

# Emerging Trends in BCI-Robotics for Motor Control and Rehabilitation

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## Abstract

Neuroengineering research over the last two decades has demonstrated promising evidence on the use of Brain Computer Interface (BCI) to enhance functional recovery and independence in individuals with motor impairments. By translating brain activity, BCI bypasses the impaired neuromotor system, to control computers/machines. BCI-controlled robots are designed for motor assistance to aid paralysed patients as well as for rehabilitation to enhance motor recovery. In this article, we review the advances in BCI and brain controlled robotics for rehabilitation and assistance of upper and lower limb motor functions over the last five years. The article emphasizes on the emerging trends in BCI-controlled robotics to expand its intervention capabilities as well as to resolve existing challenges hindering its widespread clinical use.

*Keywords:* Brain Computer Interface, Robotics, Stroke Rehabilitation, Neuromotor control

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## 1. Introduction

Brain Computer Interface (BCI) is an emerging neurotechnology that has demonstrated promising potential to enhance the quality of life of people with neuromuscular disorders resulting from stroke, spinal cord injury (SCI) and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS). Leveraging the advances in neuroscience, robotics and machine learning, BCI research over the past two decades has demonstrated its application as prosthetic, assistive and rehabilitation technology to replace, assist and augment or restore the lost motor functionality of the brain respectively. Assistive and prosthetic technology employ a straightforward implementation of BCI-robotics in which the brain activity elicited by the user is translated into a control output for a robot that executes the intended task [1] thereby imparting independence to the users. Rehabilitation technology employs a more complex neurophysiologically guided design which facilitates neuroplasticity as a result of operant conditioning feedback delivered through

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15 robot-guided movement of the affected limb contingent upon detecting neuro-  
16 motor activity by BCI [2]. This mode of BCI rehabilitation has demonstrated  
17 evidence of neuromodulation and resultant augmentation in motor outcome for  
18 stroke survivors who have reached a functional plateau following traditional  
19 rehabilitation [3].

20 The key components of a BCI-robotic system are task-specific brain acti-  
21 vation patterns, brain data acquisition, brain decoding machine learning tools  
22 and control/feedback device. Overall clinical efficacy of BCI-robotics heavily  
23 rely on how closely the robot movement correlates with the intended move-  
24 ment which in turn relies on the robustness of BCI determined by brain signal  
25 quality and the performance of decoding tools [2]. Although invasive intracor-  
26 tical recordings offer more reliable brain data with better spatial resolution [4],  
27 the surgical risks in this approach have encouraged most researchers to focus  
28 on non-invasive recordings such as Electroencephalography (EEG). The mental  
29 state employed by BCI is the kinesthetic imagination/attempt to move the tar-  
30 get limb to facilitate cortical reorganization of the lesioned hemisphere [2, 5].  
31 BCIs operated using power modulations associated with inhibition of the con-  
32 tralateral side and excitation of the ipsilateral side have proven to be effective  
33 for post-stroke motor recovery [3, 6]. Furthermore, machine learning plays a  
34 critical role to generate fast, accurate, and reliable control signals that drive the  
35 robotic device. Several decoding algorithms have been proposed in EEG-BCI  
36 [7]. However, linear classifiers that decode sensorimotor rhythm based features  
37 are extensively used in BCI clinical studies. Furthermore, clinical study designs  
38 report the use of different techniques [8] to deliver contingent feedback to the  
39 user, by integrating BCI with robotic devices, electrical stimulation and virtual  
40 reality.

