

Cortico-subthalamic field potentials support classification of the natural gait cycle in Parkinson's disease and reveal individualized spectral signatures

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76 **Abstract**

77 Human's ability to coordinate stereotyped, alternating movements between the two
78 legs during bipedal walking is a complex motor behavior that requires precisely timed activities
79 across multiple nodes of the supraspinal network. Understanding of the neural network
80 dynamics that underlie natural walking in humans is limited. We investigated cortical and
81 subthalamic neural activities during overground walking and evaluated spectral biomarkers to
82 decode the gait cycle in three patients with Parkinson's disease without gait disturbances.
83 Patients were implanted with chronic bilateral deep brain stimulation leads in the subthalamic
84 nucleus (STN) and electrocorticography paddles overlaying the primary motor (M1) and
85 somatosensory (S1) cortices. Local field potentials (LFP) were recorded from these areas while
86 the participants performed overground walking and synchronized to external gait kinematic
87 sensors. We found that the STN displays increased low frequency (4-12 Hz) spectral power
88 during the period prior to contralateral leg swing. Furthermore, STN shows increased theta
89 frequency (4-8 Hz) coherence with the primary motor through the initiation and early phase of
90 contralateral leg swing. Additional analysis revealed that each patient had specific frequency
91 bands which could detect a significant difference between left and right initial leg-swing. Our
92 findings indicate that there is alternating spectral changes between the two hemispheres in
93 accordance with the gait cycle. In addition, we identified patient-specific, gait-related
94 biomarkers in both the STN and cortical areas at discrete frequency bands that may be used to
95 drive adaptive DBS to improve gait dysfunction in patients with Parkinson's disease.

96

97 **Significance Statement**

98 By recording from chronically implanted electrodes from the subthalamic nucleus and
99 sensorimotor cortex in patients with Parkinson's disease, we found power modulations across
100 multiple frequency bands (4-30 Hz) during specific phases of the gait cycle. The coherence
101 between subthalamic-cortical areas of each brain hemisphere also increases prior to
102 contralateral leg swing. The data supports the hypothesis that the basal ganglia and cortex
103 coordinate alternating power and coherence fluctuations between hemispheres, which may
104 indicate a mechanism to regulate continuous bipedal locomotion in humans. Lastly, we show
105 that these putative biomarkers for gait can decode left and right gait events, implicating a
106 potential use to drive future adaptive DBS algorithms.

107

108 **Introduction**

109 Human walking is a complex motor task that requires the flexible coordination of
110 reciprocal left and right leg movements. Natural upright walking consists of each leg alternating
111 between the stance phase, when the foot is in contact with the ground, and the swing phase,
112 when the foot is in the air; these two phases make up the “gait cycle,” comprised of a series of
113 stereotyped events such as left and right heel-strikes and toe-offs.

114 The subthalamic nucleus (STN) and primary motor cortex are likely key nodes of the
115 supraspinal network that regulate human gait, given the STN's projection to the locomotor
116 regions in the brainstem (Takakusaki, 2017), and its direct connections to the motor cortex via
117 the hyperdirect pathway (Nambu et al., 2002). Understanding of the cortico-subthalamic

118 network activities that underlie natural walking in humans is, however, limited due to
119 methodological constraints. Scalp electroencephalography (EEG) studies have shown that
120 natural overground walking is associated with fluctuations in the alpha (8-12 Hz), beta (13-30
121 Hz), and gamma (70-90 Hz) frequency ranges from the sensorimotor regions of healthy subjects
122 (Gwin et al., 2011; Seeber et al., 2015; Wagner et al., 2012). Although, EEG lacks the spatial
123 resolution to discern whether these rhythms originate from the motor cortex or represent
124 sensory feedback during walking, and are prone to movement artifacts. Basal ganglia field
125 potentials recorded from implanted deep brain stimulation (DBS) leads of patients with
126 Parkinson's disease (PD) have also revealed modulation of beta (13-30Hz) oscillations from the
127 STN while stepping in place (Fischer et al., 2018; Hell et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2018) and during
128 overground walking throughout the gait cycle (Arnulfo et al., 2018; Canessa et al., 2020; Hell et
129 al., 2018). However, because aberrant beta oscillatory synchrony in the STN is a hallmark of
130 akinesia in PD (Hammond et al., 2007; Little and Brown, 2014), and beta oscillations decreases
131 with movement planning and execution in general, including those of the upper extremity
132 (Eisinger et al., 2020; Kühn et al., 2004; Wingeier et al., 2006), whether these subthalamic beta
133 modulations represent biomarker of specific gait events is unclear. Finally, little is known about
134 cortical-subthalamic interactions during the natural gait cycle.

