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RESEARCH

BCI training effects on chronic stroke correlate with functional reorganization in motor-related regions: A concurrent EEG and fMRI study

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Abstract

Background: Brain-computer interface (BCI) guided robot-assisted training strategy has been increasingly applied to stroke rehabilitation, while few studies have investigated the neuroplasticity change and functional reorganization after intervention from multi-modality neuroimaging perspective. The present study aims to investigate the hemodynamic and electrophysical changes induced by BCI training using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and electroencephalography (EEG) respectively, as well as the relationship between the neurological changes and motor function improvement.

Method: 14 chronic stroke subjects received 20 sessions of BCI-guided robot hand training. Simultaneous EEG and fMRI data were acquired before and immediately after the intervention. Seed-based functional connectivity for resting state fMRI data and effective connectivity analysis for EEG were processed to reveal the neuroplasticity changes and interaction between different brain regions. Moreover, the relationship among motor function improvement, hemodynamic changes and electrophysical changes derived from the two neuroimaging modalities were also investigated.

Results: This work suggested: (a) significant motor function improvement could be obtained after BCI training therapy; (b) training effect significantly correlated with functional connectivity change between ipsilesional M1 (iM1) and contralesional Brodmann area 6 (including *premotor area* (cPMA) and *supplementary motor area* (SMA)) derived from fMRI; (c) training effect significantly correlated with information flow change from cPMA to iM1 and strongly correlated with information flow change from SMA to iM1 derived from EEG; (d) consistency of fMRI and EEG results illustrated by the correlation between functional connectivity change and information flow change.

Conclusions: Our study showed changes in the brain after the BCI training therapy from chronic stroke survivors and provided a better understanding of neural mechanisms, especially the interaction among motor-related brain regions during stroke recovery. Besides, our finding demonstrated the feasibility and consistency of combining multiple neuroimaging modalities to investigate the neuroplasticity change. This study was registered at <https://clinicaltrials.gov> (NCT02323061) on 23 December 2014.

Keywords: brain computer interface; stroke; robot hand training; EEG; fMRI; functional connectivity; effective connectivity

1 **Introduction**

2 Stroke is the leading cause of death and one of the main causes of acquired adult
3 disability [1]. The most common and widely recognized impairment caused by stroke
4 is motor impairment, which can be regarded as a loss of function in muscle control
5 or movement or a limitation in mobility [2]. A majority of patients have impaired
6 upper-limb (UL) motor function following stroke and have difficulty in indepen-
7 dently performing daily-living activities. Therefore, one of the challenging aspects
8 of stroke rehabilitation is UL intervention [3]. Neuroplasticity is a term describing
9 the property of human brain to adapt to environmental pressure, experiences, and
10 challenges including brain damage [4]. It extends to many levels from molecules to
11 cortical reorganization. [5]. Various novel stroke rehabilitative methods for motor
12 recovery, such as robotic therapies and noninvasive brain stimulation, have been de-
13 veloped based on basic science and clinical studies characterizing brain remodeling
14 due to neural plasticity [6, 7]. Task-specific, high-intensity exercises in an active,
15 functional, and highly repetitive manner over a large number of trials have been
16 shown to enhance motor recovery [8, 9]. Robot-assisted therapy is highly repetitive,
17 intensive, adaptive and quantifiable, which focuses on ameliorating the impaired
18 limb in line with concept of neuroplasticity [10]. A robot-assisted therapy with
19 well-designed tasks was illustrated in one recent study [11], where promising long-
20 term training effect in the motor function was observed in chronic stroke subjects.

21 Brain-computer interface (BCI) technology has been used for rehabilitation after
22 stroke for years [12]. The majority of these studies are case reports of patients who
23 operated a BCI to control either rehabilitation robots [13–15] or functional electri-
24 cal stimulation (FES) [16, 17]. EEG electrodes placed over the sensorimotor regions
25 are often selected to control the external device since they provide the most local-
26 ized and reliable functional cortical activation changes relevant to the hand’s motor
27 function. Specifically, the neurophysiological phenomena of event-related desynchro-
28 nization or synchronization (ERD/ERS) [18] can be detectable from EEG of stroke
29 patients while performing motor imagery (MI) or motor execution (ME) tasks.
30 With real-time processing, triggers will be sent to control an FES generator or ex-
31 oskeleton robotic device [19]. BCI implies learning to modify the neuronal activity
32 through progressive practice with contingent feedback and reward [20]. Therefore,
33 changes in functional cortical activation patterns could remain when performing

1 similar tasks as the BCI training even after the completion of the therapy [21]. In
2 spite of some promising results achieved so far, BCI stroke rehabilitation is still a
3 young field where different works report variable clinical outcomes [22]. The neces-
4 sary functional connectivity changes among brain regions induced in stroke patients
5 with lasting recovery effect remain unclear, with only several putative mechanisms
6 been proposed [23].

7 It is now well established that many functional networks in human brain are con-
8 sistent across subjects, including sensory networks (visual, auditory, somatosensory)
9 and sensorimotor network, as well as some associative ‘control’ networks (default
10 mode, dorsal attention, fronto-parietal, ventral attention) [24–26]. Functional con-
11 nectivity (FC) which measures the temporal correlation of the blood oxygen level
12 dependent (BOLD) signal between different regions at rest has emerged as a power-
13 ful tool to map the functional organization of the brain. Studies imply that different
14 behavioral impairments following stroke are related to the disruptions of commu-
15 nication in distributed brain networks with corresponding particular behavioral
16 domains [27]. Furthermore, there is a growing awareness that disrupted functional
17 interactions, especially inter-hemispheric interactions, are highly correlated with
18 motor behavioral deficits and post-stroke recovery [28–31].

19 Although correlation-based connectivity using fMRI can investigate the relation-
20 ship between distant brain regions, this kind of connectivity cannot provide any
21 precise information related to the directionality of the information flow due to its
22 poor time resolution. Electroencephalograph (EEG) is a prominent tool which offers
23 a more direct measure of the electrophysiological signal with higher time resolution
24 to explore the dynamic brain processes [32]. EEG signal can be regarded as the
25 integration of all concurrently active sources in the brain [33]. Effective connectiv-
26 ity developed from Granger-causality theory can be derived from EEG signal. This
27 kind of connectivity reveals the directed information flow from one region to another
28 and embeds both correlation and directional information between brain areas [34].
29 Among measures estimating effective connectivity, generalized partial directed co-
30 herence (GPDC) has shown good performance and is able to diminish the influence
31 of noise [35]. Different from fMRI with poor temporal resolution or fluctuations in
32 hemodynamic response, EEG is more suitable to capture the effective connectivity
33 through this approach. To date, few studies focused on utilizing the effective connec-

1 tivity change to characterize or predict the rehabilitation training effect for stroke
2 subjects and meanwhile, multiple neuroimaging modalities were seldom combined
3 simultaneously to investigate the brain recovery mechanism induced by training
4 therapy.

5 In this study, two neuroimaging modalities, including EEG and fMRI, were em-
6 ployed to evaluate the neuroplasticity changes in chronic stroke subjects after in-
7 terventions using BCI robot hand training paradigm. Motor function of the paretic
8 upper-limb of stroke subjects was evaluated at three time points: before, immedi-
9 ately after and 6 months after the interventions. Seed-based functional connectivity
10 from resting-state fMRI and effective connectivity analysis from EEG were inves-
11 tigated to reveal the changes in neuroplasticity and interaction between different
12 brain regions. Moreover, we also investigated the correlation between connectivity
13 changes in two neuroimaging modalities and motor function changes after inter-
14 ventions. In the end, we explored the relationship between hemodynamic changes
15 revealed by fMRI data and electrophysical changes revealed by EEG data. These
16 findings may provide us with a better understanding of neural mechanisms during
17 stroke recovery from BCI training and with guidance to future experimental design
18 for upper limb. To our best knowledge, this is the first study to utilize concurrent
19 EEG and fMRI to investigate the BCI training effect.