#### 41 *1.1. Related work*

42 Over the last 2 decades, several BCIs using variety of neural inputs, feedback  
43 modalities and experiment protocols have been reported. The most extensively  
44 explored application of BCI is post-stroke upper extremity (UE) rehabilita-  
45 tion and comprehensive reviews of this topic have been published recently in  
46 [6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. Additionally, [8, 15] reported meta-analyses evaluating  
47 the clinical effectiveness of BCI for stroke recovery. Robot assisted rehabili-  
48 tation, by itself, has shown to promote recovery by employing intensive and  
49 repetitive motor training. The robotic devices and exoskeletons that can po-  
50 tentially be coupled with BCI to be used in rehabilitation applications have  
51 been reviewed in [11, 16] for UE and [16, 17, 18, 19] for lower extremity (LE).  
52 Further, (PDE Baniqued et al., medRxiv doi: 10.1101/2019.12.11.19014571)  
53 reported a systematic review of post-stroke hand rehabilitation research using  
54 BCI-robotics. The BCI applications for neuromuscular degeneration and spinal  
55 code injury have been reviewed in [20, 21, 22].

#### 56 *1.2. Organization and overview*

57 In this paper, we focus on the recent studies within last 5 years that reported  
58 rehabilitative and assistive use of BCI-controlled robots that target upper and

59 lower extremities (UE/LE). We present the current state-of-the art stroke re-  
60 habilitation for UE/LE as well as research on tetraplegic patients to operate  
61 gait exoskeletons and prosthetic arms. In this paper, we emphasize on the  
62 recent technological innovations reported in BCI-robotics that show high po-  
63 tential for eventual clinical application. The research trends include the use  
64 of decoding tools such as deep neural networks, wearable robots including soft  
65 robotics, training protocols exploring BCI for priming and efficacy of other feed-  
66 back modalities and hybrid BCI systems supplemented with non-brain signals.  
67 Lastly, the challenges to be addressed in the current BCI and rehabilitation  
68 robotics and a few anticipated directions of future research are presented.

## 69 **2. BCI-robotics for UE motor rehabilitation**

70 In light of the devastating motor impairments resulting from stroke and its  
71 impact on the quality of life of the survivor, the most common focus of clinical  
72 application of BCI is post-stroke UE motor rehabilitation. The breakthrough  
73 report in this field was published over a decade ago [5] in which a Magne-  
74 toencephalography (MEG)-BCI controlled hand orthosis was used for stroke  
75 rehabilitation. The study reported that the users learnt to modulate their mu  
76 rhythm amplitude to achieve binary control of an orthosis, even though they  
77 could not achieve significant clinical improvement. Following this, a multitude  
78 of non-invasive BCIs were reported as an intervention tool in combination with  
79 feedback delivered using robot or orthosis. BCI for UE stroke rehabilitation  
80 have been reviewed and systematically evaluated in [9, 11, 6, 12, 13, 14].

81 Several controlled clinical trials investigating efficacy of BCI-robotics have  
82 reported intervention-induced UE motor improvement in terms of Fugl-Meyer  
83 Assessment (FMA) and Action Research Arm Test (ARAT). The studies how-  
84 ever vary in the patient demographics, impairment level and lesion location, the  
85 intensity and interval between experiment sessions and the type of robot (haptic  
86 knob [23], a orthotic device [24, 25, 26], hand exoskeleton [27, 28, 29, 30]). The  
87 proof-of-concept study in [24] reported that BCI training with contingent orthotic  
88 feedback prior to physiotherapy resulted in significant improvement of FMA in  
89 chronic stroke patients. The recent studies using BCI-robotics are listed in Ta-  
90 ble 1. These studies also explored the neurophysiological evidence of the effect  
91 of intervention and progression to motor recovery. To this end, [27, 29] reported  
92 evidence of intervention-induced cortical plasticity mechanisms as seen in func-  
93 tional and structural neuronal reorganization. Another topic explored is the  
94 long-lasting impact of BCI-intervention. Recent study in [25] reported signifi-  
95 cant FMA increment after BCI-robotics intervention in chronic stroke subjects  
96 and a 6 month follow-up revealed that the patients preserved their FMA scores.  
97 In [28], increment in both FMA and ARAT were reported after a repetitive  
98 intense rehabilitation during a 2-9 month follow-up after BCI-robotics interven-  
99 tion. A BCI-exoskeleton for elbow training was proposed in [30], which not only  
100 reported significant improvement in FMA and ARAT scores, but also reported  
101 improvement in post-therapy movement quality based on motion kinematics.  
102 Contrary to the classical BCI that trains grasp and reach movement, [contd.]