135 Our hypothesis is that the STN interacts with the motor cortex in a temporal-specific
136 manner to coordinate reciprocal leg movements to generate effective bipedal locomotion. We
137 investigated the cortical-subthalamic circuit dynamics of natural walking from three patients
138 with PD without major gait disturbances in the on-mediation state to capture the most

139 physiological gait possible. Patients were implanted with chronic bilateral STN DBS leads and
140 sensorimotor cortex electrocorticography (ECoG) paddles. Neural oscillatory activities were
141 simultaneously and wirelessly streamed from the bilateral primary motor (M1) and
142 somatosensory (S1) cortices as well as the STN during overground walking, and were
143 synchronized to external gait kinematic sensors. Our aims were: 1) to characterize the
144 oscillatory signatures of natural walking from the STN and sensorimotor cortices, 2) to identify
145 cortico-subthalamic circuit coherence changes throughout the gait cycle, and 3) to determine
146 accuracy of gait event decoding (i.e., heel-strike or toe-off) based on these cortical and
147 subthalamic oscillatory signatures.

148 **Materials and methods**

149

150 Subjects and electrode reconstruction

151 Three male subjects with idiopathic PD undergoing evaluation for DBS surgery were
152 enrolled at the University of California - San Francisco. Subjects did not exhibit major gait
153 impairments, with MDS-UPDRS III postural instability and gait sub-scores on medication
154 between 1 (slight) to 2 (mild) (**Table 1**). All subjects provided written informed consent
155 (NCT03582891).

156 All subjects underwent bilateral implantation of quadripolar DBS leads into the STN
157 (Medtronic model 3389), quadripolar cortical paddle overlying the sensorimotor cortices
158 (Medtronic model 0913025), connected to bilateral investigational sensing pulse generators
159 (Medtronic Summit RC+S model B35300R) as previously described (**Fig. 1**) (Gilron et al., 2021a).

160 Each RC+S device was connected to an STN DBS electrode and a cortical paddle from the same
 161 brain hemisphere.

162 DBS and cortical electrode localization were performed using 2-month postoperative CT
 163 images fused with preoperative T1-weighted MRI images. STN DBS lead reconstruction was
 164 performed using the DISTAL atlas and TRAC/CORE algorithm available within LEAD-DBS, an
 165 open-source MATLAB toolbox (Ewert et al., 2018; Horn and Kühn, 2015). Intracranial EEG
 166 Anatomical Processing and Electrode Reconstruction Pipeline ([https://edden-
 167 gerber.github.io/ecog_recon/](https://edden-gerber.github.io/ecog_recon/)) was used for cortical paddle reconstruction. T1 images were
 168 parcellated and converted into a standardized cortical surface mesh using FreeSurfer (Dale et
 169 al., 1999) and AFNI's SUMA (Saad et al., 2004). Cortical contacts were then manually identified
 170 on the CT images in BiImage Suite (Papademetris et al.) and the electrode coordinates were
 171 projected onto the standardized mesh using a gradient descent algorithm in MATLAB.
 172 Postoperative lead localization was performed using

173

174 Neural recordings and gait kinematic measurements during natural walking

175 Subjects walked overground at their preferred speed for 2 minutes in a straight path of
 176 at least 15 feet before turning around. All subjects were on their typical dose of Parkinsonian
 177 medication during the task. In all subjects LFPs were recorded from two STN electrode pairs:
 178 *ventral STN* (+2-0) and *dorsal STN* (+3-1), where contact 0 is in the ventral STN, contact 3 just
 179 above the dorsal border, and contacts 1 and 2 in the motor territory based on microelectrode
 180 mapping (**Fig. 1A**). The two cortical electrode recording configuration were +9-8 (S1) and +11-

181 10 (M1), based on and imaging reconstruction. LFPs were sampled at 500 Hz and passed
 182 through a pre-amplifier high-pass filter of 0.85 Hz and low-pass filter of 450 Hz. Accelerometry
 183 data from the Summit RC+S system was sampled at 64 Hz. All data from the RC+S system was
 184 extracted and analyzed using open-source code ([https://github.com/openmind-](https://github.com/openmind-consortium/Analysis-rsc-data)
 185 consortium/Analysis-rsc-data).

186 Gait kinematic data was collected using two wireless sensor systems: Delsys Trigno®
 187 system (Delsys Inc. Natick, MA) and Xsens MVN Analyze (Xsens Technologies, The Netherlands).
 188 The Delsys sensors included two Avanti force sensitive resistor (FSR) adapters, two Avanti
 189 goniometer adapters, and two Trigno surface electromyography (EMG) sensors with a built-in
 190 accelerometer. The Avanti adapters were placed bilaterally on the shank of the leg, and the
 191 EMG sensors were placed on top of both RC+S and used for synchronization (see below). Each
 192 FSR adapter was attached to four FSRs (Delsys DC:F01) placed under the calcaneus, hallux, 1st
 193 metatarsal (1MT), and 5th metatarsal (5MT). Digital goniometer (SG110/A) was placed next to
 194 the lateral malleolus. The Xsens system is comprised of 14 inertial measurement unit sensors
 195 placed over the entire body and limbs for wireless motion tracking.