20 **Materials and Methods**

21 **Subject**

22 Fourteen chronic stroke patients (13 males, mean age = 54 ± 8 years) with the right
23 ($n=9$) or left ($n=5$) hemisphere impaired were recruited from local community. The
24 inclusion criteria were: (1) first-ever stroke, (2) onset of stroke diagnose more than 6
25 months prior to the beginning of individual experiment trial, (3) a single unilateral
26 brain lesion, (4) sufficient cognition and comprehensive ability to understand and
27 perform corresponding tasks tested by Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)
28 with score > 21 , (4) moderate to severe motor dysfunctions for the paretic upper
29 extremity (Fugl-Meyer Assessment score for upper-extremity < 47)[36] and (5) no
30 additional rehabilitation therapies applied to the patient. Exclusion criteria were:
31 (1) aphasia, neglect, and apraxia, history of alcohol, drug abuse, or epilepsy, (2)

1 severe hand spasticity, (3) hand deformity and wound, (4) bilateral infarcts, uncon-
2 trolled medical problems, and (5) serious cognitive deficits.

3 Motor functions of the paretic upper limbs for all stroke subjects were assessed
4 with Fugl-Meyer Assessment for upper-extremity (FMA) at three time points: be-
5 fore (Pre), immediately after (Post) and 6 months after (Six-month) the interven-
6 tion respectively, by the same experienced clinical assessor who was blinded to the
7 subjects' rehabilitation training. Table 1 summarizes the demographics and clinical
8 properties of the stroke subjects. The lesion distribution of stroke patients is shown
9 in Figure 1(C).

10 BCI Motor Imagery Training System

11 A BCI motor training system was designed as shown in Figure 1(A). The EEG
12 signals of each subject were acquired by 16 electrodes (g.LADYbird, g.Tec Medical
13 Engineering GmbH, Austria), amplified by an amplifier (g.USBamp, g.Tec Medical
14 Engineering GmbH, Austria), and then processed by a connected computer imme-
15 diately. A paradigm with fixed sequence showing instructions for motor imagery
16 was played to guide the subject to complete a training task (shown in Figure 1(D)).
17 An exoskeleton robot hand was used to assist the paretic hand to accomplish grasp
18 or open tasks. From fully extended position to fully flexed position, the fingers as-
19 sembly provided 55 degrees and 65 degrees range of motion (ROM) for the MCP
20 and PIP finger joints respectively. When under no load, the maximum contraction
21 speed of the robotic hand was approximately 2 seconds to fully open or closed po-
22 sitions of the robotic hand. During each trial, the subjects were asked to relax for
23 2 s followed by a white cross for 2 s to remind the subjects to do preparation. A
24 text cue of 'hand grasp' or 'hand open' was then displayed for 2 s to illustrate the
25 following motion. After that, the subjects were instructed to conduct motor imagery
26 while a video clip with a duration of 6 s was displayed simultaneously for guidance.
27 The trigger to the robot hand was sent based on the α suppression of EEG signal
28 during the motor imagery to assist the subjects to complete grasp/open task in the
29 following 3 s. Afterwards, the α suppression score as the feedback was displayed for
30 2 s on the screen after robot hand execution to guide the subjects to achieve higher
31 scores in the following trials. Finally, a 2-second rest was given to the subjects.
32 Trials were repeated with grasping and opening tasks appeared alternately. During

1 the training, sixteen EEG electrodes were placed over the central area according
 2 to the international 10–20 system (C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6, Cz, FC1, FC2, FC3,
 3 FC4, FCz, CP1, CP2, CP3, CP4). EEG signals were referenced to unilateral ear-
 4 lobe, grounded at the location of Fpz, and sampled at 256 Hz. The sampling signals
 5 were further processed in real-time using band-pass filter (2–60 Hz) and notch filter
 6 (48–52 Hz) to remove artifacts and power line noise, respectively. All electrodes were
 7 filled properly with conductive gel to ensure all the impedances were kept below
 8 5 k Ω . Similar with other studies [37, 38], EEG signals from C3 and C4 channels
 9 were used for BCI control and meanwhile, all channels were used to generate the
 10 real-time topography of the brain dynamic potential for surveillance.

11 Alpha suppression reflects an event-related desynchronization (ERD) of the EEG
 12 caused by an increase in neural activity [39], which has been widely utilized in BCI
 13 training field and has promising outcome [40, 41]. The α rhythm is mainly found
 14 over the vertex (near location of Cz) or laterally across the precentral motor cortex,
 15 normally at C3 or C4 electrode depending on which hand or arm movement is being
 16 performed. To compute α suppression, C3 or C4 channel was chosen according to
 17 the subject's lesion side. The EEG data were transferred to frequency domain by a
 18 fast Fourier transform with a Hanning window, covering the EEG data during the
 19 motor imagery period (6s) in paradigm. The mean power in the α band (8–13 Hz) of
 20 the selected electrode was calculated. Then the α suppression score was calculated
 21 using the following Equation [42]:

$$\alpha_{SS} = -\frac{P_{MI} - P_{rest}}{P_{rest}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

22 where α_{SS} stands for the α suppression score, P_{MI} stands for the α power of EEG
 23 during motor imagery, and P_{rest} stands for the α power of EEG during resting state.
 24 The robot hand was triggered to apply a mechanical force to help hand grasp or
 25 open if the α suppression score is more than 20, which means the ratio of α power
 26 between motor imagery and rest was below 80% according to the average results of
 27 healthy subjects [43].

28 Interventional Protocols

29 All subjects received a 20-session BCI robot hand training with an intensity of 3–5
 30 sessions per week. The whole training process was completed within 5–7 weeks. At

1 the beginning of each training session, the subject was asked to sit in a height-
2 adjustable chair and the trainer would standardize the posture to keep his/her
3 shoulder naturally flexed and abducted, elbow flexed at 90 degree, arm pronated
4 but wrist positioned neutrally without any flexion or extension. The subjects were
5 instructed to try to maintain the standard posture during the whole training. During
6 each session, 100 repetitive hand movements were performed by each subject with
7 intermittent rest after every 10 trials. A robot hand was used to provide mechanical
8 support to assist the subject in completing hand grasp or open task. Subjects were
9 asked to imagine either grasping or releasing a cup following the instruction. Robot
10 hand was triggered to help hand open or grasp if α suppression score calculated
11 from real-time EEG signals was above 20 at α_{SS} . The overall success rate was
12 $85.3\% \pm 6.4\%$, with the range from 72.9% to 95.8%. All subjects were instructed
13 to imagine the same movement with the affected hand during the stimuli display.
14 The subjects would be reminded to conduct motor imagery if evidence of attempting
15 movements was observed. The EMG activity was also monitored by the trainers.
16 The experimental sequences for the training paradigm was developed based on
17 Psychophysics Toolbox 3.0 (<http://psycho toolbox.org/>).

18 MRI and EEG Data Acquisition

19 MRI scans were acquired for all subjects before and after the intervention. A 3T
20 Philips MR scanner (Achieva TX, Philips Medical System, Best, Netherlands) with
21 an 8-channel head coil was used to acquire high resolution T1-weighted anatomical
22 images (TR/TE = 7.47/3.45 ms, flip angle = 8° , 308 slices, voxel size = 0.6×1.042
23 $\times 1.042$ mm³) using a T1-TFE sequence (ultrafast spoiled gradient echo pulse
24 sequence), and BOLD fMRI images (TR/TE = 2,000/30 ms, flip angle = 70° , 37
25 slices/volume, voxel size = $2.8 \times 2.8 \times 3.5$ mm³) using a FE-EPI sequence (gradient
26 echo echo-planar-imaging sequence). Both resting-state and task-based fMRI were
27 acquired. The sequences were displayed using EPrime 2.0 (Psychology Software
28 Tools, PA USA). When acquiring resting-state fMRI, subjects were presented with
29 a white crosshair in black background and instructed to rest while focusing on the
30 fixation cross during the fMRI acquisition. The resting state fMRI acquisition lasted
31 for 8 min. When acquiring task-based fMRI, subjects were asked to try to do grasp
32 and open using their paretic hand when a mark of "L" or "R" (decided by each

1 subject's paretic hand) appeared on the screen and were also asked to maintain
2 6 seconds until the mark disappeared from the screen. An event-related design
3 was adopted and randomized time intervals from 14 to 20 seconds were assigned
4 between every two tasks. Two 6-minute task-based fMRI runs were performed for
5 each subject.