Table 1: BCI-robotics for post-stroke UE rehabilitation

Study	Number of patients	Robotic device	BCI training	Outcome
(Ramos et.al., 2019)[25]	28 chronic (BCI:16 & Control:12)	Hand & arm orthosis	20 sessions (2hrs/session, 5 sessions/week, 4 weeks)	BCI: Gain in cFMA ( $p=0.015$ ) at 6 months after intervention
(Wu et.al., 2020)[29]	25 subacute (BCI:11 & Control:14)	Hand exoskeleton	20 sessions (1hr/session, 5 sessions/week, 4 weeks)	BCI: Gain in FMA ( $16.93 \pm 2.56$ , $p < 0.05$ ) Inter-group differences $p < 0.05$ in FMA, ARAT, WMFT
(Frolov et. al., 2018)[27]	Case study 1 chronic	Hand exoskeleton	10 sessions (1 session/day, 2 weeks)	Gain in cFMA $> 5$ at 3 time points
(Carino et.al., 2019)[26]	9 subacute	Hand exoskeleton	12 sessions (1hr/session, 3 sessions/week, 4 weeks)	Gain in FMA for 6 out of 9 patients
(Kondur et.al., 2020)[28]	11 chronic	Hand orthosis	10 sessions (1 session/day, 2 weeks)	Gain in FMA and ARAT ( $p < 0.05$ ) at 2 time points
(Bhagat et. al., 2020)[30]	10 chronic	Elbow exoskeleton	12 sessions (2hrs/session, 3 sessions/per week, 4 weeks)	Gain in FMA ( $3.92 \pm 3.73$ ) and ARAT ( $5.35 \pm 4.62$ ), $p < 0.05$
(Cheng et. al., 2020)[31]	10 chronic (BCI:5 & Control:5)	Soft robotic glove	18 sessions (1.5hrs/session, 3 sessions/per week, 6 weeks)	BCI: Gain in FMA ( $p=0.0431$ ) No intergroup differences in FMA and ARAT

FMA: Upper-Limb Fugl-Meyer Assessment; cFMA: Combined hand and arm scores (motor part) from the modified FMA; ARAT: Action Research Arm Test; WMFT: Wolf Motor Function Test

103 [contd.] a BCI-based finger extension training for chronic stroke patients  
104 using a finger-individuated orthosis was reported in [32]. The results indicate  
105 that the subjects with higher modulation of sensorimotor rhythms (SMR) re-  
106 ported better functional outcomes and improved finger extension ability. This  
107 indicates the potential of BCI-robotics to integrate rehabilitation of gross and  
108 fine hand movements.

109 The BCI studies mentioned above use bulky and hard-bodied robots which  
110 are often expensive, require complex controls and restrict range of motion [33].  
111 Soft robots are class of robots that are light and wearable and employ flexible  
112 mounted actuators. Application of soft robots has been demonstrated to en-  
113 hance efficacy of hand rehabilitation [34]. Hence, by integrating soft robots with  
114 BCI, a non-restrictive, natural and realistic movement can be introduced in the  
115 feedback loop which may have a positive impact in intervention. A pilot study  
116 in this direction was presented in [31] which reported a stroke rehabilitation sys-  
117 tem integrating EEG-BCI control of a soft robotic glove and task-specific visual  
118 feedback. The study reported improvement in FMA and ARAT and provided  
119 evidence of a phenomenon of kinesthetic illusion in subjects. These findings  
120 need to be confirmed by large scale clinical trials, and neurological evidence for  
121 the link between perceived motor activity and actual motor recovery.

