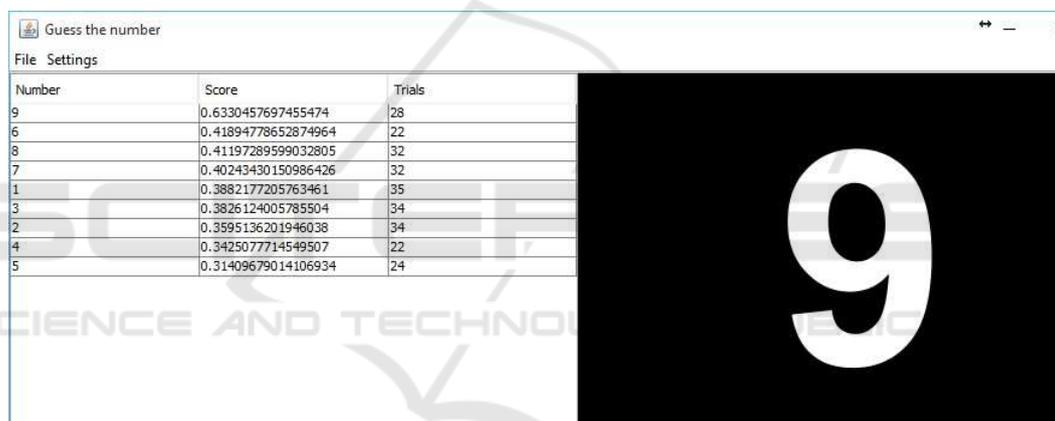


Figure 4: Front end of the Guess the number application after successful classification. The left column represents the stimulus, the stimulus average score is in the center column and the last column represents the number of epochs for each stimulus. Rows are descendingly ordered by the stimulus score. The higher the score the more likely the stimulus number is the number thought. The stimulus with the highest score is displayed in the right panel.

tract features from the input signal. The Daubechies wavelets have been recently used for EEG signal processing (Rafiee et al., 2011). After DWT is performed, 16 approximation coefficients of level 5 for each channel is stored in 1-dimensional array  $f$  and used for classification. Figure 6 shows how DWT coefficients are obtained from input data.

Each DWT coefficient or output sample of the subsampling method  $f_i$  is then normalized by the following formula:

$$f_i = f_i * \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} f_i^2}$$

where  $m$  is the size of the feature vector. Figure 7 shows the structure of the feature vector.

## 4.2 Classification

A multi-layer perceptron (MLP) was used for classification. The number of input neurons corresponded to the dimension of the feature vector (it means 48). The number of neurons in the middle layer was empirically optimized to eight. One output neuron was taughted to classify input patterns into two classes (0 - non-target, 1 - target).

### 4.2.1 Training

The first idea was to use the data from three-stimulus pattern that is another odd-ball paradigm (Vareka et al., 2014). Only the epochs containing a small percentage of artifacts and significant P300 components

