

Phase-Locking Factor in a Motor Imagery Brain-Computer Interface

Carlos Carreiras^{1,3}, Luís Borges de Almeida² and J. Miguel Sanches^{1,3} *Sr. Member, IEEE*,

Abstract—A Brain-Computer Interface (BCI) attempts to create a direct channel of communication between the brain and a computer. This is especially important for patients that are "locked in", as they have limited motor function and thus require an alternative means of communication. In this scope, a BCI can be controlled through the imagination of motor tasks, i.e. Motor Imagery. This thinking of actions produce changes on the ongoing Electroencephalogram (EEG), such as the so called Event-Related Desynchronization (ERD), that can be detected and measured. Traditionally, ERD is measured through the estimation of EEG signal power in specific frequency bands. In this work, a new method based on the phase information from the EEG channels, through the Phase-Locking Factor (PLF), is proposed. Both feature types were tested in real data obtained from 6 voluntary subjects, who performed 7 motor tasks in an EEG session. The features were classified using Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifiers organized in a hierarchical structure. The results show that the PLF features are better, with an average accuracy of $\approx 86\%$, against an accuracy of $\approx 70\%$ for the band power features. Although more research is still needed, the PLF measure shows promising results for use in a BCI system.

I. INTRODUCTION

Currently, patients suffering from severe motor disabilities, such as Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis, lack the ability to effectively communicate and perform day-to-day tasks, although their cognitive capabilities are, for the most part, intact. For this reason, research in Brain-Computer Interfaces (BCI) is essential to improve the quality of life of these patients, providing a new means to interact with the world directly from the brain via a computer, or a machine.

A BCI is defined as a system that measures and analyses brain signals and converts them in real time into outputs that do not depend on the normal pathways of peripheral nerves and muscles [1]. In order to have successful BCI operation, a closed loop of information is necessary between two adaptive controllers: the user, who produces specific brain signals that encode intent, and the BCI, which translates these signals into outputs that accomplish the user's intent [2]. This work focuses on the signal processing algorithms necessary to decode the brain signals generated by the

imagination of motor tasks. With this in mind, the appropriate physiological properties were investigated, namely Event-Related Desynchronization (ERD) and Event-Related Synchronization (ERS) [5], and two approaches were used to identify them in the Electroencephalogram (EEG). While the first approach uses the signals' power in specific frequency bands, the second uses the concept of the Phase-Locking Factor (PLF), a measure of synchronization between two signals.

II. NEUROPHYSIOLOGY OF MOTOR TASKS

In order to operate a BCI users have to acquire conscious control over their brain activity [3]. One way of doing so is by concentrating on a specific mental task, such as a motor task. It has been shown that the imagination of movements (i.e. simulating movements in the mind without actually performing them) originates similar EEG patterns as actual movement [4]. The Primary Motor Cortex (PMC) is the area of the brain responsible for executing movements. The most characteristic brain oscillation (visible in the EEG) arising from this area is the μ rhythm (8 - 12 Hz). This rhythm is modulated by the tasks of preparation, observation or imagination of movement, which induce time-locked changes in the activity of neuronal populations. Note that instead of one uniform rhythm, the sensorimotor area generates a variety of rhythms that have specific functional and topographic properties [4]. As such, a certain motor task represents frequency specific changes of the ongoing EEG, which can either be an increase in power (termed Event-Related Synchronization - ERS) or a decrease in power (Event-Related Desynchronization - ERD).

ERD and ERS reflect the changing dynamics between main neurons and interneurons that control the frequency components of the ongoing EEG [5]. While ERD is correlated with activated cortical areas, ERS α band rhythms during mental inactivity introduce inhibitory effects. Note that the PMC has a very specific organization, with each part of the body clearly mapped to a region of the PMC, as can be seen in Figure 1.

Put shortly, a certain motor task induces ERD over the corresponding cortical area while there is ERS in unrelated areas. This implies that the resting (inactive) state of the motor cortex corresponds to a widespread and highly synchronized rhythm, which, during a motor task, loses synchrony over the task specific region. Thus, it is expected that EEG channels located over the task's cortical area lose coherence from the other channels. From this, it can be

This work was supported by the FCT project [PEst-OE/EEI/LA0009/2011] and FCT project "Detection of Brain Microstates in Fibromyalgia" (PTDC/SAU-BEB/104948/2008).