### 122 **3. BCI-driven exoskeleton for LE motor rehabilitation**

123 Post-stroke LE rehabilitation is a relatively less explored application of BCI.  
124 An efficient BCI design involves closed-loop accurate decoding of kinesthetic  
125 walking intention and imagery by BCI as well as real-time control of the robot  
126 (or exoskeleton). While the former is largely limited by yet non-optimized per-  
127 formance of LE decoding, the latter poses several safety risks. A few stud-  
128 ies in literature have demonstrated the feasibility of decoding lower limb joint  
129 kinematics and kinetics during walking using BCI. In [35, 36, 37], EEG was  
130 recorded as the participant performed robot-assisted gait training. In [35, 36]  
131 moderate LE joint kinematics decoding accuracies based on offline analyses were  
132 reported. A connectivity analysis in [37], reported significant improvement in  
133 gait performance in terms of functional ambulation capacity as well as in func-  
134 tional connectivity and sensorimotor plasticity following the gait training. The  
135 modulations in sensorimotor rhythms and movement related cortical potential  
136 associated with gait decoding performance have also been investigated in [38].  
137 Furthermore, as recently reviewed by [19], there is a lack of consensus regarding  
138 the spectral and temporal dynamics of neural encoding of gait patterns. This  
139 limits the use of non-invasive brain data for consistent and reliable gait decod-  
140 ing. Consequently, there are no clinical controlled trials conducted till date that  
141 demonstrate effectiveness of BCI-robotics in LE stroke rehabilitation. .

142 Nevertheless, recent reports on technological advances of BCI gait decoders  
143 promise high accuracy and potential for continuous gait decoding. Recently, [39]  
144 reported a rigorous comparison of several EEG-based gait decoding approaches  
145 to evaluate their feasibility in the design of an online decoding system. Based  
146 on the comparison of methods ranging from simple linear decoders to recurrent

147 neural networks (RNN), this study provided technical recommendations on how  
148 to attain precise control of BCI-based exoskeleton using variants of RNN based  
149 on offline benchmarking. Also, it is worth noting that, a recent study on healthy  
150 subjects using a long short-term memory (LSTM) deep neural network achieved  
151 robust reconstruction of gait [40] evaluated in both offline and online scenarios.

#### 152 **4. BCI-robotics for motor assistance**

153 BCI using invasive intracortical recordings have been shown to enable neu-  
154 ral control of a robotic arm as well as lower limb exoskeleton. A case study in  
155 [41] was the first report on using invasive-BCI that allowed a tetraplegic patient  
156 with SCI to continuously control a multi-joint robotic arm. Further studies  
157 have reported neuroprosthetic control of prosthetic arm by tetraplegic patients  
158 paralysed as a result of stroke [42] or ALS [43, 44]. The articles [20, 22, 21]  
159 comprehensively reviewed the application of BCI in paralysis as a communica-  
160 tion, control and rehabilitation tool. Following this, there has been an increased  
161 interest to design non-invasive BCI to control robotic arms with higher degrees  
162 of freedom for possible motor assistance as well as rehabilitation. This is in con-  
163 trast to the classical non-invasive BCI that rely only on uni/bidirectional motor  
164 control. Recent studies on non-invasive BCI have reported higher dimensional  
165 continuous motor control using novel decoding approaches as well as control  
166 strategies to tackle low signal-to-noise-ratio of non-invasive signals. The stud-  
167 ies have been evaluated in healthy individuals [45, 46, 47, 48] and in paralysed  
168 patients and amputees [49, 50].