6 The EEG data were acquired simultaneously with the fMRI using Neuroscan
7 system (SynAmps2, Neuroscan Inc, Herndon, USA). The MR-compatible EEG cap
8 was placed with 64-channel Ag/AgCl EEG electrodes according to standard 10-
9 20 system, as well as 2 extra electrocardiogram (ECG; left lower and near-midline
10 upper chest) electrodes and 1 electrooculogram (EOG; below right eye) electrode.
11 All recording impedances were kept below 5 k Ω . The reference channel was located
12 at the point between Cz and CPz; AFz electrode was treated as ground. Signals
13 were filtered between 0.1 and 256 Hz using analog filter and sampled at 1000 Hz
14 for off-line processing.

15 MRI Data Analysis

16 *MRI Data Preprocessing*

17 The resting-state fMRI data were preprocessed using the Data Processing Assis-
18 tant for Resting-State fMRI (DPARSF) toolbox [44] based on Statistical Paramet-
19 ric Mapping (SPM8) (<http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm>). The first 10 volumes were
20 discarded to assure the remaining volumes of fMRI data were at magnetization
21 steady state. The remaining volumes were corrected with slice timing and realigned
22 for head motion correction. Nuisance variables were then regressed out including
23 white matter, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), global mean signal and Fristion 24 head
24 motion parameters [45]. To further control for head motion, scrubbing process were
25 done for the volumes with framewise displacement (FD) value exceed 0.3 [46]. Then
26 the anatomical dataset was aligned to the functional dataset. Detrending and tem-
27 poral band-pass filtering (0.01 Hz - 0.1 Hz) [47, 48] were performed to remove higher
28 frequency physiological noise and lower frequency scanner drift. Subsequently, the
29 functional images were spatially normalized to the Montreal Neurological Institute
30 (MNI) template (MNI152: average T1 brain image constructed from 152 normal
31 subjects), resliced to 2 mm \times 2 mm \times 2 mm voxels, and smoothed with a Gaussian
32 kernel with a full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) of 6 mm. In order to do group

1 statistical analysis later, subjects with left-hemispheric lesions were flipped along the
2 midsagittal plane using MRIcron (www.mccauslandcenter.sc.edu/mricro/mricron),
3 which was also adopted in other studies [49, 50], so that the lesions of all subjects
4 were in the right hemisphere.

5 The task-based fMRI data were also preprocessed using DPARSF toolbox. Sim-
6 ilar preprocessing steps were performed on task-based fMRI data except that the
7 threshold for FD value was set to 0.7 in the motion scrubbing step [51] and no
8 band-pass filter was used. Subjects with left-hemispheric lesions were also flipped
9 along the midsagittal plane.

10 *Seed-Based FC Analysis*

11 In order to avoid the bias induced by a prior determination of seeds based on a
12 hypothesis or prior results, seed locations were decided based on task-fMRI. At
13 the intra-subject level, general linear model (GLM) was applied to voxel-level to
14 estimate the statistical parametric maps of the t -statistic for each subject. At the
15 inter-subject level, one-sample t -test was performed on the individual t -maps. The
16 statistical threshold was set at $P < 0.05$ (corrected for multiple comparison). The
17 group activation map is shown in Figure 2(A). We defined two spherical seeds
18 with radius of 5 mm surrounding the highest activation vertex from the task-based
19 results. The ipsilesional M1 (iM1) seed location was set at (38, -22, 56) in MNI
20 space and contralesional M1 (cM1) was set symmetrically at (-38, -22, 56) in MNI
21 space with also referenced to some other studies [52, 53].

22 In this study, we focused on motor-related areas for seed-based analysis. The
23 average time course of the BOLD signal within the seeds during each resting-state
24 scan was calculated and used as the regressors of interest in a subject-level general
25 linear model (GLM) to assess the FC of each ROI with every other voxel in the
26 brain. The seeds were checked one subject by one subject to ensure that they did
27 not contain any lesioned voxels. This analysis produced maps of all voxels that were
28 positively or negatively correlated with a seeds' mean time courses.

29 After calculating individual seed-based correlation maps, paired t -test was per-
30 formed for each seed to see whether there were significant changes in FC brought
31 by training effect. Corrections for multiple comparison at the cluster level were
32 carried out using Gaussian random field theory (minimum $Z > 2.7$; cluster-wise

1 significance: $P < 0.05$, corrected). To correct for multiple seeds, we only considered
2 the clusters that had a probability greater than $P = 0.05/2$ (2 was the number
3 of seeds) as significant clusters [54]. All the analysis for mixed effect model and
4 paired t -test were carried out in DPARSF toolbox [44]. We also explored whether
5 the changes in functional connectivity in brain were correlated with the assessment
6 score changes. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between FMA score
7 changes and the FC changes between seed area (ipsilesional M1) and corresponding
8 areas (contralesional BA6 area) with which the FC has significantly changed (see
9 Figure 3) after 20 sessions of robot hand training.

10 EEG Analysis

11 *EEG Preprocessing*

12 EEG data were processed mainly with EEGLAB [55], Fieldtrip toolbox [56], Mat-
13 lab signal processing toolbox and custom-made codes (Mathworks Natick, MA,
14 USA). Under the condition where MRI was acquired simultaneously, the switch-
15 ing of magnetic field gradients would pollute and overwhelm EEG signal which led
16 to low signal to noise ratio (SNR). A principle component analysis (PCA)-based
17 optimal basis set (OBS) algorithm [57] was adopted to remove the MRI gradient
18 artifact and the onset markers indicating the beginning of each fMRI volume, gen-
19 erated by MRI scanner were also provided for better extraction and selection of
20 artifactual features. The output EEG signal were double-checked visually to ensure
21 that the amplitude was not grandiosely large. The time course of heartbeat artifact
22 was determined with a R-peak detection algorithm [58]. The final ECG artifact was
23 eliminated channel-wisely using the strategy which combined independent compo-
24 nent analysis, OBS and an information-theoretic rejection criterion developed by
25 Liu and colleagues [58].

26 After that, EEG signal was band-pass filtered from 2 to 40 Hz using a Butterworth
27 non-causal filter. Subsequently, bad channels were removed and reconstructed us-
28 ing spherical spline interpolation with neighbor electrodes. Following that, all data
29 were common average referenced. According to the fMRI trigger markers, these
30 data were segmented into non-overlapping two-second epochs where the first and
31 last several data segments were removed due to signal instability. Bad epochs were
32 rejected based on statistical measurement metrics(e.g. z-score, variance, min, and

1 max etc.) with remaining ones further inspected visually to guarantee the signal
 2 quality. We utilized adaptive mixture independent component analysis (AMICA)
 3 algorithm [59] to separate EEG signals into spatially static and maximally tem-
 4 porally independent components [60]. The components related to residual artifact
 5 induced by MRI scanning, Electrooculogram (EOG) artifact and muscular artifact
 6 were rejected. Processes of remaining components were then projected back to all
 7 original channels.

8 Finally, we applied a surface Laplace filter with the spherical spline method [61] to
 9 increase the topographical selectivity, eliminate the volume conduction and high-
 10 light the high-spatial-frequency components while attenuating low ones [62]. For
 11 group-level analysis convenience, all EEG for those patients with left-hemisphere
 12 lesion was left-right flipped before signal processing procedure.

13 *Effective Connectivity analysis*

14 Based on the fMRI results, three regions of interest (ROIs) were determined for fur-
 15 ther effective connectivity analysis, i.e. contralesional premotor area (cPMA), sup-
 16plementary motor area (SMA) and ipsilesional primary motor area (iM1). Several
 17 representative EEG electrodes overlying these three ROIs were carefully selected,
 18 *FC3* and *C3* for cPMA, *CZ* and *FCZ* for SMA and *C4* for iM1[63].