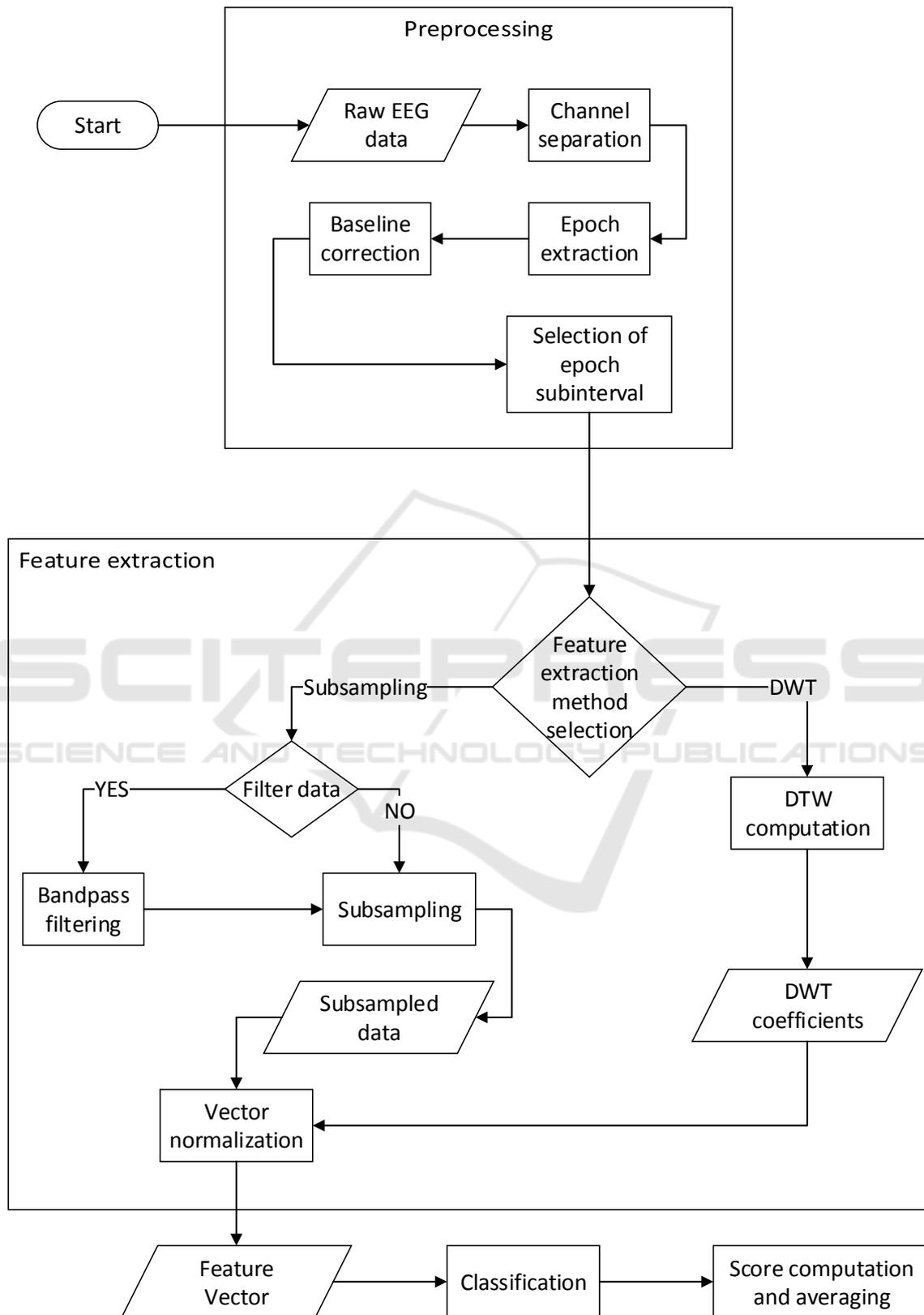


Figure 5: Diagram of EEG signal processing, feature extraction and classification.

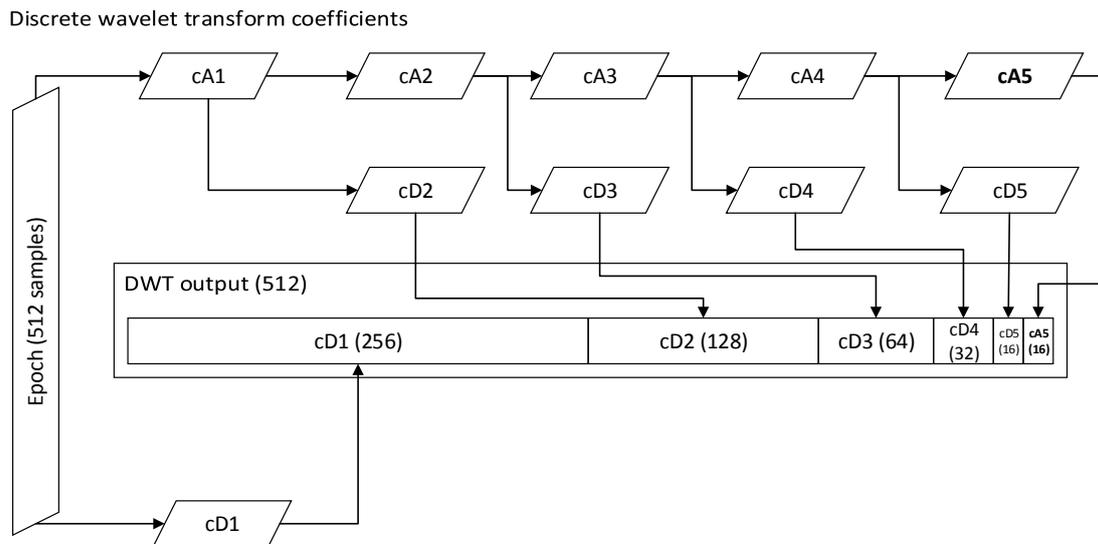


Figure 6: Discrete wavelet transform coefficients. Input EEG signal has 512 samples. The number of coefficients obtained by DWT is in brackets. 5-level DWT was performed. cA1 - cA5 represent approximation coefficients of different levels, cD1-cD5 represent detail coefficients. Bold marked (cA5) coefficients form the feature vector.

