Explainable Artificial Intelligence for Mental Health through Transparency and Interpretability for Understandability (Supplementary Information)

Dan W Joyce^{*,1,3}, Andrey Kormilitzin¹, Katharine Smith¹ and Andrea Cipriani^{1,2}

 ¹University of Oxford, Department of Psychiatry, Warneford Hospital, Oxford, United Kingdom, OX3 7JX
 ²Oxford Precision Psychiatry Lab, NIHR Oxford Health Biomedical Research Centre, Warneford Hospital, Oxford, United Kingdom, OX3 7JX
 ³Institute of Population Health, Department of Primary Care and

Mental Health, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, L69 3GF *Corresponding author; email: danjoyce@liverpool.ac.uk

¹ Search Method

For the literature reviewed in Table 1: Data were extracted from PubMed / Med-2 Line using the search: (explaina*) AND ("artificial intelligence" OR "machine 3 learning") AND ("mental health" OR "psychiatry") in the title and abstract fields. 4 The date range was 1st January 2018 through 12th April 2022 and extracted on 5 the latter date. The search delivered 32 papers, of which 7 were excluded as they 6 addressed applications in 1) surgical mortality 2) an editorial preface to a special is-7 sue 3) psychophysics of visual perception 4) inflammatory processes in osteoarthritis 5) 8 polypharmacy (only tangentially linked to psychiatry) 6) quantifying altered states of 9 consciouness and 7) feature set selection in osteoarthritis. 10

The full-text of the remaining 25 papers were reviewed and the 15 which presented original research retained.

13 Literature Summary

¹⁴ For papers reporting original research, we assessed the following properties:

the broad domain addressed in the research: most studies were on survey or neuroimaging data, with one examining physiological data

- the intended application (i.e. AI for prediction/forecasting, discovery or decision
 making/decision support): finding that most studies contained a prediction and
 discovery component
- what AI/ML methods were used: in most survey-based papers, multiple methods
 were compared especially in applications where prediction performance was tested
 and in neuroimaging, deep learning methods dominated
- which XAI methods were used: we grouped these into feature importance, explainability "by design", causal inference and presentation/visualisation methods

25

finding that feature importance methods dominated across applications

whether the research evaluated the claimed "explainability": finding that in papers
 using survey data, evaluation was more commonly reported

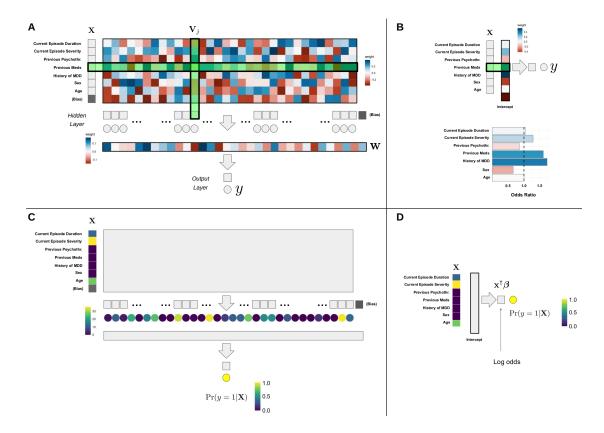
• whether the research deferred "explainability" to the technical method used: finding that half of survey data-based applications deferred to the method; in papers
that did not define explainability in their application, they always deferred to the
method used (e.g. in all of the neuroimaging studies)

Of note, we did not rate the quality of definitions (i.e. whether or not they were detailed or precise) – rather, we examined if the paper made any attempt to define terms such as "explainability" beyond stating that it was merely important or necessary.

