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Effects of Feedback Latency on P300-based Brain-computer Interface

Mahnaz Arvaneh¹, Tomas E. Ward², and Ian H. Robertson¹

Abstract—Feedback has been shown to affect performance when using a Brain-Computer Interface (BCI) based on sensorimotor rhythms. In contrast, little is known about the influence of feedback on P300-based BCIs. There is still an open question whether feedback affects the regulation of P300 and consequently the operation of P300-based BCIs. In this paper, for the first time, the influence of feedback on the P300-based BCI speller task is systematically assessed. For this purpose, 24 healthy participants performed the classic P300-based BCI speller task, while only half of them received feedback. Importantly, the number of flashes per letter was reduced on a regular basis in order to increase the frequency of providing feedback. Experimental results showed that feedback could significantly improve the P300-based BCI speller performance, if it was provided in short time intervals (e.g. in sequences as short as 4 to 6 flashes per row/column). Moreover, our offline analysis showed that providing feedback remarkably enhanced the relevant ERP patterns and attenuated the irrelevant ERP patterns, such that the discrimination between target and non-target EEG trials increased.

I. INTRODUCTION

A brain-computer interface (BCI) provides a direct communication pathway between a human brain and an external device [1]. Using appropriate sensors and data processing algorithms, a BCI maps patterns of brain activity associated with a volitional thought onto commands suitable for controlling a device [2]. Such technology can be potentially used as an assistive device, a rehabilitation tool or a brain training protocol [3]. In most BCI systems, brain signals are measured by electroencephalogram (EEG), due to its low cost and high temporal resolution [4]. Currently, majority of the EEG-based BCI systems are working based on either P300 [5] or sensorimotor rhythms [4].

A BCI is a closed-loop system relying on mutual learning efforts between the user who learns to generate robust EEG patterns, and the classification system that is trained to accurately identify the EEG patterns. The mutual learning between the user and the classifier is crucial for having an accurate and robust BCI system. However, most of the BCI studies have only focused on training of the classification system, and neglected the user learning part.

Typically, the user learning is mediated by feedback provided from the classifier. Feedback is known to significantly increase the motivation of learning [6]. Although, several studies showed the effectiveness of feedback on high quality

learning [7], a poorly designed feedback mechanism may deteriorate the performance [6]. There are some interesting studies considering effects of different types of feedback on motor imagery-based BCIs. For example, McFarland et al. suggested that feedback facilitates initial learning of the BCI skill [8]. Neuper et al. showed that continuous feedback is more efficient than delayed discrete feedback [9]. Some authors explored multidimensional feedback (e.g. 3D or Virtual Reality feedback) [10], whereas some studies investigated the effects of biased feedback, negative feedback, and positive feedback on motor imagery-based BCIs [11], [12].

Despite all these studies, little is known about the influence of feedback on P300-based BCIs. There is still an open question whether feedback affects the regulation of P300 and consequently the operation of P300-based BCIs. It seems logical to expect that feedback could positively influence the performance of P300-based BCIs, since, in addition to learning effects, feedback increases motivation, and motivation modulates the P300 amplitude during BCI use as shown in [14]. Nevertheless, in the study conducted by McFarland et al. providing feedback did not affect the P300-based BCI results [5]. There might be a number of reasons leading to this observation. Importantly, there is a substantial delay between the stimuli and the feedback, since the feedback is given after averaging a relatively high number of trials. Thus, the user cannot be certain in which trials he/she behaved incorrectly. Moreover, due to averaging over a large number of trials, the user usually achieves a high accuracy. It means negative feedback is rarely given. Alternatively, the processes involved in the generation of P300 may not be readily influenced by feedback.

This paper investigates the above-mentioned possibilities. In this paper, as the first study, we systematically assesses the influence of feedback on the P300-based BCI speller system. For this purpose, 24 healthy participants performed the classic P300-based BCI speller task, while only half of them received feedback. Importantly, to provide more frequent feedback the number of trials for averaging was reduced on a regular basis. Providing feedback based on fewer number of trials also increased the probability of having negative feedback. In addition to the online accuracy, the effects of feedback on the EEG patterns are also explored by considering the power of the target trials versus the power of the non-target trials.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Participants

In total, 24 healthy young adults aged 18-39 years were participated in this study. The participants had no history

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of neurological illness. They gave informed consent to the study which had been reviewed and approved by the ethical review board of the School of Psychology, Trinity College Dublin, in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Participants were randomly assigned to two groups, labeled as “Feedback” and “No-feedback”. The Feedback group consisted of 5 females and 7 males with a mean age of 27.25 (SD±6.00). The No-feedback group consisted of 7 females and 5 males with a mean age of 24.83 (SD±3.09). 22 of the entire 24 participants had no previous experience of performing BCI sessions. There were no significant differences between the two groups according to the demographic variables (age: $t(22) = 1.22, p = 0.24$; gender: $\chi^2(1) = 0.67, p=0.48$; and BCI naivety: $\chi^2(1)=2.18, p=0.14$).

