

A Transformer-Based Approach to Diagnose Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis via Electroencephalogram Analysis

Soham Jain

Computer Systems Lab

Thomas Jefferson High School

for Science and Technology

Alexandria, United States

2025sjain1@tjhsst.edu

Abstract—Neurodegenerative disorders are the leading cause of physical disability worldwide. In particular, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is one such condition that significantly impacts the quality of life for millions by impairing nerve cell function in the central nervous system. Despite extensive research, ALS remains difficult to diagnose in its early stages and the exact cause is largely unknown, with contemporary methods taking up to 15 months for a definitive diagnosis. Electroencephalogram (EEG) analysis, a non-invasive method for recording brain electrical activity, has shown promise in identifying subtle neural changes associated with neurodegenerative disorders. Transformers, known for their ability to capture complex data dependencies, offer a novel framework for analyzing EEG signals with high temporal resolution. This study introduces a Transformer-based approach to diagnose ALS by leveraging the EEG and eye-tracking dataset of ALS patients (EEGET-ALS), comprising a total of 1,989 recordings. The model achieved exceptional accuracies of 98.49% in training and 99.33% in both validation and testing. Furthermore, with an area under the curve (AUC) of 0.9963, precision of 100.0%, and recall of 96.36% in testing, the model demonstrates promise in enhancing the accuracy and timeliness of ALS diagnosis with a low rate of false positives and false negatives. Overall, this approach represents a significant advancement in the field of neurodegenerative disease diagnosis, potentially improving patient outcomes and quality of life through a two-minute recording.

Keywords—Transformer, ALS, EEG, machine learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, also known as ALS or Lou Gehrig’s disease, is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder that impairs the function of nerve cells in the spinal cord and brain. According to the CDC [1], this gradual deterioration and death of motor neurons leads to significant muscle weakness, atrophy, and, ultimately, complete loss of voluntary movement. As the disease progresses, individuals may experience severe disability, requiring assistance with daily activities and relying on ventilatory support.

Despite significant research efforts, the exact cause of ALS remains largely unknown and difficult to identify in the early stages. In fact, the ALS Association [2] quantifies that only 5% to 10% of all cases are linked to family history. On the

other hand, over 90% of individuals diagnosed with ALS have no genetic mutation linked to the condition. Not only are the causes of ALS elusive, but also diagnosing the disorder is lengthy and complicated. A study by Pagnoni et al. [3], consisting of 304 individuals with ALS, found that each patient saw an average of three physicians before their condition was confirmed. Additionally, the researchers accentuate that total diagnostic time ranged from 8 to 15 months, prolonging the period of uncertainty and leading to potential delay in treatment.

The challenges in diagnosing ALS are compounded by the limitations of current diagnostic practices. According to the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke [4], there is no single measure or test that can definitely diagnose ALS. Furthermore, in the status quo, medical diagnosis of the condition often involves a subjective evaluation of the patient done at the discretion of a physician, according to another article from the ALS Association [5]. Contemporary measures that primarily rely on a patient’s health history to diagnose the disorder are ineffective. University of Michigan Health [6] also emphasizes that diagnosing ALS can be particularly challenging because many neurologic diseases cause similar symptoms, necessitating a battery of tests to exclude other conditions. Hence, there is an inherent need for an accurate tool to enable early detection and intervention of ALS.

In recent years, advancements in machine learning and artificial intelligence have opened new opportunities for improving diagnostic accuracy and efficiency. According to a 2021 study by Dukic et al. [7], EEG analysis, a non-invasive method for recording electrical activity in the brain, has shown promise in capturing subtle neural changes associated with ALS. However, the integration of machine learning techniques into EEG analysis for ALS remains underexplored.