19 To extract the directional information transformation between the above ROIs,
 20 generalized partial directed coherence (GPDC), a multivariate (MV) approach
 21 based on Granger causality [64], was adopted. It was developed to circumvent the
 22 numerical problem related to time series scaling and is more robust for less clean
 23 signal[65]. Basically, GPDC is derived from the MV autoregressive (MVAR) model
 24 [66] using an appropriate order to fit the time series data. MVAR model is described
 25 as following:

$$\mathcal{X}(n) = \sum_{k=1}^p A(k)\mathcal{X}(n-k) + \mathcal{W}(n) \quad (2)$$

26 where \mathcal{X} is the time series, p is the model order, k is the time lag, $A(k)$ is the
 27 fitting coefficient given time lag k and $\mathcal{W}(n)$ is the residual white and uncorrelated
 28 noise. Leveraging the estimated model coefficients with the input noise variance into

1 consideration, the value of GPDC can be calculated as:

$$GPDC_{ij}(f) = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma_i^2} |A_{ij}(f)|^2}{\sum_{m=1}^M \frac{1}{\sigma_m^2} |A_{mj}(f)|^2} \quad (3)$$

2 where f is the frequency, $\sigma_i(\sigma_m)$ is the i th (m th) diagonal element of the residual
 3 noise covariance matrix, and $A_{ij}(f)$ is the coefficient transformed to the frequency
 4 domain which is related to interaction between the i th and j th signal.

5 GPDC can be treated as a measure of directional information or interaction from
 6 one signal to another with explicit directionality, which is different from conventional
 7 coherence [67] characterizing the indirect and undirected couplings. Given frequency
 8 f , the *Information Flow (IF)* from $ROI_j(\Omega_j)$ to $ROI_i(\Omega_i)$ for EEG can be further
 9 determined by incorporating GPDC values:

$$IF_{ij}(f) = IF_{i \leftarrow j}(f) = \frac{\sum_{m \in \Omega_i} \sum_{n \in \Omega_j} GPDC_{mn}(f)}{N_i N_j} \quad (4)$$

10 where Ω represents the ROI. $GPDC_{mn}$ indicates the GPDC value calculated be-
 11 tween EEG signals from electrode m (in ROI_i) and electrode n (in ROI_j) respec-
 12 tively with the direction from electrode n to electrode m . N_i means the number
 13 of representative electrodes in ROI_i . Given the direction in a pair of ROIs, ROI_i
 14 and ROI_j can be considered as *sink* region and *source* region of information flow
 15 respectively.

16 In our study, we used a MVAR model of order 10 corresponding to 40 ms of the
 17 signal to fit the EEG data, which is consistent with previous studies [68, 69]. The
 18 value of GPDC and information flow were calculated separately for each epoch and
 19 then averaged over all epochs as better performance was found in this way than by
 20 extracting a single MVAR model from the aggregated data of all epochs, according
 21 to previous studies [70]. In the frequency domain, we mainly focused on 8 to 30 Hz
 22 which contained two essential brain oscillatory activity frequency bands, alpha band
 23 (8-12 Hz) and beta band (12-30Hz) [71]. Furthermore, all GPDC and information
 24 flow values were averaged across all frequency bins.

25 Similar with fMRI analysis, iM1 was selected as seed ROI but with two possible
 26 roles (*sink* region or *source* region). Pearson correlation coefficients were calcu-
 27 lated between FMA score changes and the information flow change between cPMA
 28 and iM1 as well as between SMA and iM1 before and after training. Besides, the

1 correlations between FC change (between iM1 and BA6 area) and corresponding
2 information flow change were also investigated to inspect whether similar changes
3 were associated between the findings from these two neuroimaging modalities.

4 Statistics

5 Statistic analyses were performed using SPSS 25.0 (IBM SPSS Statistics, NY, US)
6 with the significance level set at $p < 0.05$. Friedman test at time level (Pre, Post
7 and Six-month) was applied to examine whether FMA score was changed after the
8 intervention. Friedman test is a non-parametric test which was widely adopted to
9 assess differences over time in clinical scores including FMA in recent studies [72–74].
10 Wilcoxon signed ranks test was used as post-hoc test to examine significant changes
11 of different combinations of three time-points for FMA score. Pearson correlation
12 coefficients were used to test the relationship between FMA score changes and the
13 connectivity changes from two neuroimaging modalities. Bonferroni corrections were
14 used for multiple comparisons.

15 Results

16 Friedman tests with time (Pre, Post and Six-month) as within-subject factor in-
17 dicated that significant effect of time was observed for FMA score ($p = 0.005$).
18 Post-hoc Wilcoxon signed ranks tests for FMA score indicated that there were
19 significant increases in FMA scores between Pre and Post ($p = 0.004$) as well as
20 between Pre and Six-month ($p = 0.015$), no significant change was found between
21 Post and Six-month ($p = 0.878$). The result was illustrated in Figure 1(B). The
22 results indicated that BCI robot hand training was able to promote motor recovery
23 with a long-term effect.

24 For the functional connectivity analysis with seed ROI at iM1, paired t -test showed
25 that significant clusters were observed in contralesional Brodmann area 6 (BA6:
26 *premotor cortex* and *supplementary motor area*). This suggested that the functional
27 connectivity between iM1 and contralesional BA6 was significantly increased after
28 20 sessions of BCI robot hand training (Figure 2C). Pearson correlation analysis
29 further revealed that the FC changes between iM1 and contralesional BA6 was
30 significantly correlated with the FMA score changes ($r = 0.64$, $p = 0.013$, Figure
31 3) after BCI robot hand training. There was no significant cluster survived after
32 multiple comparison correction for the paired t -test when the seed ROI was at cM1.

1 Due to the lack of accurate fMRI triggers, the EEG signals of two subjects were not
2 further analyzed to avoid processing bias, resulting in 12 subjects with both EEG
3 and fMRI scans. Therefore, EEG analysis was only conducted on the remaining 12
4 subjects. First of all, we investigated the topography of the information flow change
5 when iM1 was treated as either the sink or the source regions. Figure 4 illustrates
6 the two conditions (iM1 as *sink/source* region), where both premotor area and
7 supplementary motor area showed notably changed patterns after the intervention.
8 This phenomenon was more obvious and continuous when iM1 acted as the receiver
9 of the information flow.

10 Then we explored the relationship between training effect and information flow
11 changes when iM1 was treated as a sink region (i.e. information flow from cPMA or
12 SMA to iM1). The results are illustrated in Figure 5. Pearson correlation analysis
13 revealed that information flow change from cPMA to iM1 significantly correlated
14 with the FMA score change after BCI robot hand training ($r = 0.6963$, $p = 0.0476$,
15 Bonferroni corrected). The information flow change from SMA to iM1 correlated
16 strongly with FMA score change ($r = 0.6046$, $p = 0.1492$, Bonferroni corrected,
17 $p = 0.0373$, uncorrected), although not significantly. However, from the opposite
18 direction, neither information flow change from iM1 to cPMA ($r = -0.405$, $p =$
19 0.7660 , Bonferroni corrected) nor from iM1 to SMA ($r = 0.1189$, $p = 1$, Bonferroni
20 corrected) correlated significantly or strongly with FMA score change.

21 Upon determining the sink region role of iM1 in predicting training effect, we
22 involved the FC changes from fMRI into correlation analysis. As illustrated in Figure
23 6, there is a significant association between the information flow change from cPMA
24 to iM1 and their FC change ($r = 0.6902$, $p = 0.0260$, Bonferroni corrected) as well
25 as a strong relationship between the information flow change from SMA to iM1 and
26 FC change ($r = 0.5859$, $p = 0.1167$, Bonferroni corrected).

27 Discussion

28 This study investigated the neuroplasticity change and functional reorganization af-
29 ter BCI-guided robot-assisted training intervention from multi-modality neuroimag-
30 ing perspective. Besides, the relationship between the neurological changes and
31 motor function improvement was also investigated. Our study showed the change
32 in the brain after BCI training therapy for chronic stroke survivors and provided a

1 better understanding of neural mechanisms, especially the interaction among motor-
2 related brain regions during stroke recovery using MRI and EEG. The correlation
3 finding demonstrated the feasibility and consistency of combining multiple neu-
4 roimaging modalities to investigate the neuroplasticity change. Furthermore, our
5 findings can provide insights into the design of stroke rehabilitation therapies for
6 clinical application.