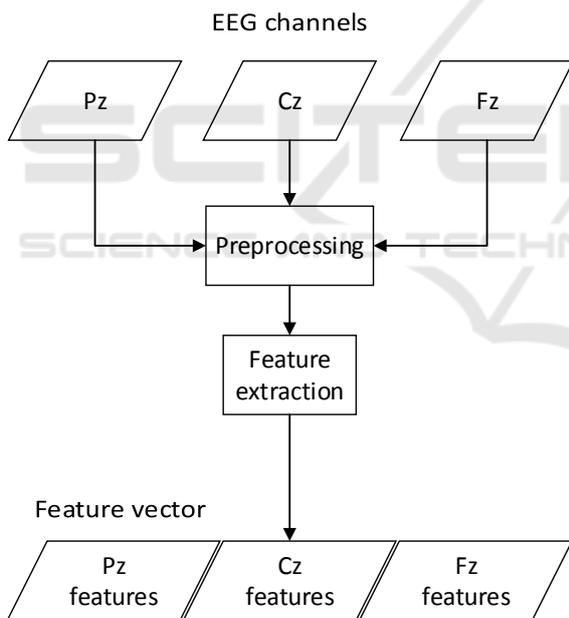


Figure 7: Feature vector.

were added to the training set. Surprisingly, the accuracy on the testing set was below 50% with these training data, the reasons require further investigation. It seems, however, that differences in the latencies between three-stimulus datasets and datasets described in this paper may explain this to some extent.

Instead, the training set containing 13 datasets was selected from the guess the number data (255 target epochs and 255 non-target epochs were used in total) according to the following procedure. First, the data

were split into several groups using visual inspection: high impedance at scalp electrodes (8 datasets<sup>1</sup>), severely distorted by high frequency (12 datasets), moderately distorted by high frequency (30 datasets), clean (107 datasets), damaged by biological artifacts (82 datasets), and missing metadata (5 datasets - not included in the statistics). From the group containing clean data, 13 datasets (more precisely all target epochs and the same number of randomly selected non-target epochs from 13 datasets) formed the training set.

Before the training phase, the weights of the neural network were randomized. The feature vectors were shuffled to mix target and non-target patterns. For training, backpropagation was used. 20% of the training features (derived from epochs) were used as a validation set. The training was stopped when the accuracy peaked on the validation set.

#### 4.2.2 Testing

The testing set was formed by excluding the datasets with high impedance, severely distorted datasets, and datasets with missing metadata. Then the testing set contains 206 datasets in total. The testing set is used for testing the multi-layer perceptron (MLP) when the training phase is finished. The MLP receives an epoch and its expected classification class (target, non-target). The MLP calculates a score in range between 0 and 1. The higher score the more likely the

<sup>1</sup>dataset means all the data from one measured subject

epoch belongs to the target number. Scores to each number are summed. At the end of the classification of each number, all scores are averaged. The number with the highest averaged score is the winner.

## 5 RESULTS

Table 1 shows average and maximum classification accuracy of Subsampling and DWT feature extraction methods with different settings of preprocessing. The classification accuracy of the MLP classifier highly depends on the initial settings of weights and it may differ in each trial (the whole testing set is used). Furthermore, since 20% randomly selected epochs were excluded from the training set for validation, the training set was different for each training phase. We averaged at least 50 trials (classifications) for each feature extraction settings to get average classification accuracy.

### 5.1 Comparison with Human Expert Classification

All the data from the testing sample were evaluated by a human expert with neuroinformatics background - 67.61% accuracy was achieved. The expert observed epochs as they were gradually averaged for each stimulus (guessed number) in the BrainVision Recorder (BrainProducts, 2012) software and searched for the most likely target. Each experiment ended either when the expert was convinced about the number guessed or was unable to make the decision. As it can be seen in Table 1, some of the developed classification algorithms were able to outperform the expert.