169 A closed-loop prosthetic control by BCI was reported in [50] using EEG and  
170 in [49] using MEG. Recently, [45, 46], demonstrated accurate continuous control  
171 of a robotic arm with multiple degrees of freedom by combination of two sequen-  
172 tial low dimensional controls. In [48], an online BCI control of a virtual robot  
173 in a simulated environment using low frequency time domain movement-related  
174 cortical potentials was demonstrated. Further, two novel and unconventional  
175 research directions were reported in task strategy [51] and in control frame-  
176 work [52] of BCI. In contrast to the conventional collaborative tasks executed  
177 by BCI-robots, [51] reported a multitasking strategy by simultaneously control-  
178 ling a robotic arm using BCI while user’s own arm performed another task. In  
179 [52], a control framework for BCI-robot was presented that generated a contin-  
180 uous robot trajectory from a stream of discrete BCI outputs. These systems  
181 were evaluated by healthy subjects and the results indicated potential for better  
182 and realistic robotic control using BCI. The technological advances also include  
183 deep learning-powered BCI [47], that continuously controlled a robotic arm to  
184 six directions in a 3D space. The study reported a multi-directional convolution  
185 neural network-bidirectional LSTM network-based deep learning. With the in-  
186 tegration of these technological innovations, non-invasive BCI will be capable of  
187 a continuous and highly dexterous control to an assistive robotic device.

188 Studies that report BCI-control of LE exoskeleton have been reviewed in [17,  
189 53] and are limited to non-invasive BCI. Currently, the studies that demonstrate  
190 closed-loop BCI-LE exoskeleton [54, 38] detect gait intention of the SCI user to

191 trigger the movements of the exoskeleton. Several studies that report offline  
192 gait decoding (mentioned in Section 3), are yet to be evaluated in a real-time  
193 control scenario. Recent studies have also reported the use of steady state  
194 visually evoked potential (SSVEP) [55] and imagined hand movement [56] to  
195 control LE exoskeleton for healthy subjects.

## 196 **5. Conclusion and future prospects**

197 BCI research is currently at an exciting juncture, as several studies have  
198 confirmed its clinical impact and presented neurophysiological evidence for BCI-  
199 induced neuroplastic changes. While the potential of BCI is encouraging, with  
200 only limited number of clinical trials available, its intervention efficacy is only  
201 moderately conclusive at present. The clinically meaningful differences observed  
202 from small sample clinical trials are not generalizable and reports on impact of  
203 intervention in activities of daily living are limited. These factors hinder the  
204 translation of rehabilitation therapies into standard clinical practices. As men-  
205 tioned in Section 2, the design parameters in current BCI systems are largely  
206 heterogeneous. Hence, future research must consider standardization of the re-  
207 habilitation protocols to optimize the intervention effect, as well as confirm the  
208 effect size of BCI with large sample size and long-term studies [12, 13, 14, 15].  
209 Nevertheless, several promising results have been reported in recent publica-  
210 tions that merit further research and large scale validation. In this section, we  
211 discuss these technological trends to be considered that may further enhance  
212 the efficacy of BCI-robotics. An illustration of BCI-robotics framework for mo-  
213 tor rehabilitation and assistance is given in Fig. 1. The figure also lists the  
214 state-of-the-art design practices as well as emerging trends in BCI-robotics.

215 In rehabilitation BCI, several studies have reported priming the brain prior  
216 to intervention to enhance the overall functional outcome. Although some stud-  
217 ies [57, 58] have reported tDCS to potentiate the effects of BCI, very limited  
218 evidence is available on its efficacy [15]. Recently, pre-movement SMR training  
219 to enhance motor performance was demonstrated in healthy [22] and chronic  
220 stroke patients [32]. Further, intensive strategies by integrating BCI-robotics  
221 with other interventions such as BCI-neuromuscular electrical stimulation [15]  
222 and BCI-virtual reality [59] may be considered for positive impact. In motor  
223 assistance, several case studies have demonstrated continuous control of robots  
224 using invasive BCI. To improve the reliability of non-invasive BCI in delivering  
225 precise and accurate robotic-control, a solution proposed in literature is the use  
226 of hybrid or shared control [17, 60]. An autonomous control of hand exoskeleton  
227 by tetraplegic patients was demonstrated in [60] using hybrid system in which  
228 ocular activity supplemented the motor imagination based brain activity. Fur-  
229 ther, shared control strategy in which sensors mounted on robots to assist in  
230 making motor control decision [17] may also be considered.