A Tutorial Example of Structure and Function

To motivate our discussion of structure and function in the TIFU framework, we in-36 troduce a simple toy example of recommending whether or not a patient should receive 37 antidepressant medication based on seven predictor variables; the patient's age, natal 38 sex, history of previous major depressive episodes, previous treatment with medication 39 and/or psychotherapy as well as the current episode severity and duration in weeks. We 40 simulated 3759 patients where the decision to offer medication was a non-linear function 41 of the seven predictor variables and divided this into a training and testing set of 2643 42 and 1116 samples respectively. 43

44



Supplementary Figure 1: Structure and Function in a Toy Model to Predict Antidepressant Prescribing from Clinical Characteristics: (A) The structure of a simple neural network consisting of a 7-node input layer fully (densely) connected to a 32-node hidden layer, fully connected to a single output node. Grey squares indicate computations over the preceeding layer's outputs; grey circles represent (usually non-linear) operations or activation functions. (B) the structure of an equivalent logistic regression model for the same problem presented using the same description of weights (parameters) and operations (weighted linear sums and activation functions). (C) The function of the neural network showing an example patient and the pattern of activations as computations proceed ("feedforward") from the input to output layer via the hidden layer. (D) The same example patient being "fed-forward" in the logistic regression model

45	In Supplementary Figure 1, we show the structure of a feedforward neural network
46	model (panel A) with 7 inputs nodes, each corresponding directly to one of seven pre-

dictor variables. We perform no feature engineering on this data so that the inputs to 47 the model directly correspond to the clinical variables used to make predictions. In this 48 feed-forward network, the layer of input nodes therefore have *activations* identical to the 49 values of the inputs (denoted by the column vector \mathbf{x}). This input layer is densely (fully) 50 connected to 32 hidden nodes by a matrix of adjustable weights V (or parameters) shown 51 as the rectangular red/blue coloured matrix; this is to enable the hidden layer to capture 52 interactions or more precisely, representations of the input as linear weighted sums the 53 input variables. The outputs of the hidden nodes are then transformed through another 54 vector of weights \mathbf{w} which transform the outputs of the hidden layer to a single output 55 node y whose output is proportional to the probability of offering (or not) antidepressant 56 medication (y = 1 or 0 respectively).57

The function of the network can be visualised as a pattern of activations propogating 58 through the network (panel C) as follows; each input node has activation identical to the 59 values of the predictor (input) variables – shown as the coloured squares for an example 60 patient at the left of panel C. This example patient has the following characteristics 61 (corresponding to the visual representation in panels C and D): they are a 46 year old 62 female, with no previous history of MDD, medication or psychotherapy treatment and 63 with a MADRS score of 60 and episode duration of 20 weeks. The logistic regression 64 model and the neural network recommend antidepressant medication with probability 65 $\Pr(y=1|\mathbf{x}) = 0.99.$ 66

These activations feed-forward to the hidden layer where each node computes a net input (shown as grey squares) as a weighted sum $a_j = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{V}_j$ where \mathbf{V}_j is the column vector (e.g. the vertical green bar in panel A) of the weights connecting the hidden node j to every input node i. Conversely, this means the effect of an isolated input node i is "distributed" over all hidden nodes – illustrated by the horizontal green bar in panel A. Next, each hidden node computes it's activations by taking the net input a_j and delivering an output through a rectified linear activation (ReLU) function $f(a_j) =$

 $\max(0, a_i)$ – represented in panel C as the row of coloured circles. ReLU hidden nodes 74 effectively "switch off" hidden nodes where the net input a_i falls below a threshold which 75 by convention, is modelled using a so-called bias node that can be viewed as similar to 76 the intercept in a traditional linear regression model. Finally, the output layer has only 77 a single node that, similarly, computes a linear weighted sum of inputs (i.e. the outputs 78 of the hidden layer): $b = \mathbf{fw}^{\intercal}$ (this operation is again shown as a grey square) where \mathbf{f} is 79 the row vector of 33 hidden-layer node outputs (32 hidden nodes plus a single bias node) 80 and \mathbf{w} is a row vector of weights connecting every hidden node to the output y. Instead 81 of a ReLU function, however, the output node y computes a sigmoid (logistic) function 82 of it's inputs resulting in $y = g(\mathbf{f}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\mathbf{f})}$ which approximates the probability 83 that a patient (\mathbf{x}) is recommended a prescription for antidepressant treatment. For 84 completeness, the weights \mathbf{V} and \mathbf{w} were estimated using stochastic gradient descent. 85 Note that the final output of the network, y, can be written compactly as a sequence 86 of function compositions: $y = g(f(\mathbf{x}))$ or equivalently $y = g \circ f$, emphasising that the 87 output depends on the input passing through one layer of computations (f) which feed 88 into the second layer (g) to arrive at the output (y). The "deeper" the network, the 89 more function compositions are involved. 90