196

197 Data analysis

198 LFP and gait kinematic data was synchronized by aligning the acceleration peaks
 199 captured by the RC+S, Delsys Trigno sensors over the RC+S, and Xsens accelerometry. Four
 200 signal processing methods were applied to the LFP signals using built in MATLAB functions:
 201 continuous wavelet transform (CWT; “cwt” function), wavelet coherence (“wcoherence”

202 function), short-time Fourier transform (STFT; “spectrogram” function), and power spectral
 203 density (PSD; “spectrogram” function with 1 second window, 90% window overlap, and a
 204 transform length of 512 data points). We used wavelet transformation because it has greater
 205 low-frequency resolution. We also used the Fourier transform because this is the on-board
 206 spectral decomposition method used by the RC+S system (Sellers et al., 2021).

207 Gait kinematic data was used to determine left and right toe-off and heel-strike events
 208 using a custom MATLAB script (**Fig. 2**). Heel-strike was defined as the time when the calcaneus
 209 or 5MT FSR crosses over a 5% threshold in the positive direction. Toe-off was defined as the
 210 time when the hallux or 1MT FSR crosses over the 5% threshold in the negative direction. For
 211 the Xsens system, toe-off was defined as the time of peak ankle plantarflexion velocity, while
 212 heel-strike was defined as the time of ankle velocity impulse. All gait events were visually
 213 inspected, and erroneous events were manually corrected. Turns were excluded from analysis.
 214 40 gait cycles were included for analysis from subject 1, 67 for subject 2, and 106 for subject 3.

215 Individual gait cycle epochs were extracted from the CWT and wavelet coherence data
 216 and divided into time bins representing 1% of the gait cycle. Power and magnitude-square
 217 coherence values for each gait cycle were normalized to the average value during the entire
 218 walking period by z-score. Z-cored values for gait cycles were then averaged across subjects to
 219 obtain the grand average spectrogram and coherogram.

220 To identify frequency bands where power differed between gait events, instantaneous
 221 power at each gait event (left and right toe-off and heel-strike) were extracted. All possible
 222 frequency bands were created between 0-50 Hz, and a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to identify

223 frequency bands where power differed among the gait events. A Kruskal-Wallis test was used
224 because the data sets were not normally distributed (Shapiro-Wilk test), but the variances of
225 the different gait events were equal (Levene's test). P-values were adjusted using Tukey's
226 Honest Significant Difference method. Frequency bands where the multiple comparison test
227 reached p-values < 0.05 were designated as gait-event-modulated frequency bands.

228

229 Gait event classification

230

231 A classification model was built to predict gait events from LFP power and the STN-
232 cortical coherence. The classification model used an ensemble learning approach to enhance
233 the stability and accuracy (Polikar, 2006; Wolpert, 1992) and consisted of a Random Forest (RF)
234 feature selection model and a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) model. RF has been shown to
235 achieve better performance than other feature selection methods (Chen et al., 2020), and is
236 robust to collinearity (Genuer et al., 2010). The LDA model matched the on-board hardware
237 classifier of the RC+S. The classifier models were built in R with the "Tidymodel" framework
238 (Kuhn and Wickham, 2020) and trained for each subject, brain hemisphere, and recording area.

239 Features used in the RF model were instantaneous power or magnitude-squared
240 coherence during toe-off events in all possible frequency bands between 2.5-50 Hz. All features
241 were normalized to a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. Prior to feature selection, RF
242 hyperparameters, the number of decision trees and number of features a tree considers during
243 node splitting, were optimized using 10-fold cross-validation with each data set stratified by

244 toe-off classes. Once optimized, the RF feature selection model was trained on all normalized
245 features using the “ranger” (Wright and Ziegler, 2017) package in RStudio (www.rstudio.com).

246 The top ten features with the largest variable importance value based on “permutation
247 importance” (Altmann et al., 2010) were used to generate new data sets for each subject and
248 brain hemisphere. Next, the new data sets were split into 75% for training and 25% for testing.
249 The accuracy and receiver operator characteristic area under the curve (AUC) were calculated.