¹Institute for Systems and Robotics, IST, Lisbon, Portugal.

²Telecommunications Institute, IST, Lisbon, Portugal.

³Department of Bioengineering, Instituto Superior Técnico / Technical University of Lisbon, 1040-001 Lisbon, Portugal.

Emails: Carlos Carreiras: carlos.carreiras at ist.utl.pt, J. Miguel Sanches: jmrs at ist.utl.pt, Luís Borges de Almeida: luis.almeida at lx.it.pt

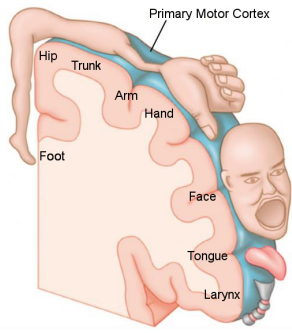


Fig. 1. Degree of representation of the different muscles of the body in the motor cortex.

understood that ERD/ERS is the fundamental physiological property to be detected in a motor imagination BCI system.

III. METHODS

A. Experimental Setup

The acquired signals consist of EEG data from 6 subjects (2 female, 4 male, ages (22.3 ± 0.5) years, all right handed). The subjects, fitted with a 64-electrodes cap (10-20 system) connected to a Brain Products' QuickAmp amplifier, were comfortably sitting in a chair in front of a CRT computer screen, which conducted them throughout the experiment. The cue-based BCI paradigm consisted of seven different motor tasks: no movement (CC), movement of the feet (left and right – LF, RF), movement of the legs (left and right – LL, RL) and movement of the hands (left and right – LH, RH).

One session was recorded for each subject. The sessions comprised two runs, separated by a short break. Each run consisted of two groups of trials, being the first group dedicated to actual realization of the above motor tasks, while in the second group users were asked to imagine the motor tasks. Each group comprised three cycles through the motor tasks. Each trial started with the presentation of a fixation cross over a blank screen. After 1 s a figure appeared indicating the motor task to be executed, lasting for 4 s. At the end of this period both the fixation cross and figure are replaced with a relaxation indication, giving the subjects the opportunity to blink, lasting for 2 s. A final blank screen (1 s) allowed the transition to the next trial. See Figure 2 for a graphical representation of the trial structure.

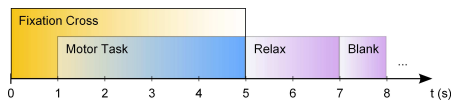


Fig. 2. Structure of a trial of the EEG recording sessions.

B. Signal Preprocessing

The raw EEG signals were bandpass filtered between 5 Hz and 45 Hz. Subsequently, the trials were isolated and ordered. From the original set of electrodes a subset of 14 channels was selected over the Primary Motor Cortex

(channels C5A through C6A, and C5 through C6). For this subset a small Laplacian filter was applied to each channel taking into account its four nearest neighbors. No artifacts were removed.

C. Band Power Features

The classic method to identify and measure ERD/ERS is by computing the power of the input signals in specific frequency bands. To do so there are several different techniques currently used in the development of BCI systems, such as the method employed by Pfurtscheller and Lopes da Silva in [5] (by bandpass filtering and squaring the amplitude samples of the EEG), using the Fourier Transform [6] or using autoregressive models [7], [8].

Here the power spectrum is computed from the preprocessed EEG signals using the Fourier Transform in windows of 256 ms (128 samples) with 50% overlap. For each window the average power in the frequency band between 8 Hz and 15 Hz is obtained and the resulting time course is then smoothed.

D. Phase-Locking Factor Features

As discussed, ERD arising from a motor task results from the loss of synchronization that specific brain areas, involved in the production of movement, experience during activity. This provides a framework on which to base the development of alternative methods of identifying ERD/ERS in the EEG. The main idea is that the analysis of the signals' phase could provide additional information to locate and identify motor tasks in the EEG.

This is not the first attempt at incorporating phase information into the analysis of mental activity. For instance, a group of features called Complex Band Power (CBP) features is described in [9], where the phase is extracted from the Fourier Transform.

