



Recording and low-level processing of electrical brain activity

François Cabestaing



BioComp 2019, Lille, May 13-15

why do we develop brain-computer interfaces?





talk outline

G

brain-computer interface

- 2 measuring electrical brain activity
- recorded electrical signals
- Iow-level processing of brain signals





neuroprosthesis vs. brain-computer interface

neuroprosthesis

- prosthesis aiming at palliation of a sensory disability sensor → processing → electrical stimulation of nerve endings requires surgery (usually reversible)
- \bullet auditory neuroprosthesis: cochlear implant microphone \rightarrow selective amplification \rightarrow stimulation of auditory nerves
- visual neuroprosthesis
 camera → image → stimulation of retinal ganglion cells

 February 2014: FDA and CE agreements to the « Argus 2 » visual neuroprosthesis

brain-computer interface

a direct brain-computer interface is a device that provides the brain with a new, non-muscular communication and control channel (Wolpaw, 2002)



BCI timeline

- 1929 electroencephalogram (Berger)
- 1965 discovery of cognitive evoked potentials (Desmedt & Sutton)
- 1973 brain-computer interface concept (Vidal)
- 1988 first BCI using evoked potentials (Farwell & Donchin) ٠
- 1991 first BCI allowing a continuous 1D cursor control (Wolpaw)

Vidal

- 2004 2D electrode matrix implanted in the motor cortex (BrainGate & Donoghue)
- 2013 brain-to-brain interface between two rats (Nicolelis)
- 2015 exoskeleton for persons with tetraplegia, Wimagine implant (Benabid)



Berger



Desmedt



Donchin









Benabid



Wolpaw

5/26

イロト イロト イヨト イヨ

how does it work?



today's focus



measuring brain activity

metabolic or electrical activity

- blood flow and characteristics depends on the activity of neurons and other brain cells
- blood oxygenation level dependent (BOLD) imaging: fMRI
- oxy or deoxy-hemoglobin modifies near infrared spectrum properties: fNIRS



- electrical activities of single neurons or of neural networks varies with brain state
- single unit (neuron) activity: recording ionic currents with patch-clamps
- short or long distance influence of electrical activity: extracellular recordings



• • • • • • • • • • • • •

measuring brain electrical activity



electro-corticography



electro-encephalography





invasive intra-cranial recording (1/2)



implanted electrodes

single electrode or grid of electrodes implanted into the cortex

- excellent spatial resolution, single neuron or groups of limited size
- highly invasive approach, very delicate surgery
- correct stability, accurate recording during several months



"Utah" grid



integrated amplifiers



invasive intra-cranial recording (2/2)



ECoG: Electro-CorticoGram

grid of electrodes over/under the dura mater

- average spatial resolution, a few millimeters
- invasive approach, but relatively "simple" surgery
- excellent stability, accurate recordings during several years



sub-dural grid



non-invasive recording: EEG

EEG: Electro-EncephaloGram

- set of electrodes over the scalp
 - poor spatial resolution, a few centimeters
 - non-invasive approach, a priori no risk
 - limited recording duration, a few hours at the maximum







12/26

neurons: elementary sources

where does the voltage come from?

synaptic potentials

- voltage difference across the membrane of a post-synaptic neuron
- increases after action of excitatory synapses and decreases after action of inhibitory synapses



action potential (or spike, or nerve impulse)

- change of polarity across the membrane of the neuron axon that propagates down from the cell body
- very fast variation (1~2 ms)



Image: A math a math



basic model of local field potential

single electrode and single neuron

- the neuron generates a transmembrane current I(t) that propagates in the brain matter
- ullet the brain matter is considered isotropic and purely resistive, with conductivity σ
- the distance between the current source I(t) and the electrode is d

then the voltage V(t) measured by the electrode is given by: $V(t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\sigma} \frac{l(t)}{d}$

single electrode and multiple neurons

- neuron number k generates a transmembrane current $l_k(t)$
- the distance between current source $I_k(t)$ and the electrode is d_k

$$\ell(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{4\pi\sigma} \frac{I_k(t)}{d_k}$$



more realistic models

brain ma<u>tter</u>

- in fact σ varies with frequency and the brain matter acts like a low pass filter
- the power spectrum of signals has a 1/f shape at low frequencies and $1/f^3$ at high frequencies
- many models have been proposed to explain this behavior, but this is beyond the scope of this talk

spikes vs. local field potential

in practice:

- current sources nearby the recording electrode produce a voltage with a time course similar to a pulse (spike) visible in the signal
- current sources far from the recording electrode produce an "average voltage" called local field potential (LFP).

but patterns appear in the LFP only when a significant number of sources have *correlated* activities (i.e. when neuron synaptic or post-synaptic potential variations are synchronized)



surface electro-encephalography (EEG)



Bear et al., Neuroscience: Exploring the Brain

complex model

- surface EEG: combination of postsynaptic potentials of a very large number of cortical neurons (pyramidal cells) forming a group called macro-column (at least 10⁵ neurons)
- the low-pass effect of brain matter, cerebrospinal fluid, dura mater, skull bone and finally skin, is extremely strong. Only low-frequency components can be recorded
- many noise sources can decrease the quality of EEG signals, but mainly electromagnetic noise and muscular activity (artifacts) are considered in general
- measurement quality also depends on the contact impedance of electrodes



processing levels



spikes and local field potential (LFP)

two different processing chains

simple assumption already mentioned: recorded signal is a combination of LFP in "low" frequencies and spikes in "high" frequencies

- low-pass filtering removes spikes and yields the LFP signal
- high-pass filtering removes LFP and yields the "spike train" signal





estimation of spike sources: "spike sorting"

- assumption: each neuron brings a specific contribution to the composite measured voltage
- different parameters: distance, axon shape, myelin sheath shape and thickness, etc.
- result: spike "shapes" are different for different neurons: allows estimating single neuron activities
- alternate model: a third category of contribution is considered called "multi-unit activity"





processing LFP and EEG signals

evoked vs. ongoing activity

- a specific brain activity is evoked by an external stimulus
- the "brain response" is supposed to be time-locked to the stimulus onset
- signal processing is generally performed in the original space and time domains



- brain activity is self-controlled or evoked by endogenous stimuli
- no time reference is available in the signals: time domain analysis is complex
- signal processing is performed in the frequency or spatio-frequency domains



example of LFP signal

• signal recorded in the primary motor cortex during hand movement





processing EEG signals



artifact removal

artifact sources:

- internal: eye movements, eye blinks, heart beats (EKG), electrical muscle activity (EMG)
- external or measurement related: electrode contact impedance, electro-magnetic noise, line (50 Hz)

additive direct model:

$$x(t) = lpha s(t) + \sum_{j=1}^{J} lpha_j n_k(t), ext{ where } n_j(t) ext{ is the } j^{th} ext{ artifact source}$$

solution of the inverse problem:

- for J artifact sources, record at least J + 1 surface signals $s_i(t)$
- source "demixing" approach to estimate independent components, assuming that neural sources and artifact source are uncorrelated

Image: A matching of the second se



Image: A math a math

example of artifact removal on EEG signals

- EEG signals recorded on the scalp at various locations
- electro-oculogram recorded with an electrode on the upper eyelid



processing EEG signals



estimating and locating sources

additive direct model, I measurements for J sources:

for each
$$i \in (1 \cdots l), x_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^J \alpha_{ij} s_j(t) + n_i(t)$$

or $\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{As}(t) + \mathbf{n}(t)$, with

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = (x_i(t)) \in \mathbb{R}^l, \ \mathbf{A} = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{l imes J}, \ \mathbf{s}(t) = (s_j(t)) \in \mathbb{R}^J$$

many approaches to solving the ill-posed inverse problem:

- dipolar sources: estimate the positions and orientations of a small number of dipoles (ECD, MUSIC)
- distributed sources: estimate the amplitudes and orientations of dipoles on a grid (MNE, LORETA, sLORETA)



example of source localization on EEG signals

- high resolution (256) EEG signals, then different levels of subsampling to simulate lower resolution
- source localization with MUSIC (recursive multiple signal classification)



Isabelle Merlet, EEG source localization in epilepsy, 2018



increasing the number of channels and the information rate

bi-directional high-speed BCls: closing the loop



diamond micro-electrodes

- many outputs from brain to actuators, ex: motion control with a large number of degrees of freedom
- many inputs from sensors to brain, ex: sensory feedback, proprioception, strength measurement
- bio-compatible implanted electrodes for recording as well as stimulating

signal processing challenge

- high speed processing: closer sources (ex: spikes) mean higher sampling and processing rates
- power consumption and power source: embedding processors in the recording or stimulating device is an issue



A D K A B K A B K A B