This paper introduces a Transformer-based approach to diagnose ALS via EEG analysis. Transformers, known for their ability to capture complex dependencies and patterns in data, offer a novel framework for analyzing EEG signals with high temporal resolution and sensitivity [8]. By leveraging

C. Model Architecture

The model constructed for this study is a Transformer-based neural network designed for binary classification. The model architecture is depicted in Fig. 2. It begins with an input layer designed to accept sequences of shape (32, 120 × 128). Next, the model employs three Transformer layers, each featuring multi-head attention with 4 heads and a key dimension of 64. After each multi-head attention operation, the output is normalized using layer normalization with an epsilon of 10⁻⁶ to ensure numerical stability. These outputs are then passed through dense layers with ReLU activations, increasing in size from 64 to 128 to 256 neurons in successive layers.

Following the Transformer layers, the model flattens the output and includes additional dense layers with ReLU activations, progressively reducing the dimensionality to 64 and then 32 neurons, before applying batch normalization. The final output layer is a dense layer with a sigmoid activation function, as the model is designed for binary classification tasks.

D. Training

A random split of 70% for training data, 15% for validation data, and 15% for testing data was applied to the dataset comprising 1,989 samples using the custom `generate_train_test_val_splits` method. Each subset was then batched with a size of 16 for efficient training and evaluation. A learning rate scheduler, `ReduceLROnPlateau`, was integrated to reduce the learning rate by a factor of 0.5 if the validation loss did not improve for 3 consecutive epochs, helping to fine-tune the model during training. The model trained using an A100 Google Colaboratory GPU instance, which is known for its high-performance computing capabilities. The training spanned a total of 403.88 seconds over the course of 70 epochs, demonstrating its lightweight capabilities. Compiled with the Adam optimizer at a learning rate of 10⁻⁴, the model uses binary cross-entropy as its loss function. Its equation is given as follows:

$$\text{Loss} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [y_i \log(\hat{y}_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{y}_i)] \quad (1)$$

where N is the number of samples, y_i is the true label, and \hat{y}_i is the predicted probability of the positive class. This loss function is particularly suited for binary classification tasks as it measures the performance of a classification model whose output is a probability value between 0 and 1.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Performance Metrics

The model was evaluated on five performance metrics: accuracy, loss, AUC, precision, and recall.

Accuracy measures the overall correctness of the model by comparing the number of correct predictions to the total number of predictions. It is given by the equation:

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \quad (2)$$

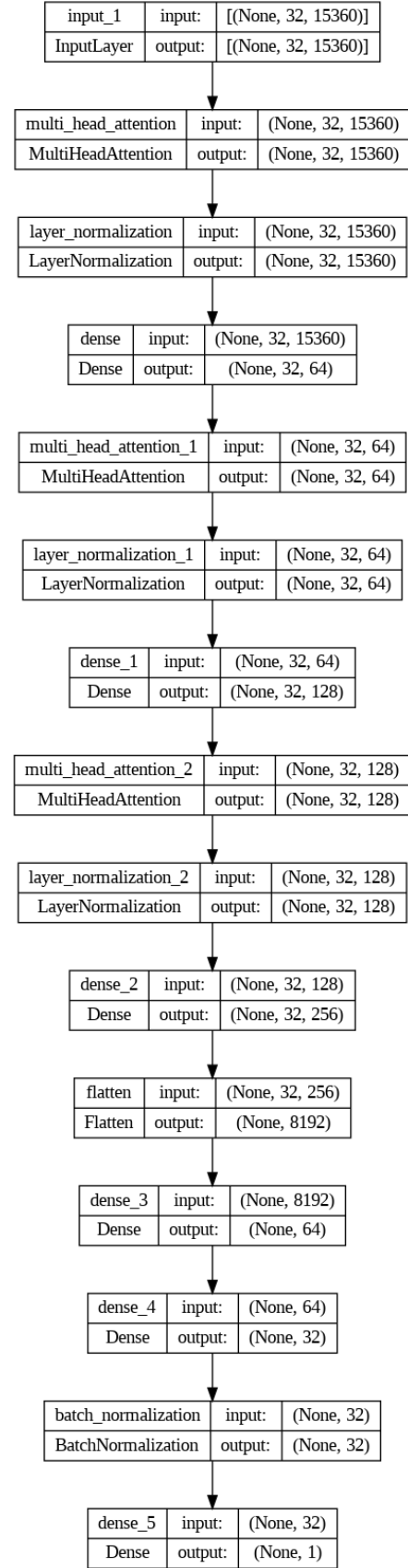


Fig. 2: Summary of Transformer model architecture

where TP is the number of true positives, TN is the number of true negatives, FP is the number of false positives, and FN is the number of false negatives.