Contrast with a logistic regression model shown in panel B; here, we have adopted the 91 same diagrammatic convention of showing the structure as weights (commonly referred 92 to as "betas" or the coefficients of the model) and computations (panel D) where the 93 input x is multiplied by the weights β (grey square) and then transformed via a sigmoid 94 or logistic function (grey circle) to arrive at an output proportional to the probability 95 of recommending an antidepressant. In essence, logistic regression can be viewed as a 96 trivially-simple neural network without hidden layers, where the input layer is densely 97 and directly connected to the output node. The weights/parameters are estimated using 98 an iteratively re-weighted least squares algorithm. The output of the logistic regression 99 is a single function of the input: $y = g(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\beta)}$ 100

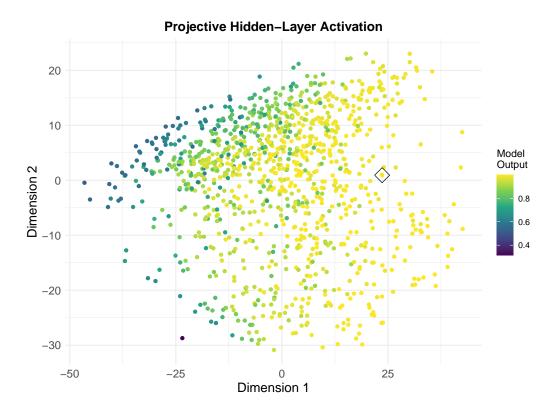
Both models provide the same behaviour when seen as a "black box" – that is, mod-101 elling the probability of recommending an antidepressant given a patient's characteristics 102 but they achieve this through differing model structure (architecture) and functions 103 (computations). Relevant to the TIFU concept, the neural network allows for more 104 flexible representations by virtue of the input activations being "distributed" over the 105 hidden layer nodes. The logistic regression model can only account for weighted linear 106 sums of the seven input variables - meaning that there are no modelled interactions 107 between variables. 108

To understand how the neural network arrives at an output, we must recognise the output (y) results from two function compositions of multivariate inputs, neither of which have *prima-facie* transparency with respect to the input **X** or outputs y and $\Pr(y = 1 | \mathbf{X})$.

Contrast with the logistic regression model (panel B) where the weights/parameters 113 (structure) possess a well-developed formal relationship to the predictor variables i.e. 114 exponentiating the weights yields the direct **interpretation** of each predictor variable 115 having an associated odds ratio. Similarly, the function of the logistic regression model 116 can be easily interpreted – the weighted sum $\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ (computed by the grey square in 117 panel D) is the log odds or probability of y = 1 on the logit scale [1]. The computation 118 performed over the weighted sum (the grey circle in panel B and C) is the logistic function 119 which maps log odds to the probability scale resulting in $\Pr(y=1|\mathbf{X})$. In the logistic 120 regression model, we retain the inputs-to-model structure (odds ratios) and function 121 (the effect on $\Pr(y=1|\mathbf{X})$ of selectively modifying one or more inputs holding all others 122 constant) offering interpretablility by design. 123

124

¹²⁵ Supplementary Figure 2 shows that we can qualitatively visualise the outputs of the ¹²⁶ hidden layer $f(\cdot)$ in an attempt to provide interpretability of the function of the model