250

251 Statistical analysis

252 Linear repeated-measure mixed model was used to determine power or coherence
253 values that differed from the average during the gait cycle. A single fixed effect was used, and
254 subjects were added to the model as a random to account for individual baseline neural power
255 differences. Significance was tested using F-tests with Satterthwaite’s degrees of freedom
256 method. Statistical analysis of classification models were performed only on models that
257 achieved greater than chance accuracy ($\geq 50\%$). Significance was tested by permuting the toe-
258 off class labels 1000 times and calculating the class accuracy on the permuted data. Models
259 were determined to be significant if it correctly classified the event in $< 5\%$ of total number of
260 permutations (Herrojo Ruiz et al., 2014).

261

262 **Results**

263

264 STN shows coordinated low frequency power modulation during walking

265 To investigate STN and sensorimotor cortical neural dynamics during the gait cycle, we
266 extracted and averaged spectral power across all gait cycle epochs and tested whether the
267 power significantly changes during the gait cycle. We found that the two hemispheres showed
268 coordinated and reciprocal changes in spectral power within the ventral and dorsal STN during
269 the gait cycle. Significant changes in power were seen in the alpha to low-gamma frequency
270 (10-50 Hz) band power in the ventral STN, and in low frequency (5-15 Hz) band power in the
271 dorsal STN. Increased power occurred during double support phase, the period from ipsilateral
272 heel-strike to contralateral toe-off (0-10% for the left leg and 50-60% for the right leg) (**Fig. 3A**
273 **and B, top**). The left STN also demonstrated significant alpha-beta (8-30 Hz) power decrease
274 during right leg swing period, and beta band (13-30 Hz) decrease during right heel-strike (**Fig.**
275 **3A and B, top**). These changes in LFP power were also seen in individual gait cycles across all
276 subjects (**Extended Data Fig. 3-2 A and B**).

277 M1 and S1 also demonstrated power changes throughout the gait cycle, though the
278 frequency-specific changes between the left and right hemispheres were not reciprocal. The
279 left M1 showed decreased beta activity during right leg swing (10-30% of gait cycle) and
280 increased beta power during right leg stance (60-80% of gait cycle) (**Fig. 3-1A, top**). While the
281 right M1 does not show significant beta power modulation, it showed theta power changes
282 during the end of right leg swing and beginning of left leg swing (**Fig. 3-1A, bottom**). The right
283 S1 shows a similar pattern of theta modulation during transition from right leg swing to left leg
284 swing (**Fig. 3-1B, bottom**).

285

286 STN interacts with motor and sensory cortices during different phases of the gait
287 cycle

288 Because the STN has direct connections with sensorimotor cortices and plays important
289 functions in motor control, we examined whether the STN interacts with the cortex during
290 specific phases of the gait cycle. To determine the nature and degree of this interaction, we
291 compared the averaged magnitude-squared coherence value between the STN and M1/S1 for
292 each brain hemisphere during the gait cycle. We found increased STN-M1 theta band
293 coherence during contralateral toe-off and initial contralateral leg swing, similar to the power
294 modulations seen in the STN (**Fig. 4A**). Interesting, STN-S1 showed greater theta and alpha band
295 coherence during ipsilateral heel-strike (**Fig. 4B**). The two brain hemispheres showed reciprocal
296 coherence modulations.

297

298 Patient-specific oscillatory biomarkers of gait

299 Because our data showed several distinct gait-related frequency bands of modulation
300 during the gait cycle, we used a data-driven approach to determine individual-specific
301 frequency bands that are putative biomarkers for heel-strike and toe-off events. We created
302 frequency bands of varying lengths ranging from 0-50 Hz, extracted power spectral density
303 values at each gait event, and performed an ANOVA test for each band (**Fig. 5-1**). We found
304 that each patient had unique frequency bands where power values differentiated gait events

305 (Fig. 5). Significant gait-event-modulated frequency bands were found within all canonical
306 frequency bands, with a majority in the theta and beta bands (Fig. 5A). Frequency ranges of the
307 gait-event-modulated bands varied by electrode location but were typically a sub-range of the
308 canonical bands. By comparing the instantaneous power spectral density during each of the
309 four gait events, we found power differences between gait events that are temporally distinct
310 (Fig. 5A, inset plots), whereas gait events occurring in temporal proximity have a more similar
311 power spectra profile (Fig. 5A).

312 To evaluate how the amplitudes of these gait-specific biomarkers change over the gait
313 cycle, we averaged their power over a 1 second period around each gait event and found
314 them to fluctuate for the duration of the gait cycle (Fig. 5B). Power averages for the left heel-
315 strike and right toe-off events are offset by half a gait cycle to the right heel-strike and left toe-
316 off events. In all subjects, the left and right hemispheres showed reciprocal power modulations
317 across different contacts.

318 To investigate whether each gait event's instantaneous powers are distinct from each
319 other, a multiple comparison test was performed between all possible pairs of gait events.
320 Significant power differences were found between left and right heel-strikes in subjects 1 and 2
321 in both hemispheres (Fig. 5C). Other significant differences occurred between toe-off events
322 (Fig. 5C). Gait events temporally close to each other did not differ in power.