7 Non-invasive BCI systems have been introduced for upper limb rehabilitation af-
8 ter stroke for years, coupling with other interventions like occupational/physical
9 therapy. Some studies reported significant motor function improvement after train-
10 ing with the help of BCI [22, 75]. Biasiucci et al. illustrated that BCI coupled with
11 FES elicited significantly better motor recovery than sham FES in chronic stroke
12 patients. Furthermore, the underlying mechanism might relate to the FC between
13 ipsilesional motor areas from neuroplasticity perspective. Kim et al. used combined
14 action observational training (AOT) plus BCI-based FES (BCI-FES) as the exper-
15 imental training therapy and found that the combination of AOT plus BCI-FES
16 with conventional therapy is more effective comparing to sole conventional therapy
17 in term of upper limb motor improvement. Our study integrated brain-computer
18 interface and robot hand, which further resembled such findings by exhibiting a sig-
19 nificant training effect after 20 sessions of BCI robot hand training in chronic stroke.
20 The feedback offered by BCI facilitates the appraisal of performance by enforcing
21 the sensory aspect in the sensorimotor loop [76]. External devices like robotic hand
22 could provide haptic as well as proprioceptive feedbacks on the intended movement,
23 thereby restoring the 'action-perception coupling'. In this way, BCI robot-assisted
24 training has already been shown to induce neuroplasticity [77]. Using intention with
25 robotics training showed effective motor function improvement. Besides, the corti-
26 cal area corresponding to hand is larger than the area corresponding to elbow or
27 shoulder [78]. Distal joint training might involve larger brain areas to induce neu-
28 roplasticity modulation. However, it is noted that, from our study we did not claim
29 the training with BCI is better than that without BCI. The longitudinal training
30 effect as well as the possible underlying neurophysiological mechanisms explored by
31 fMRI and EEG were our main focus to evaluate the BCI training effect.

32 Resting-state fMRI is a better tool over task-based fMRI on stroke subjects, since
33 it is not subject to changes in task parameters over time and can avoid excessive

1 motion artifacts during scan [27, 79]. Recent findings indicate an association be-
2 tween resting state FC and upper-extremity control in persons with stroke [30].
3 Besides, functional connectivity changes were found in sensorimotor network af-
4 ter motor learning [80, 81]. Xu et al. indicated that inter-hemispheric resting state
5 FC between the bilateral primary sensorimotor cortex was associated with motor
6 recovery in stroke subjects [82]. In order to explore the FC changes within the sen-
7 sorimotor network, we set two seeds at bilateral primary motor cortex, respectively.
8 Consistent with previous studies, our study also showed a significant modulation of
9 the FC between ipsilesional M1 and contralesional BA6 (premotor cortex and sup-
10plementary motor area). This neurological change was further highly correlated with
11 behavioral changes (FMA score). We have the assumption that the modulation of
12 neuroplasticity is one of the underlying reasons of motor function improvement. FC
13 could serve as a biomarker of motor function recovery in stroke [83], which depicts
14 the functional organization of the brain and neuroplasticity. The significant corre-
15 lation between motor function improvement and FC change indicated that iM1 and
16 contralesional BA6 could be regarded as the related areas to facilitate upper-limb
17 motor recovery after stroke. Although no significant cluster was survived after cor-
18 rection when the seed was at contralesional M1 after GRF correction, we could still
19 see some positive inter-hemispheric changes in the uncorrected t -map. Some studies
20 indicate that decreased inter-hemispheric connectivity between homologous areas
21 tends to return back to normal in patients who recovered well, whereas in poorly
22 recovered patients, the degree of decreased inter-hemispheric connectivity correlates
23 with motor function [30, 84]. Our results further validate that inter-hemispheric FC
24 changes within sensorimotor network could be an indicator of motor recovery in
25 chronic stroke subjects.

26 Given the low temporal resolution of fMRI, EEG could be another compensation
27 perspective to capture the neuronal activity and dynamic brain processes more pre-
28 cisely. Plenty of coherence analysis and functional connectivity were conducted from
29 EEG data to explore the potential correlation with motor function or rehabilitation
30 training effect for stroke survivors. Recent findings illustrated that coherence with
31 the primary motor area (M1) of the dominant hemisphere was a strong predictor of
32 motor skill acquisition and thus could provide more information than that predicted
33 by baseline behavior and demographics [85]. Besides, more and more studies focused

1 on the effective connectivity which can provide directional information compared
2 with coherence-related coupling measurements. It was observed that connectivity
3 from contralesional prefrontal cortex as well as from ipsilesional prefrontal cortex
4 to premotor cortex positively correlated with hand function [29]. In our study, the
5 effective connectivity, named GPDC, was used to explore the relationship between
6 the training effect and information flow within brain functional regions. Similar to
7 previous studies, we found the influence (characterized by information flow defined
8 in GPDC) from cPMA to iM1 significantly correlated with motor recovery. Mean-
9 while, a strong but not significant correlation between the influence from SMA to
10 iM1 and recovery was also observed.

11 Considering the findings from previous studies that stroke patients obtained
12 weaker effective connection from cPMA to iM1 during motor imagery and exe-
13 cution compared with healthy subjects [86], our result validated this point from
14 another perspective by showing that the enhanced effective interaction from cPMA
15 to iM1 implied a better rehabilitation recovery. This maybe partially due to the
16 motor imagery procedure of the training therapy since the premotor cortex has
17 been identified as the key node of motor imagery [87]. Our findings additionally
18 suggest that effective connectivity from SMA to iM1 may also be a potential indi-
19 cator for better recovery. This is not beyond our expectation since together with
20 cPMA, these areas are well known to be involved in planning, initiation and execu-
21 tion of motor commands [88]. It is worth noting that effective connectivity methods
22 (e.g. GPDC) can provide concrete information of the active directed physical links
23 between structures [89]. From this point, repairment or enhancement of these phys-
24 ical connections between motor-related regions should be crucial for recovery, which
25 provides insights into therapy design for stroke rehabilitation. With the popularity
26 of transcranial electrical stimulation recently, our study may provide some insights
27 about the optimization of electrodes montage to facilitate the training effect.

28 Combined with the result from fMRI, we could find that such concurrent col-
29 lected EEG could provide more complementary information and disentangle the
30 directionality of the functional connectivity extracted from fMRI. On the other
31 hand, the significant correlation between FC change and directed information flow
32 change within cPMA as well as SMA and iM1 also implied the inherent connection

1 between these two neuroimaging modalities, which is in line with previous studies
2 [90, 91].

3 Several limitations need to be noted in our current study. First of all, the sam-
4 ple size was not large limiting the generalization power. More patients should be
5 recruited to validate and extend the findings of this study. Second, EEG data were
6 analyzed at the electrode level. Although surface Laplace filter was used to minimize
7 the volume conduction effect, it might be better to analyze the signal from source
8 perspective and more precise information can be digged out. Finally, our training
9 system comprised motor imagery and robot hand training simultaneously, which
10 lacks a control group. To further differentiate and compare the effect of neuroplas-
11 ticity modulation and motor recovery brought by different interventions, we could
12 additionally have robot-assist training group and conventional training group in a
13 randomized controlled trial study.

14 **Conclusion**

15 In summary, we investigated the relationship between the motor improvement in-
16 duced by BCI robot-hand training and functional reorganization from hemodynamic
17 together with electrophysical changes in motor-related regions through concurrent
18 EEG and fMRI. Training effect significantly correlated with functional connectivity
19 change between ipsilesional M1 and contralesional Brodmann area 6 derived from
20 resting-state fMRI. Moreover, significant correlation was observed between motor
21 improvement and information flow changes underlying crucial motor-related area
22 from EEG. Meanwhile, the corresponding changes from EEG and fMRI also illus-
23 trated significant relevance which implicated the inherent connection between these
24 two neuroimaging modalities. This study has far-reaching implications for facilitat-
25 ing understanding the potential neural mechanisms during stroke motor recovery.