## 6 DISCUSSION

The parameter settings affected the resulting accuracy. For example, the selected time intervals need to be in the time domain in which the P300 component is expected. The latency of the P300 varied greatly - it was typically around 450 ms but for some subjects, it was 700 ms. Consequently, increasing the skipped samples was associated with higher accuracy. As Table 1 shows, the best results were achieved for skipped samples between 150 and 200.

Filtering does not seem to lead to higher classification accuracy. This could be caused by a fact that filtering distorts the signal and could damage some significant features. Neural network seems to be able to ignore irrelevant frequencies by itself.

In all cases, the empirically set dimensionality of feature vectors was 48 (16 features for each channel). Both higher and lower dimensionality did not improve classification accuracy.

## 7 CONCLUSION

We proposed a BCI system based on visual stimulation; the system was adjusted to school-aged children. The aim of this BCI is to detect the P300 component in the EEG signal and decide which number the subject thinks on. The overall dataset consists of 239 measurements from different subjects with average age 13.2. The training set is formed from 13 datasets and testing set contains 206 datasets. The rest of the collected data were excluded because the signal was highly damaged. For feature extraction we used subsampling and DWT feature extraction methods that we tested with different settings. The selection of the optimal epoch subinterval has a high effect on classification accuracy (increased by up to 13.8%) while the band-pass filtering has not. Using the multi-layer perceptron classifier and feature extraction method, 68.9% average and 77.2% maximum classification accuracy was achieved. The classification accuracy of human expert is 67.6%. It means that in comparison with human we achieved approximately 1.3% better average and 9.6% maximum classification accuracy. Our next step will be implementation, testing and comparison of more classifiers (e.g. SVM, LDA, deep learning) and feature extraction methods (more mother wavelets, HHT, matching pursuit). We want to determine which combination of a feature extraction method and classifier is the best solution for BCI systems based on P300 component detection having school-aged children as measured subjects. We will also test artifact rejection methods which can further improve classification accuracy.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Table 1: Classification accuracy obtained for different parameter settings.

| Feature Extraction method settings    |              |                       | Classification   |  |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|--|--|
| Name                                  | Skip samples | Band-pass filter [Hz] | Average classification accuracy $\pm$ standard deviation [%] | Maximum classification accuracy $\pm$ standard deviation [%] |
| Human                                 | -            | -                     | -  | 67.61 $\pm$ 3.26   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 0            | 0.4 - 16              | 56.69 $\pm$ 3.45   | 69.41 $\pm$ 3.21   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 0            | -                     | 55.14 $\pm$ 3.46   | 66.5 $\pm$ 3.29  |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 100          | 0.4 - 16              | 63.4 $\pm$ 3.36  | 72.33 $\pm$ 3.12   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 100          | -                     | 58.82 $\pm$ 3.43   | 74.27 $\pm$ 3.05   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 150          | 0.4 - 16              | 67.66 $\pm$ 3.26   | 74.75 $\pm$ 3.03   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 150          | -                     | 67.74 $\pm$ 3.26   | 75.72 $\pm$ 2.99   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 175          | 0.4 - 16              | 64.59 $\pm$ 3.33   | 73.78 $\pm$ 3.06   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 175          | -                     | 68.62 $\pm$ 3.23   | 73.78 $\pm$ 3.06   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 200          | 0.4 - 16              | 68.24 $\pm$ 3.24   | 75.72 $\pm$ 2.99   |
| Subsampling (down sampling factor 32) | 200          | -                     | 68.89 $\pm$ 3.23   | 77.18 $\pm$ 2.92   |
| DWT (Daubechies 8)                    | 0            | -                     | 56.87 $\pm$ 3.45   | 70.39 $\pm$ 3.18   |
| DWT (Daubechies 8)                    | 100          | -                     | 63.46 $\pm$ 3.36   | 74.75 $\pm$ 3.03   |
| DWT (Daubechies 8)                    | 175          | -                     | 68.94 $\pm$ 3.22   | 76.7 $\pm$ 2.95  |
| DWT (Daubechies 8)                    | 200          | -                     | 66.82 $\pm$ 3.28   | 74.76 $\pm$ 3.03   |

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