323

324 *Decoding gait events based on cortical and subcortical LFPs*

325 Based on finding spectral signatures for specific gait events of the gait cycle, we wanted
326 to decode gait events using these personalized “gait biomarkers.” Using the linear discriminant
327 analysis (LDA) model, we were able to classify toe-off events with $\geq 61\%$ accuracy (**Table 2**) in all
328 subjects from at least one of the recorded contacts (**Fig. 6**). Significant above-chance accuracy
329 was achieved from models built using left and right hemisphere data in subjects 2 and 3, but
330 only from left hemisphere trained models in subject 1. No electrode location outperformed
331 others consistently but was subject specific. Overall, the median model accuracies were greater
332 than chance and ranged from 54.4-60.3%. Further analysis of the models showed the maximum
333 discriminatory value achieved, evaluated by calculating the area under the curve (AUC), ranged
334 between 0.585-0.763.

335 We also explored whether coherence between STN to M1/S1 could classify toe-off
336 events. The subcortical-cortical coherence pair that achieved the highest accuracy was subject
337 specific, and only subject 2 and 3 had models reach significant above-chance accuracy
338 (accuracy: 58.9-68.3%, AUC: 0.602-0.786) (**Fig.6-1**).

339

340 **Discussion**

341 We used chronic invasive recordings in PD patients to advance our understanding of
342 dynamic subthalamic and sensorimotor oscillatory changes that underlie natural overground
343 walking. First, we demonstrate the novel finding that STN displays increased low frequency (4-
344 12 Hz) activity during the double support period prior to contralateral leg swing. Furthermore,

345 STN shows increased theta frequency coherence with the primary motor during initiation of
346 contralateral leg swing, implicating a potential mechanism for the supraspinal network to scale
347 and fine tune leg muscle activation during stepping. Our findings support the hypothesis that
348 oscillations from the basal ganglia and cortex direct alternating power fluctuations between the
349 two hemispheres in that is offset by half a gait cycle, which may indicate a mechanism to
350 coordinate and maintain continuous bipedal locomotion in humans. In addition, we identified
351 patient-specific, gait-related biomarkers in both subcortical and cortical areas at discrete
352 frequency bands. Exploratory ensemble classification models showed above-chance accuracy in
353 classifying left and right gait events using oscillatory power features.

354

355 Alternating multi-frequency modulations from bilateral STNs during gait

356 Several groups have described beta power modulations within the STN during the gait
357 cycle between the left and right hemispheres during seated stepping (Fischer et al., 2018) and
358 overground walking (Arnulfo et al., 2018; Canessa et al., 2020; Hell et al., 2018) in Parkinson's
359 disease patients. Because elevated beta synchrony within the STN is associated with the
360 akinetic state in Parkinson's disease, it is logical that beta desynchronization is required for
361 movement, including gait. We found that these gait-event related alternating power
362 modulations between the left and right STNs are not limited to the high beta frequency range
363 but also involve other low frequency bands.

364 What are the roles of subthalamic lower frequency (theta and alpha) modulation during
 365 gait? Previous studies on upper extremity movement tasks have shown event-related
 366 theta/alpha frequency synchronization within the STN at the onset and throughout the
 367 duration of a sustained voluntary muscle contraction task (Kato et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2013). In
 368 some cases, the amplitude of these theta/alpha oscillation correlate with the force generated
 369 during hand movement (Anzak et al., 2012). STN theta activity has also been shown to have a
 370 role in the cognitive control of movement, such as during sensorimotor conflict (Aron et al.,
 371 2016; Zavala et al., 2017) and response inhibition (Alegre et al., 2013). We posit that these low
 372 frequency oscillations emerge from the STN during periods of gait that require greater cortical
 373 engagement. Based on increases in STN theta/alpha power we found during the transition from
 374 double support (both feet on the ground) to single support (ipsilateral leg on the ground)
 375 period, we postulate that these low frequency modulations engage multiple motor cortical
 376 areas to generate the appropriate scale and force required during contralateral leg swing to
 377 maintain stable single limb support and bipedal locomotion.

378 While some suggest that low-frequency modulations during gait may be secondary to
 379 movement-related artifacts (Hell et al., 2018), we believe that these low-frequency oscillations
 380 reflect physiological signals for several reasons. First, spectral activities that change during the
 381 gait cycle are focal in frequency range and are not broadband in nature (**Fig. 3**). Second, the
 382 spectral power changes in left and right STNs are offset by half a gait cycle, unlike in a previous
 383 study where both STNs showed concurrent spectral power increases during the gait cycle
 384 regardless of laterality (Hell et al., 2018). Finally, the dorsal and ventral STN, as well as M1 and

385 S1 contacts connected to the same RC+S show different time-frequency changes from each
386 other during the gait cycle, and hence less likely to reflect artifacts.