AUC measures the ability of the model to discriminate between positive and negative classes. It is defined as the area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve. The ROC curve plots the true positive rate (TPR) against the false positive rate (FPR):

$$TPR = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (3)$$

$$FPR = \frac{FP}{FP + TN} \quad (4)$$

A high AUC value indicates better model performance, with a value of 1 representing a perfect model and a value of 0.5 representing random guessing. The formula for AUC is:

$$AUC = \int_0^1 TPR(FPR) d(FPR) \quad (5)$$

In discrete form, AUC is given by the equation:

$$AUC = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (FPR_{i+1} - FPR_i) \cdot \left(\frac{TPR_{i+1} + TPR_i}{2} \right) \quad (6)$$

where n is the number of thresholds and FPR_i and TPR_i are the false positive rate and true positive rate at the i -th threshold, respectively.

Precision measures the accuracy of the positive predictions and is given by:

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \quad (7)$$

High precision indicates that the model has a low FP rate.

Recall, also known as TPR or sensitivity, measures the model's ability to identify all relevant positive instances. Its equation is given in (3). High recall indicates that the model has a low FN rate. The model's results on these five metrics is shown in Table 1.

B. Performance Metrics

TABLE I: Model Performance Metrics

Metric	Training	Validation	Testing
Accuracy	98.49%	99.33%	99.33%
Loss	0.0954	0.0581	0.0630
AUC	0.9787	0.9974	0.9963
Precision	98.48%	100.0%	100.0%
Recall	95.31%	97.33%	96.36%

With a testing accuracy of 99.33%, AUC of 0.9963, precision of 100.0%, and recall of 96.36%, the model significantly outperforms those created in other studies. Moreover, as portrayed in Fig. 3-6, accuracy, AUC, precision, and recall all improved over the 70 epochs. Hence, the model demonstrates exceptional performance and reliability, making it a highly effective tool for real-world applications. In addition, loss decreased over the training period as shown in Fig. 7, demonstrating the model's capability to learn effectively and generalize well to unseen data.