A similar approach to the CBP features is used in the definition of the Phase-Locking Factor (PLF). Given two oscillators with phases $\phi_i[n]$ and $\phi_k[n]$, $n = 1, \dots, N$ (with N the number of discrete time samples), the PLF is defined as [10]:

$$Q_{ik} = \left| \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N e^{j(\phi_i[n] - \phi_k[n])} \right| \quad (1)$$

This measure ranges from 0 to 1. While the value $Q_{ik} = 1$ corresponds to perfect synchronization between the two signals (constant phase lag), the value $Q_{ik} = 0$ corresponds to no synchronization (phases are not correlated). Put simply, the PLF assesses whether the difference between the phases of the oscillators are strongly or weakly clustered around some angle in the complex unitary circle. In this work, the phase information is extracted from the EEG signals through the concept of Analytical Signals, which is done by applying the Hilbert transform to the signal. Given a real signal $x(t)$, the corresponding analytical signal $z(t)$ is obtained as is shown in Equation 2, where $*$ denotes the convolution operator. The imaginary part of this equation is the Hilbert transform of $x(t)$, $\mathcal{H}_t\{x\}$.

$$z(t) = x(t) + j \left[x(t) * \frac{1}{\pi t} \right] \quad (2)$$

As the PLF is a measure of synchronization between two signals, 37 pairs of EEG channels were selected¹. Each pair was processed with a sliding window of 256 *ms* (128 samples) with 50% overlap. In each window, the phases were extracted from both signals of the pair (through their analytical signals), and the PLF was computed between them. This implies that, for each window of the pair's signals, there is one PLF value. The resulting time course is also smoothed.

E. Classification

The identification of ERD/ERS in a motor task trial is done using a thresholding technique, applied to the features' time-course. The threshold is automatically obtained from the mean and variance of the first second of the trial, which is used as a baseline. Note that this technique is intended to find areas of the signal that are noticeably below, as measured by the threshold value, the initial one second period, thus identifying ERD. The final outcome of this step is that it is now possible to select all the feature vectors that will be used as labeled data for training in the classification step.

The actual classification of the features uses Support Vector Machines (SVM). As the SVM classifier is defined for a two-class problem, a hierarchical approach was taken to classify the entirety of the seven tasks. The hierarchical classifier, as depicted in Figure 3, uses a sequence of classifiers, with each distinguishing between two classes.

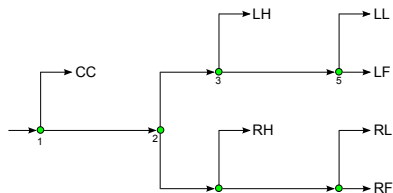


Fig. 3. Hierarchical SVM classifier for all classes; dots represent a SVM; first letter: L - left, R - right; second letter: F - foot, H - hand, L - leg; CC - no movement/imagination.

In order to evaluate the performance of the classifiers, the Leave-One-Out Cross Validation (LOOCV) method was used. With this method, the training is performed using all but one of the training examples, and the classifier is tested using the excluded sample. This is repeated until all the training examples have been used once for testing. Although the LOOCV method is rather computationally heavy, it allows to train the classifier with the maximum amount of data, and to test it over the entire dataset.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A comparison of both types of features studied in this work is presented in Figures 4 and 5.

In Figure 4, a subject is performing imagination of right hand movement. The top part shows the spectrogram for

¹Each channel paired with its neighbors (31 pairs), and with the contralateral channel, e.g. C3 with C4 (6 pairs)

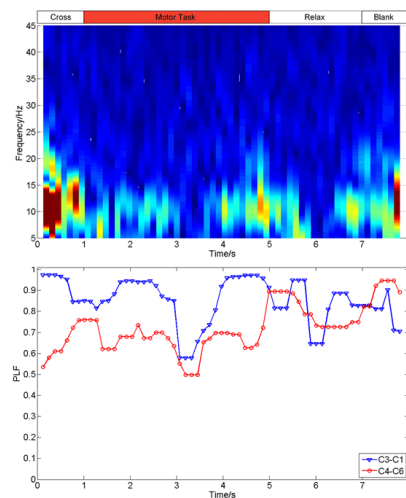


Fig. 4. Subject performing imagination of right hand movement; Top: spectrogram of channel C3; Bottom: time-course of PLF features for the pairs C3-C1 and C4-C6.