Supplementary Figure 2: Two-dimensional projection (by metric multidimensional scaling) of the activations of the 32 hidden layer nodes (**f**) induced by each of 1116 patients, where the colour represents the model's output, $\Pr(y = 1 | \mathbf{x})$. The black diamond shows the location corresponding to the example patient from Supplementary Figure 1

with respect to the outputs. We use metric multidimensional scaling [2] to "project" 127 the native 32 dimensional space of activations into two, unitless dimensions that stand 128 in correspondence to the inputs in a non-trivial way; for example, the patient from 129 Supplementary Figure 1 is a 46 year old female with no treatment or depression his-130 tory presenting with severe symptoms of duration 20 weeks and the location in this 131 dimensionality-reduced space of activations is shown with a black diamond. There is no 132 straight-forward way of directly mapping these input variables to the two-dimensional 133 space of activations in a way that would be transparent or interpretable. Further, at 134 least as we present here, the presentation of this information does not help us with ab-135

¹³⁶ ductive (or inductive) reasoning about why this recommendation was made. While the
¹³⁷ projection shows some qualitative pattern in relation to the probability of being recom¹³⁸ mended an antidepressant medication, it is far from clear how to *use* this to aid human
¹³⁹ interpretation.

In summary, the model becomes further removed from *prima facie* interpretability 140 as a consequence of the structure (architecture of the model) and function (i.e. corre-141 sponding to the depth or number of function compositions). We should note two further 142 points: i) that the example "toy" neural network presented is substantially less complex 143 compared to a typical application of deep learning in contemporary AI/ML and ii) with 144 some knowledge of linear algebra, we could describe a systematic relationship between 145 the inputs and hidden-layer nodes' net inputs (structure and function), but this is com-146 plicated by there being a non-linear function $f(\cdot)$ and this is unlikely to be available to 147 a clinician or patient using such a model. 148

Given this, we have *post-hoc* methods such as LIME [3]¹ and Shapley-based methods [4] which both anchor the concept of "explainability" to perturbation of inputs to a model and observing changes in the output – analogous to classical linear regression, where we understand the concept of a change in the dependent variable for a unit-change in an independent variable.

To conclude this section, we define what we mean by transparency – using the 154 same examples, both the neural network and the logistic regression models are equiv-155 alently **transparent** because the relationship between \mathbf{x} and the data the network is 156 "ingesting" is straight-forward; that is, there is no pre-processing or feature engineer-157 ing/selection and we can assert that the activations of the input layer are identical to 158 the data. We deem this to be an important property of the TIFU framework because if a 159 model requires sophisticated pre-processing – for example, dimensionality reduction via 160 principle components analysis with subsequent projection of each sample or input to the 161

¹Of note, [3] do emphasise the concept of interpretability that we advocate for here

dimensionality-reduced feature space – clinicians will require further tools to understand how the data (representing patients in units of the original measurement scale) relates to the feature space the model operates on. It is not the case that pre-processing inputs to a model *precludes* transparency, rather, the engineering and presentation of the model must account for this transforming of inputs to a feature space so clinicians and patients can interrogate relationships.

¹⁶⁸ Supplementary References

- [1] A. Gelman, J. Hill, and A. Vehtari, *Regression and other stories*. Cambridge University Press, 2020.
- ¹⁷¹ [2] J. C. Gower, "Some distance properties of latent root and vector methods used in ¹⁷² multivariate analysis," *Biometrika*, vol. 53, no. 3-4, pp. 325–338, 1966.
- [3] M. T. Ribeiro, S. Singh, and C. Guestrin, "" why should i trust you?" explaining the
 predictions of any classifier," in *Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD international conference on knowledge discovery and data mining*, pp. 1135–1144, 2016.
- 176 [4] S. Lipovetsky and M. Conklin, "Analysis of regression in game theory approach,"
- Applied Stochastic Models in Business and Industry, vol. 17, no. 4, pp. 319–330,
- 178 2001.