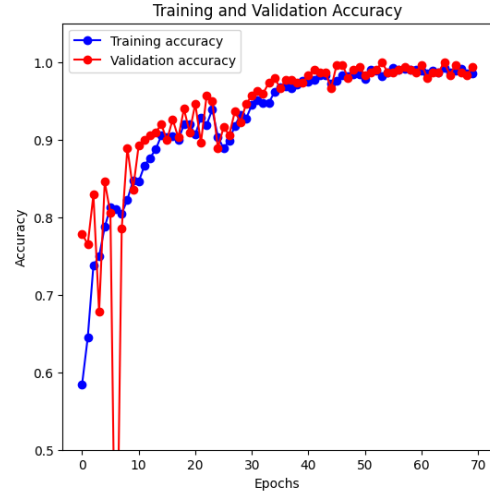


Fig. 3: Training and validation accuracy plot

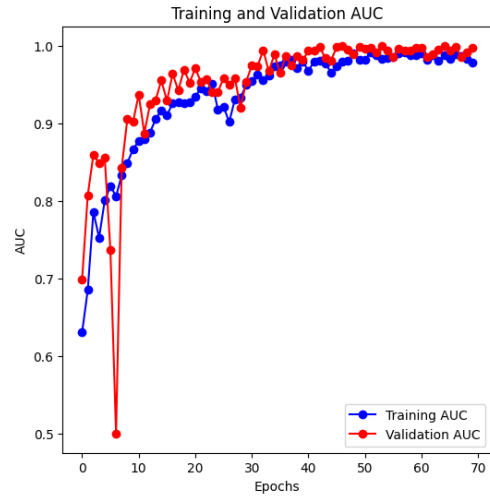


Fig. 4: Training and validation AUC plot

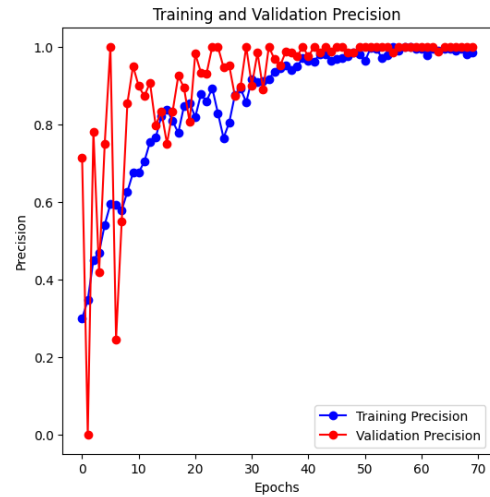


Fig. 5: Training and validation precision plot

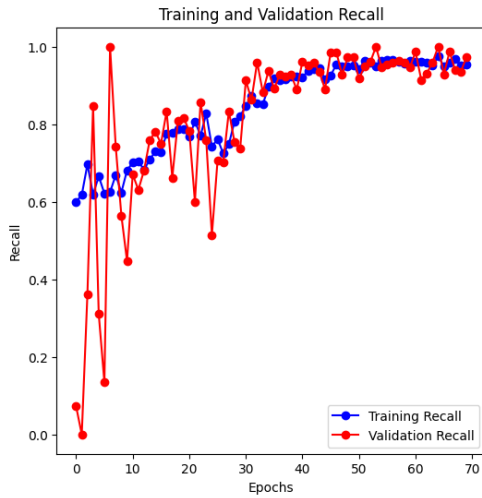


Fig. 6: Training and validation recall plot

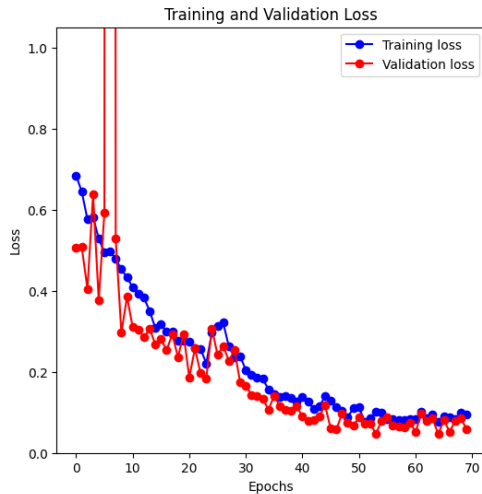


Fig. 7: Training and validation loss plot

C. Comparative Experiments

The model developed in this study offers significant advantages over existing ALS diagnostic tools and methods. The first issue with previous methods is the significant delay in reaching a definitive diagnosis. Campos et al. [14] analyzed the diagnostic pathway for 1,405 ALS patients from four different countries, finding that the median delay was 11 months from first symptom onset. In response to this issue, Babu et al. [15] developed a novel diagnostic tool aimed at expediting ALS diagnosis. Currently, their "thinkALS" tool is the leading solution in the market, reporting less than 4-week wait times for diagnosis. Nonetheless, their technology still faces limitations in terms of efficiency; on the other hand, this study's Transformer model substantially enhances diagnostic speed, achieving results in just two minutes.

Another limitation of ALS diagnostic tools is the low performance and effectiveness of existing machine learning methods. For instance, in the study conducted by Tafuri

et al. [16], researchers created a machine learning-based classification pipeline to distinguish ALS patients from healthy individuals using MRI scans. Despite offering a promising approach to characterize brain abnormalities via radiomics, the model only achieved 81.1% accuracy with the Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithm. In another recent study, Alzahrani et al. [17] predicted ALS using a deep learning approach. Their average accuracy ranged between 82% and 87% with an F-score of approximately 86%. Geevasinga et al. [18] had similar results in their study that assessed a novel ALS diagnostic index (ALSDI). The researchers found 83.5% diagnostic accuracy, 84% specificity, and 83.3% sensitivity in testing, suggesting that these models are not effective enough for clinical application in the status quo.