B. EEG data acquisition

EEG was acquired using a Biosemi ActiveTwo system from 8 electrodes located at positions Fz, C3, Cz, C4, P3, Pz, P4, and Oz following the International 10-20 system. Impedances were kept below $5k\Omega$, and the sampling rate was 512 Hz. The P300-based speller task was designed using the BCI2000 software [13]. In offline analysis, the continuous EEG data were filtered with a zero-phase low-pass 35 Hz Butterworth filter and a zero-phase high-pass 0.5 Hz Butterworth filter. The EEG data were segmented and baseline corrected relative to the interval -150 to 0 ms before the onset of the stimuli. Segments with amplitudes exceeding $+75\mu V$, or voltage steps of more than $150\mu V$ within a window of 200 ms were rejected from further analysis.

C. P300-based BCI speller task

The P300-based speller task has been widely used in BCI community as an assistive device for communication [5]. Fig. 1 presents the interface of the P300-based speller task used in this study. A 6×6 matrix, containing the letters of the alphabet and other symbols, was displayed on a computer screen, while EEG was recorded. The text-to-spell was presented above the matrix. Directly next to the text-to-spell, the target letter-to-spell was displayed in the parenthesis. The rows and the columns of the matrix were flashed/intensified in a random order. Each flash lasted 55 ms followed by an inter stimulus interval of 117 ms. The participants were instructed to concentrate on the target letter and silently count how often it flashed. Basically, flashes of the row and the column containing the target letter (i.e. target stimuli) evoke P300 on the EEG signals, whereas flashes of the other rows and columns (i.e. non-target stimuli) correspond to neutral EEG signals. Thus, the target letter can be inferred by a classification algorithm that searches for the row and the column which evoked the largest P300 responses.

After each sequence, the matrix stopped flashing for 6 seconds. During this interval, the next target letter was displayed in the parentheses. Thus, the participant was allowed sufficient time to locate this new target in the matrix. This process was repeated over the entire target word.

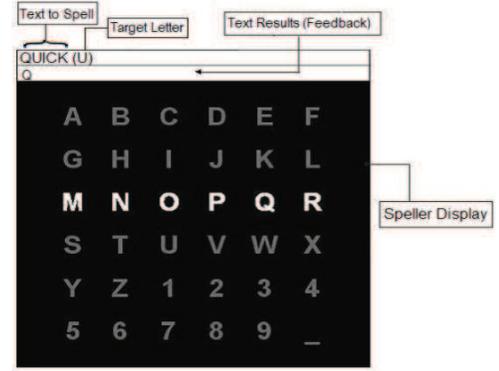


Fig. 1. The interface of the P300-based BCI speller task

D. Procedure

The procedure of the present study is illustrated in Fig. 2. Participants engaged in a single session of around one hour duration including set up time. The data recording and task performance took place in a dark sound-attenuated closed room.

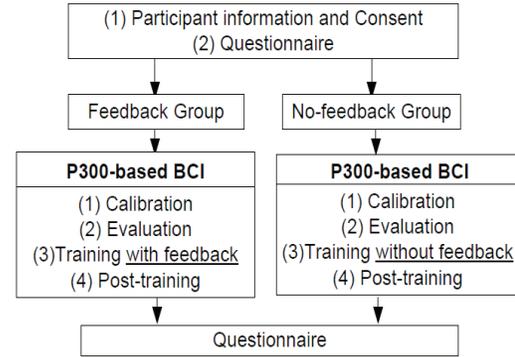


Fig. 2. A schematic illustration of the procedure in the present study

1) *Questionnaire*: At the beginning and at the end of the session, the participants filled out a simple questionnaire which was used to record self-reported levels of alertness, boredom, tiredness of the mind, and tiredness of the eyes on a 10-point Likert scale.

2) *Calibration*: In this stage, the participants completed two runs, in which the words “the” and “quick” were respectively spelled without providing feedback. The sequence of attending each letter consisted of 12 flashes per row/column. The EEG data collected from this stage were used to calibrate a subject-specific model identifying attended letters.