List of abbreviations

BCI: Brain-computer interface; fMRI: functional magnetic resonance imaging; EEG: electroencephalography; iM1: ipsilesional M1; cPMA: contralesional premotor area; SMA: supplementary motor area; MI: motor imagery; MMSE: Mini-Mental State Examination; FC: functional connectivity; BOLD: blood oxygen level dependent; GPDC: generalized partial directed coherence; FMA: Fugl-Meyer Assessment for upper-extremity; ERD: event-related desynchronization; ECG: electrocardiogram; EOG: electrooculogram; EMG: Electromyography; DPARSF: Data Processing Assistant for Resting-State fMRI; SPM: Statistical Parametric Mapping; CSF: cerebrospinal fluid; MNI: Montreal Neurological Institute; FWHM: full-width at half-maximum; GLM: general linear model; SNR: signal to noise ratio; PCA: principle component analysis; AMICA: adaptive mixture independent component analysis; ROIs: regions of interest; MVAR: multivariate autoregressive; IF: information flow.

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Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was approved by the Joint Chinese University of Hong Kong-New Territories East Cluster (CUHK-NTEC) Clinical Research Ethics Committee (registered at <https://clinicaltrials.gov> (NCT02323061)) and fulfilled the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was given before experiments for all subjects.

Availability of data materials

The raw data, including the EEG/fMRI were disclosed for individual subjects. It has been stated in the consent approved by the Joint Chinese University of Hong Kong-New Territories East Cluster (CUHK-NTEC) Clinical Research Ethics Committee that the results might be published, but the individual data would be kept confidentially for subjects.

Author's contributions

KY conducted the experiments, performed signal processing, and prepared the manuscripts. CC conducted the experiments, performed signal processing, and prepared the manuscripts. XW offered signal processing technical support and gave valuable suggestions to polish the manuscripts. WCWC gave valuable suggestions to polish the manuscripts. KYT oversaw and proposed this study, assisted to conduct the experiments, and prepare the manuscripts. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Consent for publication

The stroke subjects agreed to the publication of personal demographics and clinical data.

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Figures

Tables

Figure 1 Illustration of the experimental settings and characteristics of subjects. (A) Schematic diagram of the whole training system. (B) Comparison of FMA score among pre-training, post-training and six-month follow-up. Significant changes were seen in pre-training versus post-training and pre-training versus six-month follow-up. Error bars are standard errors. $*p < 0.05$. (C) Lesion distribution of stroke subjects. The color bar represents the number of patients with lesions in the corresponding areas. The annotation of X, Y, Z represented the coordinate of the slice in MNI space. (D) The sequence of training paradigm.

Figure 2 Seed selection and FC analysis result. (A) The color-coded area in the ipsilesional side of brain was significantly activated when subjects were doing the task according to task-based fMRI analysis. (B) The yellow sphere with 5 mm radius represents seed location (iM1) selected for seed-based functional connectivity analysis. The coordinate of iM1 was at (38, -22, 56) in MNI space. (C) Functional connectivity between contralesional BA6 and iM1 seed was significantly changed. The color bar represents Z score. The white numbers aside the images represent the coordinate in MNI space.

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Figure 4 The topography plots of information flow when iM1 set as sink/source regions. The first row represents the iM1 as sink region, where (A) and (B) represent the condition of pre and post training respectively. (C) is the change of information flow after training given iM1 as the sink region. The second row represents the iM1 as the source region, where (D) and (E) denoted the pre/post condition. (F) is the change of information flow given iM1 as the source region. All values were z-normalized across the whole brain for better visualization.

Figure 5 The correlation between FMA score change and information flow change from (A) cPMA to iM1, (B) SMA to iM1, (C) iM1 to cPMA and (D) iM1 to SMA. Each surface rendering aside indicated the information flow.

Figure 6 The correlation between functional connectivity change and information flow change from (A) cPMA to iM1, (B) SMA to iM1.

Table 1 Demographics and clinical properties of the participants.

No.	Age		Stroke onset (years)	Lesion side	Lesion location	Stroke type	FMA (Max score: 66)		
	range	Gender					Pre	Post	Six-month
S1	45-49	M	1	R	MFG, SFG, precentral, supramarginal, SMA	ischemic	19	34	28
S2	65-69	M	8	L	insula, putamen, IFG, temporal pole	hemorrhage	22	27	32
S3	65-69	M	1	R	insula, ITG, IOG, putamen	hemorrhage	13	16	27
S4	60-64	M	3	R	insula, putamen, IFG rolandic operculum	ischemic	16	14	18
S5	45-49	M	0.7	R	ITG, MTG, STG, MOG, angular, supramarginal	hemorrhage	17	25	25
S6	60-64	M	11	L	PLIC, putamen, insula, postcentral, SFG	ischemic	22	24	24
S7	55-59	M	6	R	insula, IFG rolandic operculum	ischemic	13	23	20
S8*	40-44	M	5	R	insula, rolandic operculum, IFG, STG, putamen, temporal pole	hemorrhage	15	17	16
S9	50-54	F	3	L	insula, rolandic operculum, putamen	hemorrhage	34	34	37
S10*	40-44	M	3	R	insula, MTG, STG, temporal pole, putamen, rolandic operculum	hemorrhage	17	20	20
S11	55-59	M	5	L	insula, IFG, putamen	hemorrhage	28	33	24
S12	50-54	M	1	L	putamen, caudate nucleus	ischemic	24	22	22
S13	55-59	M	7	R	putamen, temporal pole, IFG, insula, rolandic operculum	ischemic	20	25	21
S14	45-49	M	1	R	insula, putamen	hemorrhage	34	37	35
mean±std							21±6.7	25±7	25±6

Abbreviations: F = female; FMA = Fugel-Meyer Assessment for upper limb; IFG = Inferior frontal gyrus; IOG = Inferior occipital gyrus; ITG = Inferior temporal gyrus; L = left hemisphere lesion; M = male; MFG = Middle frontal gyrus; MOG = Middle occipital gyrus; MTG = Middle temporal gyrus; PLIC = Posterior limb of the internal capsule; SFG = superior frontal gyrus; SMA = Supplementary motor area; STG = Superior temporal gyrus; R = right hemisphere lesion.

*The EEG of these two subjects were not further analyzed.