387 One key question is whether these gait-related oscillatory modulations reflect
388 physiological or pathological gait patterns. While our patients did not have overt gait
389 abnormalities such as shuffling gait or freezing of gait, they performed the walking task on
390 dopaminergic medication, which can affect oscillatory activity (Foffani et al., 2006; Ray et al.,
391 2008). Pallidal LFP recorded from patients with segmental dystonia without gait disorders has
392 shown power modulations in the theta, alpha, and beta frequency during gait (Singh et al.,
393 2011), and demonstrated similar theta/alpha frequency power modulations during early stance
394 and swing phase of the contralateral leg. While we cannot rule out the presence of
395 compensatory signals in the disease state, we speculate that our results are an indicator of
396 physiological gait, rather than pathological. The dynamic changes of oscillations across different
397 frequency bands may provide a mechanism to coordinate and recruit different cortical and
398 subcortical areas in response to changes in posture, balance, and forward momentum during
399 walking.

400

401 Cortical-subthalamic interactions during gait

402 In a study involving simultaneous recording of STN LFPs and scalp EEG during walking in
403 Parkinson's disease patients with freezing of gait, the authors found elevated cortical-STN
404 synchrony in 4-13 Hz during effective gait (Pozzi et al., 2019). The spatiotemporal specificity of

405 field potentials captures by the permanently implanted cortical electrodes indicate distinct
406 interactions between the STN and different cortical areas during gait. We demonstrated
407 increased STN-S1 coherence in the low frequency ranges (theta-alpha) during the double-
408 support period between ipsilateral heel-strike and contralateral toe-off. We also found
409 increased STN-M1 theta frequency coherence during contralateral toe-off and early
410 contralateral leg swing. These alternations in coherence are offset by half a gait cycle between
411 the left and right hemispheres. To our knowledge, this is the first report of distinct patterns of
412 STN-S1 and STN-M1 synchrony during human gait. We speculate that increased STN-S1
413 coherence during ipsilateral heel-strike to contralateral toe-off may represent sensory
414 integration during the double support period as one prepares for leg swing. Increases in STN-
415 M1 theta coherence then follows, during initiation of contralateral leg swing, which may allow
416 the motor cortex to regulate the force of leg muscle activation required to drive forward
417 stepping during gait. While these M1-STN interactions may represent normal recruitment of leg
418 muscles during weight acceptance and transfer phase of the gait cycle, they may also represent
419 compensatory mechanisms by which greater cortical activity is required to drive and maintain
420 locomotion in Parkinson's disease.

421

422 Gait event decoding and potential clinical significance

423 A key finding from our study was that for each patient, a unique range of frequencies
424 were significantly differentially modulated corresponding to the various gait events. While
425 these frequency bands often overlap canonical bands, they are usually narrower and span many

426 different canonical frequencies. The variations among patients may be due to slight differences
427 in electrode placement. While our results show greater than chance median accuracy and
428 acceptable to medium discriminatory ability, the models may be under-optimized for each
429 subject. By constraining the set of possible hyperparameter values, possible values that would
430 result in better accuracy and discriminatory ability for different subjects may have been missed.
431 Additionally, the ratio of features (1770 total) compared to observations during feature
432 selection can over-fit the model, leading to poor feature selection. Nonetheless, our study
433 demonstrates the feasibility of distinguishing gait events based on cortical or STN LFP power.

434 One of the reasons to identify gait-specific biomarkers is to use them as control signals
435 for closed-loop, also known as adaptive DBS (aDBS). The Summit RC+S system implanted in our
436 subjects allow for aDBS in real time and utilizes LDA to detect different brain states using
437 Fourier transform power within a frequency band (Ansó et al., 2022; Sellers et al., 2021). The
438 aDBS feature of the Summit RC+S device has been successfully tested in PD patients (Gilron et
439 al., 2021a, 2021b) and a cervical dystonia patient (Johnson et al., 2021), with varying timescale
440 for stimulation changes (from 100s of milliseconds to minutes). Therefore, it is feasible to
441 implement real time aDBS to rapidly change stimulation parameters to improve gait function in
442 Parkinson's disease patients.

443

444 Limitations

445 Our sample size is small due to invasive nature of these studies with investigational
446 devices. Patients performed all tasks while on medication, which may affect beta power
447 modulation. Due to variations in patient anatomy and electrode placement, M1 and S1
448 electrodes may capture different parts of the homunculus. Our event-related power
449 modulation from the cortex may be related to arm rather than leg movement. However, in
450 another study, we have observed that the motor cortex is attuned to different limb movements
451 in different frequency ranges (i.e., greater beta modulation during arm swing vs. greater theta
452 modulation during leg movement; unpublished data). Additionally, there is increasing evidence
453 pointing to the existence of intermixed neural tuning of the whole body, including leg and foot
454 movement, in the “hand knob” area of the precentral gyrus in humans (Willett et al., 2020;
455 Zeharia et al., 2012).