Furthermore, logistic regression algorithms also lack results with high accuracy. Vu and Le [19] found an AUC score of 87.90% in their study that implemented the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) regression algorithm for ALS diagnosis. The highest performance was recorded by Wang et al. [20], who implemented a longitudinal speech transformer to predict ALS progression and found an AUC of 91.0%. While Transformer-based approaches are the most effective, they are yet to demonstrate accuracies that are high enough for clinical application. Despite the limitations of previous machine learning approaches, the model in this study achieved 99.33% accuracy for both validation and testing. Thus, it is a significant improvement from other solutions on the market.

V. CONCLUSION

The Transformer-based approach presented in this study offers a significant advancement in the early and accurate diagnosis of ALS through the analysis of EEG signals. By leveraging the EEG-ALS dataset, the model achieved exceptional performance metrics, including a testing accuracy of 99.33%, an AUC of 0.9963, precision of 100.0%, and recall of 96.36%. These results not only surpass existing diagnostic methods but also highlight the potential of Transformer models in capturing complex dependencies within EEG data. The robustness and high accuracy of this model suggest it could be a valuable tool in clinical settings, potentially reducing the diagnostic time and improving patient outcomes by enabling earlier intervention.

In the future, the research conducted in this study could be expanded upon by incorporating more diverse EEG recordings from a larger and more varied cohort of ALS patients to enhance the generalizability and robustness of the model. Additionally, the Transformer architecture could be refined in future research by exploring different hyperparameter configurations and incorporating additional features such as eye-tracking data to further improve diagnostic accuracy. Moreover, a user-friendly software application that integrates the model could be developed, enabling clinicians to utilize this tool in a practical, real-world setting.

Overall, the model developed in this study heralds a new era in medical diagnostics, with the promise of improved

outcomes and enhanced quality of care for ALS patients through a two-minute recording.