Figures

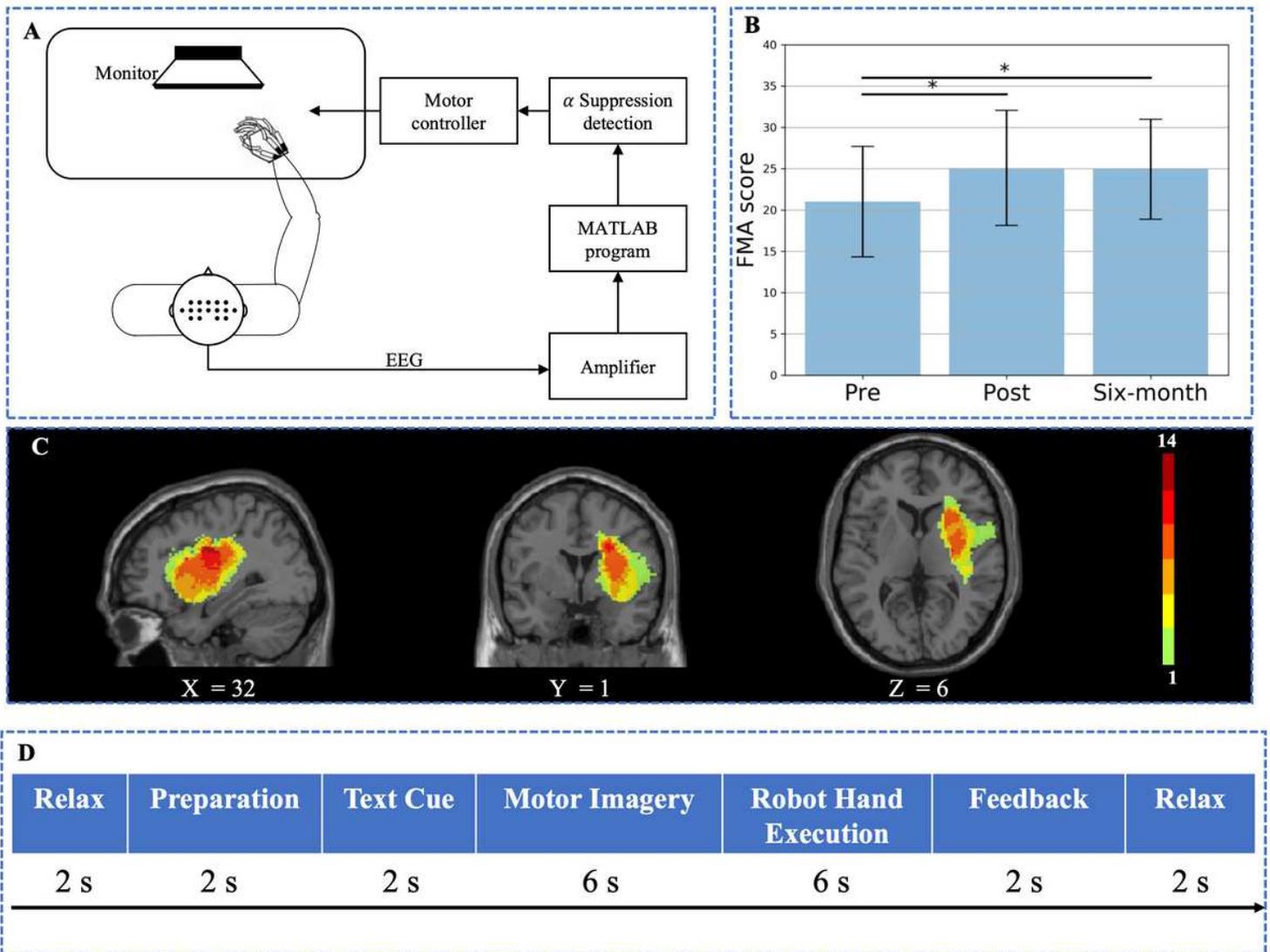


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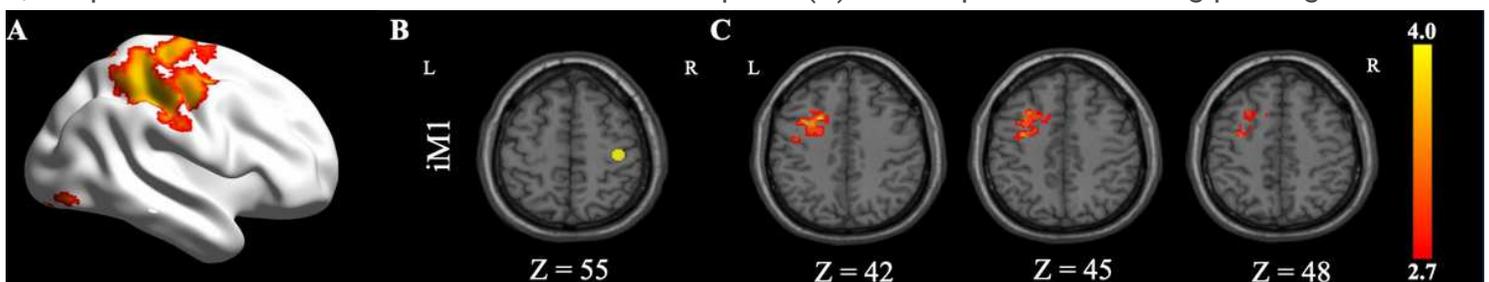


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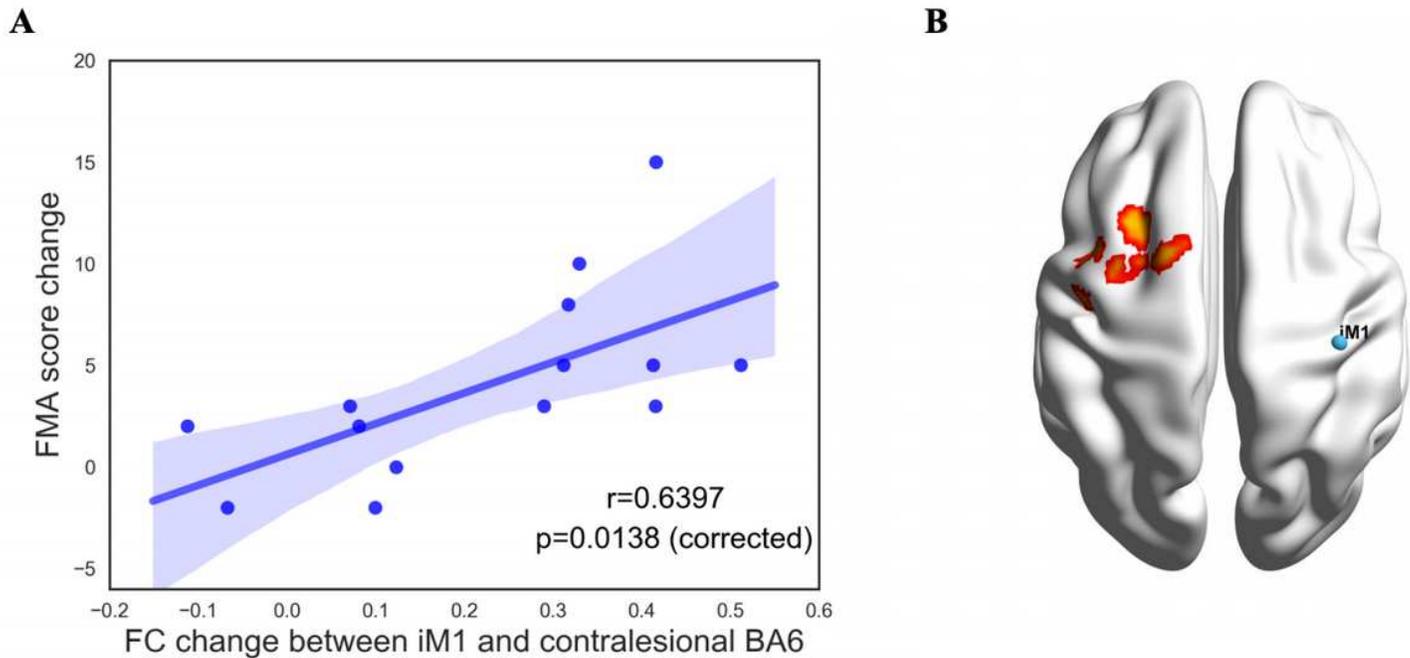