456 Conclusion

457 This study provides new insights on the role of subthalamic and sensorimotor
458 oscillations play in human gait. Our data also support the notion that the STN and sensorimotor
459 cortices contain patient-specific, gait-related frequency modulations that can be used to
460 distinguish between left and right gait events. This knowledge has the potential to be
461 integrated into adaptive neuromodulation therapies to improve gait functions in patients with
462 Parkinson’s disease.

463

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472

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Figure and legends

Figure 1 DBS and cortical lead localization. (A) 3D reconstructions of all DBS lead locations in the STN (orange). Individual subject's leads are shown in by different colors. (B) 3D reconstructions of cortical electrode paddle location. The two most anterior contacts overlie the primary motor cortex (M1), while the two most posterior contacts overlie the somatosensory cortex (S1).

Figure 2 Synchronized gait kinematic data with raw local field potential recordings during natural walking. (A) Illustration of gait events and phases during a single gait cycle, aligned to left heel-strike (0% gait cycle). (B) Heel-strike (squares) and toe-off (circles) gait events were detected from the left (black) and right (gray) force sensitive resistor data. Heel-strikes were detected when the heel force (solid line) exceeded a threshold (dotted line), and toe-offs were detected when toe force (dashed line) fell below the threshold. (C) Example local field potential recordings from both STN and M1 synchronized to a gait cycle.

Figure 3 STN local field potentials show spectral power modulations during the gait cycle. Grand average z-score spectrograms from the dorsal and ventral STNs normalized to a gait cycle. (A and B) Significant power increases are seen during weight acceptance of the left leg in

614 the left hemisphere (~0-10% gait cycle) and right leg in the right hemisphere (~50-60% gait
615 cycle). Power increases was observed in a wide frequency band (10-50 Hz) in the ventral STN
616 and in low frequency band (5-15 Hz) in the dorsal STN. Significant beta (13-30 Hz)
617 desynchronization was also seen during contralateral leg swing and heel-strikes. **(A and B)** Gait
618 cycle percentages and frequencies where power was significantly different compared to the
619 average power during the entire walking task is outlined by the dashed white lines. A linear
620 mixed-effect model was used to determine significance with p-value < 0.05. Extended Data
621 Figure 3-1 shows grand average gait cycles from cortical recorded contacts. Extended Data
622 Figure 3-2 shows a single gait cycle from all recorded areas from all subjects in the study and
623 shows alternating left-right power changes throughout the gait cycle.

624

625 **Figure 3-1 Cortical local field potentials show spectral power modulations during the gait**
626 **cycle. (A)** Left M1 shows alpha (8-10 Hz) and beta desynchronization during right leg heels
627 strike and initial right leg swing, respectively. Right M1 shows increased theta-alpha (5-12 Hz)
628 during initial left leg swing and decreased beta around left heel-strike. **(B)** Significant decreased
629 beta power is seen during left leg weight acceptance and initial right leg swing. Increases in
630 theta-beta power (5-23 Hz) were seen during weight acceptance of the right leg and initial left
631 leg swing.

632

633 **Figure 3-2 Individual gait cycle spectrograms.** Spectrograms of a single gait cycle from the STN
 634 and sensorimotor cortices. All subjects show alternating left and right spectral power changes
 635 throughout the gait cycle.

636

637 **Figure 4 Low frequency STN/Cortical coherence increase during the initiation of contralateral**
 638 **leg swing.** Grand average z-score coherogram from STN-M1 and -S1 normalized to a gait cycle.
 639 Reciprocal coherence modulation was seen in both hemispheres. **(A)** STN-M1 coherence
 640 showed significant increases in the theta band (5-8 Hz) during the initiation of contralateral leg
 641 swing through mid-swing. Additionally, the left hemisphere showed beta band coherence
 642 increases during initial ipsilateral weight acceptance. **(B)** STN-S1 coherence modulation was
 643 seen theta/alpha band across both hemispheres during ipsilateral heel-strike. **(A and B)** Gait
 644 cycle percentages and frequencies where coherence was significantly different from the
 645 average coherence during the entire walking task are outlined by the dashed white lines. A
 646 linear mixed-effect model was used to determine significance with p-value < 0.05.