After completing the two calibration runs, the EEG responses to each row/column was obtained by averaging over the 12 corresponding EEG trials. Thereafter, 800 ms segments starting immediately after the onset of the stimuli were extracted from the EEG responses. The segments were decimated to 20 Hz. Then, the resulting data arrays were concatenated to form the feature vector. The dimension of the feature vector was $N_e \times N_t$, where N_e denotes the number of electrodes and N_t denotes the number of temporal samples in an EEG response. Finally, the extracted features were used to train a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) classifier which was used to discriminate between target and non-target trials.

It should be noted that the specific P300 paradigm presented here has been demonstrated to yield reliable performance in several studies [14], [15].

3) *Evaluation*: In this stage, the participants were asked to spell the word “dog” without receiving feedback. The EEG data collected from this stage were used to evaluate the model calibrated in the calibration stage. If at least two of the three letters of “dog” were identified correctly, the participant was ready to move to the training stage. Otherwise, the participant was removed from the study. It is noted that in this study all the participants were able to achieve a calibration model with satisfactory performance.

4) *Training*: In this stage, the participants were asked to spell the word “beautiful” in 4 runs. The number of flashes per row/column was set to 10, 8, 6, and 4 in the first, the second, the third and the fourth run respectively.

For the Feedback group, feedback was provided at the end of each sequence of flashes through presentation of the attended letter target as determined by the output of the classifier. By reducing the number of flashes participants received feedback more frequently. Thus, this presents a means by which we can investigate the effects of feedback on BCI performance. Significantly reducing the number of flashes can increase the probability of receiving negative feedback as the decision of the classifier becomes more dependent on each individual P300 response. The participants in the No-feedback group underwent entirely similar process, but without receiving any feedback. They were not informed about the output of the classifier neither on the screen nor orally. This is not a situation which one encounters with a P300 BCI in normal operation but it is necessary here in order to isolate the effects of feedback explicitly.

5) *Post-training*: In this stage, the Feedback and the No-feedback groups both spelled the word “dance”, without receiving feedback. Similar to the calibration stage, in this stage the number of flashes per row/column was set to 12.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Questionnaire

Analysis of the pre-scores and the post-scores suggested that both the groups (Feedback and No-feedback) were similar in terms of alertness, boredom, tiredness of the mind, and tiredness of the eyes. Furthermore, the within-group comparisons revealed no significant changes on any of the variables prior and following the test.

B. Effects of feedback on classification accuracy

Results obtained from the evaluation stage showed that both groups were very successful in performing the task, since they achieved similar average classification accuracies of 97.25 ± 9.6 on spelling the word “fox”. Obtained from offline analysis, Fig. 3 shows the average classification accuracies of the evaluation stage as a function of the number of flashes per column/row. A repeated ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for the number of flashes ($F(11, 242) = 39.72, p < 0.001$). Neither the group ($F(1, 22) = 0.03, p = 0.86$) nor the interaction between the group and the number

of flashes ($F(1, 11) = 0.18, p = 0.99$) had a significant effect. The statistical analysis confirms that the Feedback and the No-feedback groups were very similar in performing the P300-based speller task in the evaluation stage.

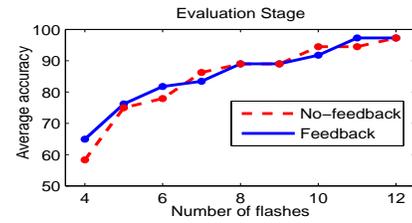


Fig. 3. Average classification accuracy as a function of number of flashes per row/column in the evaluation stage (no feedback was provided).

In the training stage, the word “beautiful” was spelled 4 times using different number of flashes per column/row. Fig. 4 presents the average classification results obtained from the training stage as well as the post-training stage where the word “dance” was spelled without providing feedback to both of the groups. As Fig. 4 shows the feedback group outperformed the No-feedback group in terms of the classification accuracy. Interestingly, a smaller number of flashes yielded a larger difference between the performance of these two groups. A repeated ANOVA revealed significant main effects for the number of flashes ($F(3, 66) = 15.74, p < 0.001$) and the group ($F(1, 22) = 4.74, p = 0.04$). However, the interaction between the group and the number of flashes ($F(1, 11) = 2.08, p = 0.11$) was not significant. Since the Feedback and the No-feedback groups performed very similarly during the evaluation stage, the significant difference between these two groups during the training stage is most likely due to feedback provided to the Feedback group. Exploratory analysis using independent t-tests indicated that the Feedback group significantly performed better than the No-feedback group when the number of flashes was 4 ($t(22) = 2.1, p = 0.04$). The superior performance of the Feedback group tended to be significant when the number of flashes was 6 ($t(22) = 1.96, p = 0.06$). However, no significant differences in performance was found for greater flash sequences ($p = 0.10$ and $p = 0.53$ for 8 and 10 flashes respectively). These results suggest that the effect of feedback is more pronounced when it is given in shorter time intervals (i.e. Feedback is more frequent).