231 One potential challenge in deployment of BCI-controlled robotics for clinical  
232 application is the acceptance and ease-of-use for the user. Whether it is move-  
233 ment generated by the robot or robot-guided movement of the limb, the efficacy  
234 of the system depends on whether the user perceives a realistic movement and

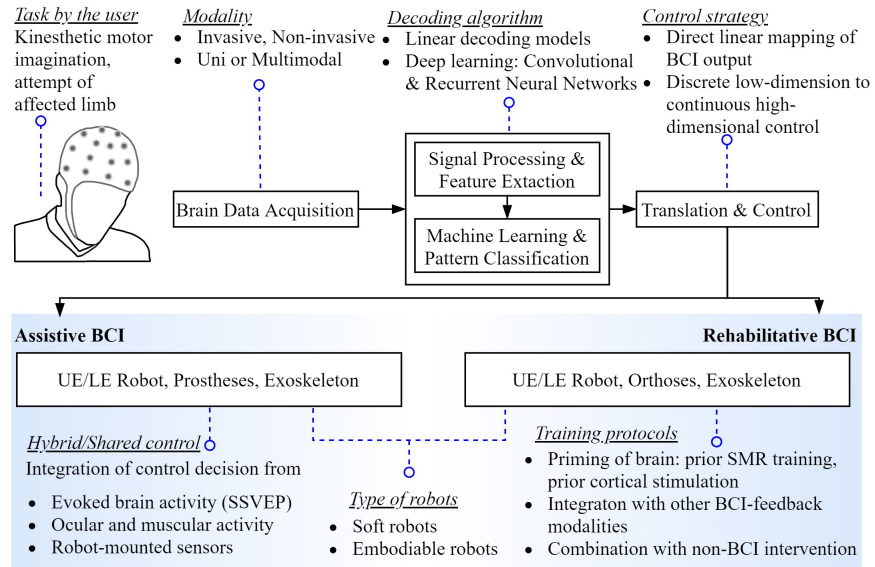


Figure 1: **Schematic of BCI-robotics system.** BCI system employs invasive and non-invasive modalities to acquire neural activities generated when the user performs a motor task. The signal processing and machine learning tools then extract relevant features from the acquired signals. A control signal to operate a robotic device is generated by classification and translation of these features. Assistive BCI enables the user to control movement of robots. Rehabilitative BCI facilitates robot-guided motor training and targets recovery of neuromotor function of the user. The research and advances in each component that merits further investigation are listed.

235 can experience a sense of ownership/agency (SoO/SoA). This factor of embodi-  
 236 ment has been found to have beneficial effects in rehabilitation [61] as well as in  
 237 neuroprosthesis [62]. Hence, a design consideration in future BCI-robotics may  
 238 be to include subjective assessment of SoO/SoA [61]. In rehabilitation appli-  
 239 cations, based on satisfaction and usability assessment by user [34], soft robots  
 240 have been reported to be acceptable by individuals with neurological impair-  
 241 ments. Hence, natural and non-restrictive movement delivered BCI-controlled  
 242 soft robotics is a step in the right direction to enhance overall efficacy of BCI  
 243 in stroke rehabilitation [31].

244 Lastly, one of the critical factors that determines the overall efficacy of BCI  
 245 is the machine learning tools that it employs for motor detection. Currently, the  
 246 clinical studies report the use of linear decoders for both UE and LE decoding  
 247 [17]. It is worth noting that most of the high-performing classification and  
 248 decoding algorithms reported in recent BCI publications have not yet actually  
 249 been validated in closed-loop BCIs. We emphasize the evaluation of the powerful  
 250 innovative decoders [39, 63] as well as control strategies [52] to generate smooth,  
 251 accurate and reliable control of robots with higher degrees of freedom for higher  
 252 clinical impact.

253 In summary, over the last few years, as highlighted in this article, several  
254 technological advances that can enhance clinical capabilities of BCI-controlled  
255 robotics have been reported. Further research and large-scale clinical evalu-  
256 ations are essential to fully exploit the benefits of BCI in motor control and  
257 rehabilitation.

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