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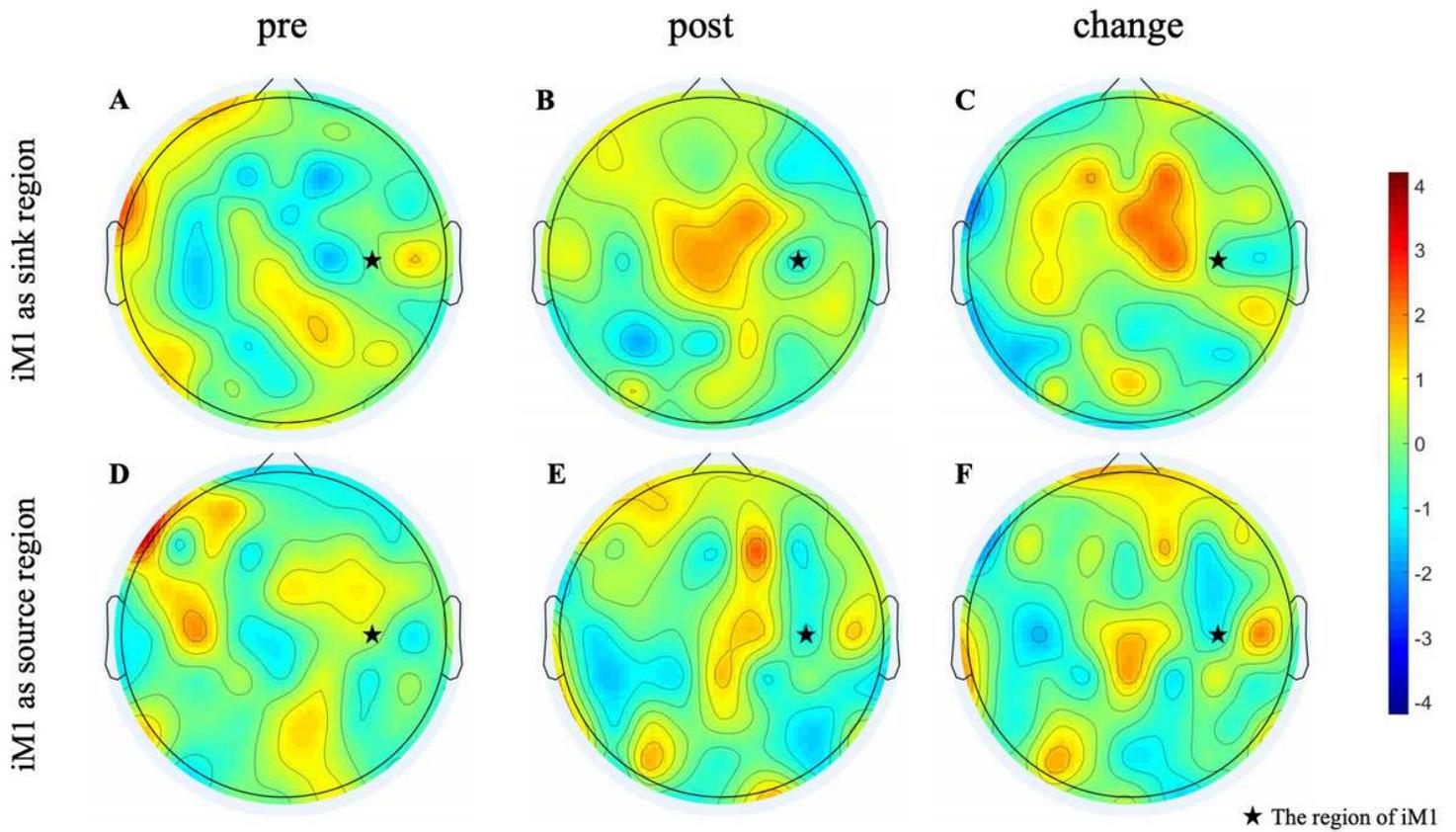


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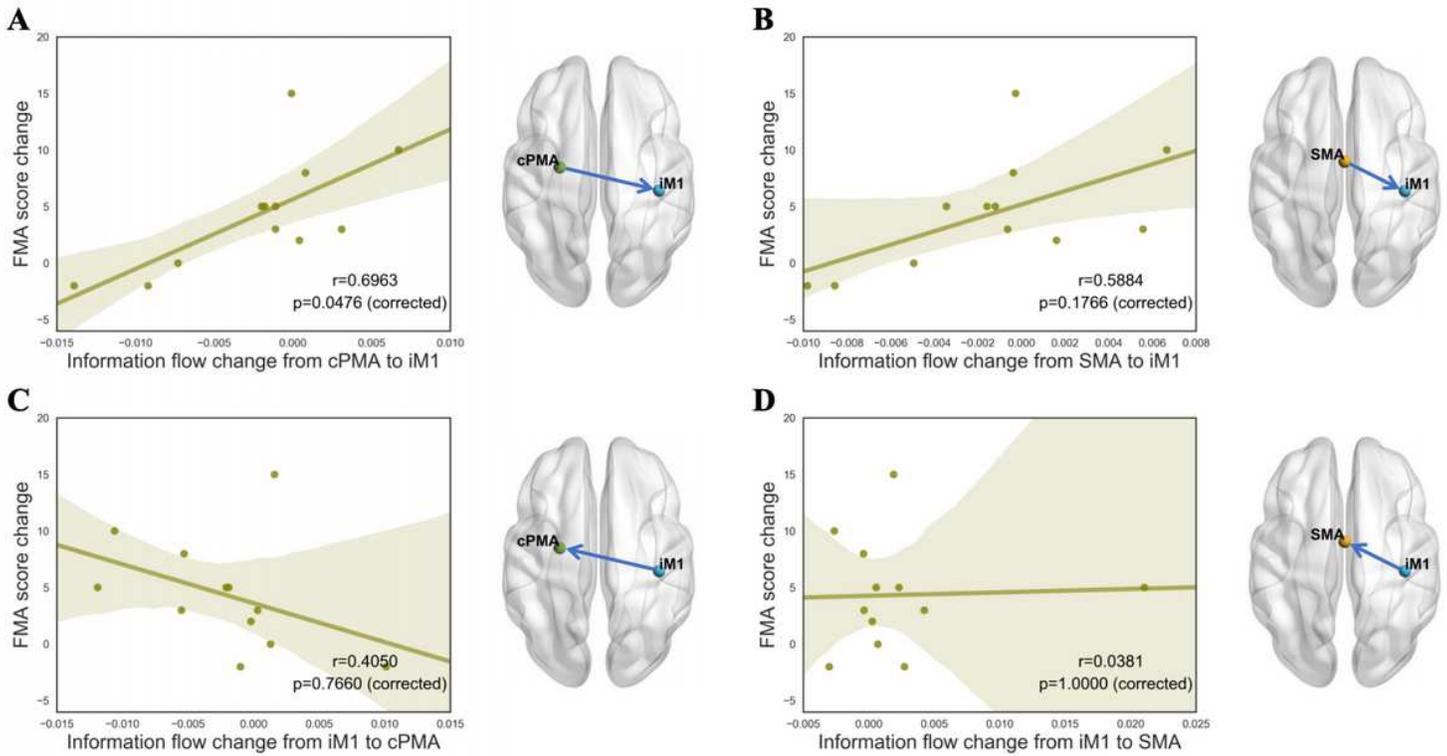


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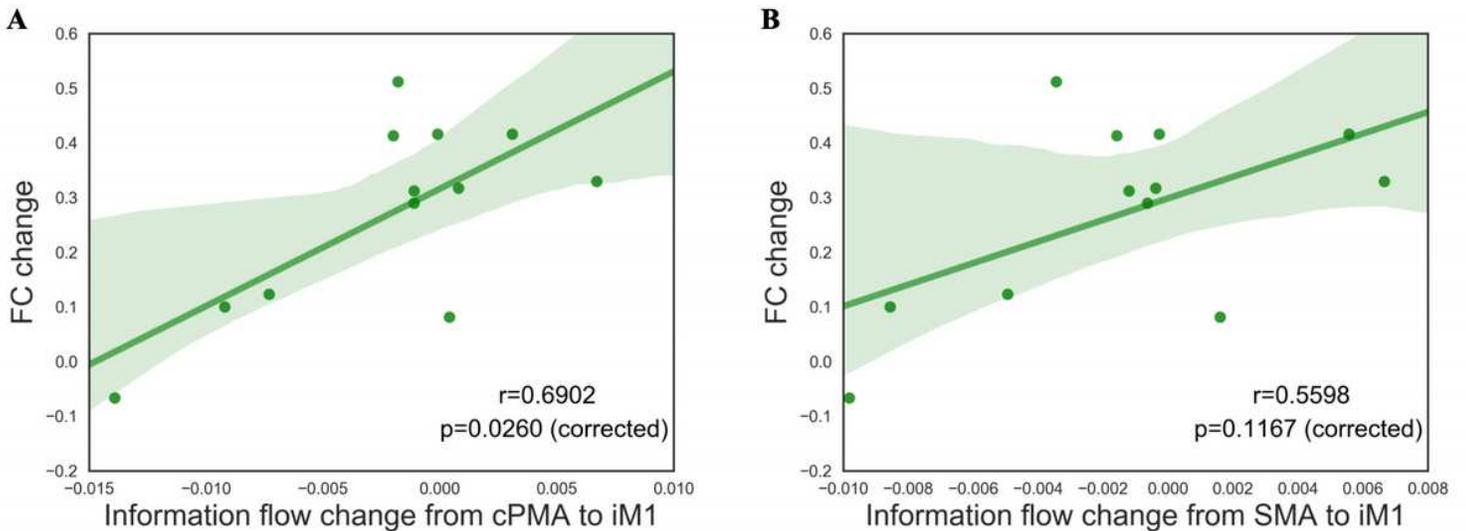


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