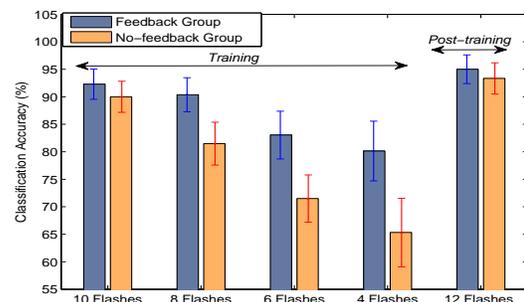


Fig. 4. Average classification accuracies obtained from Feedback and No-feedback groups over the training and post-training stages

Importantly, in the post-training stage where both groups did not receive any types of feedback, again the classification results were similar ($F(1, 22) = 0.71, p = 0.41$). Offline analysis of the classification results as a function of the number of flashes per column/row revealed a significant main effect for the number of flashes as expected ($F(11, 242) = 38.96, p < 0.001$). Neither the group ($F(1, 22) = 0.03, p = 0.95$) nor the interaction between the group and the number of flashes ($F(1, 11) = 1.95, p = 0.13$) had a significant effect.

C. Effects of feedback on EEG patterns

In addition to the classification accuracy, we conducted an offline re-analysis of the data to better understand the effects of feedback on EEG patterns. We speculated that by receiving feedback, subjects may consciously or unconsciously modify patterns of his/her brain activity throughout the experiment. To seek changes in EEG patterns, we defined a new criterion, called as signal to noise ratio (SNR). SNR was calculated by the average power of the target trials (i.e. signal) divided by the average power of the non-target trials (i.e. noise) over the centroparietal electrodes (namely C3, Cz, C4, P3, Pz, P4). Since N200 and P300 are both contributing in the classification of P300-based BCIs [15], 150 ms to 550 ms after the onset of the stimuli were used for calculating the energies.

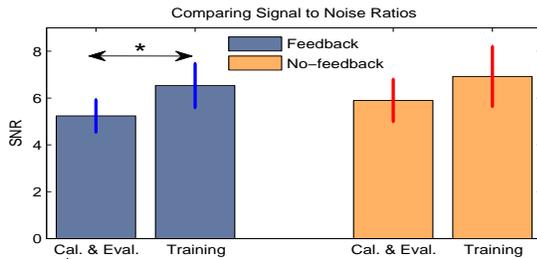


Fig. 5. Comparing the signal to noise ratios (SNR) between the calibration and evaluation stages vs. the training stage for Feedback and No-feedback groups. Asterisk indicates a tending to be significant difference ($p = 0.07$).

Fig. 5 compares the average SNR value obtained from the calibration and evaluation stages with the average SNR value obtained from the training stage. Indeed, neither the Feedback group nor the No-feedback group received feedback in the calibration and evaluation stages, whereas the feedback was provided to the Feedback group during the training stage. There was no significant difference between the average SNR values of the two groups during the calibration and the evaluation stages ($F(1, 22) = 0.33, p = 0.57$). As Fig. 5 shows, on average both groups presented improvements on SNR, when they transferred to the training stage. This improvement might be due to learning to better attend the task as time passes regardless of providing feedback. Besides, reducing the number of flashes in the training stage leads to shorter sequences of flashes for spelling each word. Attending to shorter sequences might be less distracting than attending to longer sequences. Interestingly, the paired t-test revealed that the improvement in the SNR values of the feedback group tends to be significant ($t(11) = -1.99, p = 0.07$). However, the improvement in the SNR values of the No-feedback group

was not significant ($t(11) = -1.02, p = 0.33$). Thus, we can conclude that there is an association between feedback and the improvement in SNR.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

With this study, we showed that feedback can positively influence the performance of P300-based BCIs, if it is provided more often than what most P300-based BCI systems currently provide. Our experiments revealed that when feedback was given after sequences of 4 flashes per row/column, the Feedback group significantly outperformed the No-feedback group ($p = 0.04$), whereas the superior performance of the Feedback group tended to be significant when the number of flashes was 6 ($p = 0.06$). However, the effect of feedback was not significant as the number of flashes increased. These findings are unsurprising, because when the feedback is provided after a large number of flashes the user cannot be certain in which trials he/she behaved incorrectly. Moreover, the user may not even get aware of failure in attention in some trials, since it can be compensated by averaging over many other trials. Reducing the number of flashes mitigates this problem by directing the user to better attend the task. Our study on the EEG patterns also showed that providing feedback remarkably contributed in improving SNR.

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