647

648 **Figure 5 Unique frequency bands within each subject can differentiate gait events. (A)**
 649 Average heel-strike and toe-off PSDs from the STN and M1. Each subject had unique frequency
 650 bands where power during heel-strikes (left heel-strike = green, right heel-strike = orange) and
 651 toe-off (left toe-off = blue, right toe-off = pink) gait events were significantly different ($p < 0.05$).
 652 The unique frequency bands were mainly found within the canonical frequency ranges (color of
 653 shaded area), but rarely spanned the entire range (width of shaded area). Inset plots show

654 power differences between gait events temporally distinct from each other in relation to the
655 gait cycle. **(B)** Average power and standard error ± 1 second around the gait event. Reciprocal
656 power modulation, offset by half a gait cycle, is seen between temporally distinct gait events in
657 all subjects. Furthermore, all left hemisphere data show higher power during left heel-
658 strike/right toe-off and most of the right hemisphere data show higher power during right heel-
659 strike/left toe-off. **(C)** Boxplot of gait event power within the frequency bands from B. Individual
660 gait event powers are shown as transparent colored dots with outliers shown on the dotted
661 line. Multiple comparison tests were performed against each pair of gait event within the same
662 hemisphere. Level of significance is indicated as follows: * = $p < 0.05$ and ** = $p < 0.005$. Extended
663 Data Figure 5-1 shows a visualization of the arbitrary length frequency bands created and an
664 ANOVA p-value heat-map.

665

666 **Figure 5-1 Example arbitrary frequency bands and Kruskal-Wallis testing.** Related to Figure 5.
667 Varying length frequency bands were created between 0-50 Hz. Each frequency is referenced as
668 a bin. Start and end bin refers to the varying length frequency band's start and end frequency.
669 Power during left and right heel-strike and toe-off events were extracted from each frequency
670 band and an Kruskal-Wallis test was performed. The p-value of the Kruskal-Wallis test was
671 stored and a heat map was created. Example of the resulting heat map is shown from subject 2
672 M1 recorded area. Significant Kruskal-Wallis test outcomes can be observed to fall within the
673 low gamma band (35-45 Hz) frequency.

674

675 **Figure 6 Gait event decoding using oscillatory features achieves greater than chance accuracy.**

676 LDA ensemble classifiers were trained on left and right toe-off events for each contact and
 677 hemisphere across all subjects. All subjects had at least one contact where at least one model's
 678 classification accuracy was $\geq 61.1\%$. Maximum accuracy achieved across all subjects were
 679 between 61.1-69.2%. Maximum discriminatory ability was calculated using the area under the
 680 receiver operator characteristic curve and ranged between 0.585-0.763. Each subject's models
 681 are shown on each row. The recorded area the LDA model was built from is indicated in color
 682 and follows this order (left to right): red – ventral STN, green – dorsal STN, blue – S1, purple –
 683 M1. Bar pattern indicates brain hemisphere the model was built from: solid – left hemisphere,
 684 striped – right hemisphere. Asterisks (“*”) above bar indicates significance: $p\text{-val} < 0.05$ (*),
 685 < 0.005 (“***”), < 0.0005 (“****”). Extended Data Figure 6-1 shows results from classifier models
 686 built using coherence values between the STN and M1.

687
 688 **Figure 6-1 Toe-off gait event decoding using STN-M1 coherence.** LDA ensemble classifiers were
 689 trained using coherence magnitude squared values between the ventral and dorsal STN to M1
 690 and S1. Highest accuracy and discriminatory value achieved were similar to models built from
 691 individual recorded areas. The highest accuracy achieved were between 58.9-68.3% and highest
 692 discriminatory values were between 0.602-0.786. Each subject's models are shown on each
 693 row. The recorded area the LDA model was built from is indicated in color and follows this
 694 order (left to right): pink – ventral STN, yellow – dorsal STN, brown – S1, orange – M1. Bar
 695 pattern indicates brain hemisphere the model was built from: solid – left hemisphere, striped –

696 right hemisphere. Asterisks ("*") above bar indicates significance: p-val < 0.05 (*), <0.005

697 ("**"), <0.0005 (***).

698

699 **Tables**

700

701

702

Table 1
Subject Demographics

ID	Age/Sex	Disease Duration	DBS Target	UPDRS III Total Off-meds	UPDRS III Total On-meds	UPDRS III PIGD* On-meds
Subject 1	42/M	06	STN	41	14	2
Subject 2	58/M	09	STN	34	09	1
Subject 3	61/M	05	STN	35	12	1

703

704

705

706

Table 2
Classification Summary

ID	Median Accuracy	Maximum Accuracy	Median AUC	Maximum AUC
Subject 1	55.8%	69.2%	0.592	0.763
Subject 2	60.3%	68.0%	0.635	0.733
Subject 3	54.4%	61.1%	0.574	0.585

707

AUC = Area Under the Curve