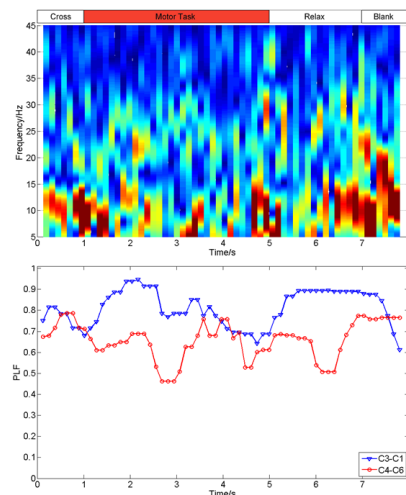


Fig. 5. Subject performing imagination of left hand movement; Top: spectrogram of channel C4; Bottom: time-course of PLF features for the pairs C3-C1 and C4-C6.

channel C3 (over the cortical area related to the task), while the bottom part shows the time-courses of the PLF features for the electrode pairs C3-C1 (related to the task) and C4-C6 (contralateral to the task). It is possible to observe that, between $t = 3 s$ and $t = 4 s$ there is ERD in the spectrogram, which is mirrored in the PLF features, particularly for the pair C3-C1. In Figure 5, the same subject is performing imagination of left hand movement. Here, the top part shows the spectrogram for channel C4 (over the cortical area related to the task), while the bottom part shows the time-courses for the same PLF features as before, but now C3-C1 is contralateral to the task while C4-C6 is related to the task. In the spectrogram it may be harder to identify the ERD produced by the mental task (before $t = 3 s$), but with PLF features it becomes apparent. Note that in this it is the pair C4-C6 that is more reactive to that task, whereas with the

right hand task it was the C3-C1 pair. So the identified PLF decreases occur precisely in the channels that one would expect to be more important for the identification of a right hand (pair C3-C1) and a left hand (C4-C6) motor task.

The global accuracy of the classifier, using the LOOCV method, is presented in Table I, for both types of features and for the actual and imagined movement tasks.

TABLE I
ACCURACY RESULTS (PERCENTAGE) OF THE HIERARCHICAL CLASSIFIER WITH BOTH THE BAND POWER FEATURES (BPF) AND THE PLF FEATURES (PLFF), FOR THE ACTUAL (ACT.) AND IMAGINED (IM.) MOVEMENT TASKS.

Subject	BPF		PLFF	
	Act.	Im.	Act.	Im.
S1	64.24	67.95	87.18	87.54
S2	64.62	65.83	86.99	86.03
S3	75.05	75.92	89.67	87.38
S4	76.81	77.29	84.86	86.30
S5	67.08	74.94	86.45	85.74
S6	64.20	69.25	84.31	85.06
Average	68.67	71.86	86.58	86.34

The results shown in Table I allow to conclude that the PLF features are better, with an average accuracy of 86.6% and 86.3%, for the actual and imagined tasks, respectively, against an average accuracy of 68.7% and 71.9% for the band power features. This difference is due to the more robust theoretical formulation of the PLF features, which appear to be more immune to noise than the band power features. For these last features it is evident a trend where the imagined tasks produce higher accuracies than the actual tasks. This is probably due to the fact that the trials with actual movement contain more artifacts than the imagined trials, in particular when the subject has to move the legs. This trend is not visible for the PLF features, accentuating the notion that they are less susceptible to noise.

Despite the good results obtained, these could be improved upon if the thresholding method, used to select the time instants when the task is actually being performed, was more robust, as the performance of the classifier is directly dependent on the training data. The problem here is that the ERD event is expected to occur in a localized region of the brain, although there is some spreading to other areas. This makes the definition of a single threshold that fits all the motor tasks very difficult. A more clever way of doing this would be the use of some kind of Blind Source Separation, attempting to separate the information relative to each type of task, as is explored, with synthetic data, in [10]. Additionally, the reference segment, i.e., the first second of the trial, is not long enough to obtain good statistics to compute a baseline to be compared with the rest of the trial. And, finally, the threshold does not automatically adapt to the signal within the motor task period. Nevertheless, the method served its purpose without the need to use more complex techniques.