REFERENCES

- [1] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, "What is Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS)?," CDC, October 2023. <https://www.cdc.gov/als/WhatIsAmyotrophicLateralSclerosis.html>
- [2] ALS Association, "What is ALS?," ALS Association, April 2022. <https://www.als.org/understanding-als/what-is-als>
- [3] S. Paganoni, E. Macklin, A. Lee, A. Murphy, J. Chang, A. Zipf, M. Cudkovicz, and N. Atassi, "Diagnostic timelines and delays in diagnosing amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS)," *Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis & Frontotemporal Degeneration*, vol. 15, no. 5-6, pp. 453-456, September 2014, doi: 10.3109/21678421.2014.903974.
- [4] National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, "Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS)," July 2024, <https://www.ninds.nih.gov/health-information/disorders/amyotrophic-lateral-sclerosis-als>
- [5] ALS Association, "ALS Symptoms and Diagnosis," ALS Association. <https://www.als.org/understanding-als/symptoms-diagnosis>
- [6] University of Michigan Health, "ALS Diagnosis and Treatment," *Michigan Medicine*, 2023. <https://www.uofmhealth.org/brain-neurological-conditions/als-diagnosis-treatment>
- [7] S. Dukic et al., "Resting-state EEG reveals four subphenotypes of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis," *Brain*, vol. 145, no. 2, pp. 621-631, 2022, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awab322>.
- [8] R. Merritt, "What Is a Transformer Model?," Nvidia, March 2022, <https://blogs.nvidia.com/blog/what-is-a-transformer-model/>
- [9] R. Kushol, C. Luk, A. Dey, M. Benatar, H. Briemberg, A. Dionne, N. Dupré, R. Frayne, A. Genge, S. Gibson, S. Graham, L. Korngut, P. Seres, R. Welsh, A. Wilman, L. Zinman, S. Kalra, and Y. Yang, "SF2Former: Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis identification from multi-center MRI data using spatial and frequency fusion transformer," *Computerized Medical Imaging and Graphics*, vol. 108, 2023, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compmedimag.2023.102279>.
- [10] O. P. Kurmi, M. Gyanchandani, N. Khare and A. Pillania, "Classification of Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Patients using speech signals," 2023 Third International Conference on Secure Cyber Computing and Communication (ICSCCC), Jalandhar, India, 2023, pp. 172-177, doi: 10.1109/ICSCCC58608.2023.10176797.
- [11] Y. Zhao and L. He, "Deep Learning in the EEG diagnosis of Alzheimers disease," *Computer Vision - ACCV 2014 Workshops. ACCV 2014. Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, vol. 9008, pp. 340-353, 2015, January 2015, doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-16628-5_25.
- [12] S. Oh, Y. Hagiwara, U. Raghavendra, R. Yuvaraj, N. Arunkumar, M. Murugappan, and U. Rajendra Acharya, "A deep learning approach for Parkinson's disease diagnosis from EEG signals," *Neural Computing and Applications*, vol. 32, pp. 10927-10933, 2020, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00521-018-3689-5>.
- [13] T. Ngo, H. Kieu, M. Nguyen, T. Nguyen, V. Can, B. Nguyen, and T. Le, "An EEG & eye-tracking dataset of ALS patients & healthy people during eye-tracking-based spelling system usage," *Scientific Data*, 2024, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41597-024-03501-y>.
- [14] C. Campos, M. Gromicho, H. Uysal, J. Grosskreutz, M. Kozakiewicz, M. Santos, S. Pinto, S. Petri, M. Swash, and M. Carvalho, "Trends in the diagnostic delay and pathway for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis patients across different countries," *Frontiers in Neurology*, vol. 13, 2023, doi: 10.3389/fneur.2022.1064619.
- [15] S. Babu, J. Yersak, R. Krauss, B. Oskarsson, T. Heiman-Patterson, C. Lomen-Hoerth, D. Waldo, W. Selig, I. Paul, K. Dave, N. Thakur, "Clinician Education Initiatives for General Neurologists on ALS: Why It Is Needed and ThinkALS, a Possible Solution," *American Academy of Neurology*, vol. 102, 2024, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.0000000000205100>.
- [16] B. Tafuri, G. Milella, M. Filardi, A. Giugno, S. Zoccolella, L. Tamburrino, V. Gnoni, D. Urso, R. Blasi, S. Nigro, G. Logroscino, "Machine learning-based radiomics for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis diagnosis," *Expert Systems with Applications*, vol. 240, 2024, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2023.122585>.
- [17] A. Alzahrani, A. Alsheikhy, T. Shawly, M. Barr, H. Ahmed, "A New Artificial Intelligence-Based Model for Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Prediction," *International Journal of Intelligent Systems*, 2023, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1155/2023/1172288>.
- [18] N. Geevasinga, J. Howells, P. Menon, M. Bos, K. Shibuya, J. Matamala, S. Park, K. Byth, M. Kiernan, S. Vucic, "Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis diagnostic index," *American Academy of Neurology*, vol. 92, no. 6, 2019, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1212/WNL.0000000000006876>.
- [19] D. Vu and H. Le, "Machine Learning-Based ALS Diagnosis Using Gene Expression Data," 2023 RIVF International Conference on Computing and Communication Technologies, 2023, pp. 354-359, doi: 10.1109/RIVF60135.2023.10471816.
- [20] L. Wang, Y. Gong, N. Dawalatabad, M. Vilela, K. Placek, B. Tracey, Y. Gong, A. Premasiri, F. Vieira, J. Glass, "Automatic Prediction of Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis Progression using Longitudinal Speech Transformer," 2024, https://www.researchgate.net/publication/381771235_Automatic_Prediction_of_Amyotrophic_Lateral_Sclerosis_Progression_using_Longitudinal_Speech_Transformer