V. CONCLUSION

The most important conclusion to extract from the work developed is that a BCI system based on the use of PLF

features is better than an equivalent system based on power band features, considering the limited data available. Furthermore, the system is capable of distinguishing between seven different motor tasks, which is unusual for this type of approach. Nevertheless, more research is still needed, and much remains to be done in order to attain the next step, which is to adapt this system into a real-time, fully functional, application. To do so, some changes would need to be made to the signal processing steps. For instance, all implementations should be as computationally efficient as possible, in order to minimize the response delay of the system. In this respect, the processing window, here chosen with a length of 256 ms, should also be smaller, but long enough to provide useful information for the classification. In regard to the training of the classifier, an off-line approach, like the one used here, could be implemented in the beginning of the session, although the acquisition conditions change over time and, therefore, it would be necessary to use an adaptive approach, retraining the classifier as new information arrives. Finally, a good feedback system has to be incorporated in order for the user to understand clearly what the BCI is doing.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work would not be possible without the collaboration of the Centro de Electroencefalografia e Neurofisiologia Clínica and in particular Prof. Teresa Paiva, who provided the equipment and venue for the EEG acquisitions.

REFERENCES

- [1] J. R. Wolpaw, N. Birbaumer, W. J. Heetderks, D. J. McFarland, P. H. Peckham, G. Schalk, E. Donchin, L. A. Quatrano, C. J. Robson, and T. M. Vaughan, "Brain-computer interface technology: A review of the first international meeting," *IEEE Transactions on Rehabilitation Engineering*, vol. 8, pp. 164–173, 2000.
- [2] J. N. Mak and J. R. Wolpaw, "Clinical applications of brain-computer interfaces: Current state and future prospects," *IEEE Reviews in Biomedical Engineering*, vol. 2, pp. 187–199, 2009.
- [3] U. Hoffmann, J. Vesin, and T. Ebrahimi, "Recent advances in brain-computer interfaces," in *IEEE 9th Workshop on Multimedia Signal Processing*, 2007.
- [4] S. Halder, D. Agorastos, R. Veit, E. M. Hammer, S. Lee, B. Varkuti, M. Bogdan, W. Rosenstiel, N. Birbaumer, and A. Kübler, "Neural mechanisms of brain-computer interface control," *NeuroImage*, vol. 55, pp. 1779 – 1790, 2011.
- [5] G. Pfurtscheller and F. H. Lopes da Silva, "Event-related EEG/MEG synchronization and desynchronization: basic principles," *Clinical Neurophysiology*, vol. 110, pp. 1842 – 1857, 1999.
- [6] A. Bashashati, M. Fatourehchi, and R. K. Ward, "A survey of signal processing algorithms in brain-computer interfaces based on electrical brain signals," *Journal of Neural Engineering*, vol. 4, pp. R32–R57, 2007.
- [7] D. J. McFarland and J. R. Wolpaw, "Sensorimotor rhythm-based brain-computer interface (BCI): model order selection for autoregressive spectral analysis," *Journal of Neural Engineering*, vol. 5, pp. 155–162, 2008.
- [8] A. R. Murguialday, V. Aggarwal, A. Chatterjee, Y. Cho, R. Rasmussen, B. O'Rourke, S. Acharya, and N. V. Thakor, "Brain-computer interface for a prosthetic hand using local machine control and haptic feedback," in *Proceedings of the 2007 IEEE 10th International Conference on Rehabilitation Robotics*, 2007.
- [9] G. Townsend and Y. Feng, "Using phase information to reveal the nature of event-related desynchronization," *Biomedical Signal Processing and Control*, vol. 3, pp. 192–202, 2008.
- [10] M. Almeida, J. Bioucas-Dias, and R. Vigário, "Source separation of phase-locked subspaces," in *Proceedings of the International Conference on Independent Component Analysis and Signal Separation*, vol. 5441, 2009, pp. 203–210.