The Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences (2025), **52**, 885–897
doi:10.1017/cjn.2025.29

Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences
Journal Canadien des Sciences Neurologiques

Review Article

Emerging Techniques for the Personalization of Deep Brain Stimulation Programming

Brendan Santyr[1,2], Alexandre Boutet[1,3], Afis Ajala[4], Jürgen Germann[1,5,6], Jianwei Qiu[4], Alfonso Fasano[5,6,7], Andres M. Lozano[1,5,6] and Walter Kucharczyk[3]

[1]Division of Neurosurgery, Department of Surgery, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada, [2]Department of Clinical Neurological Sciences, Western University, London, ON, Canada, [3]Joint Department of Medical Imaging, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, Canada, [4]GE Research, Niskayuna, NY, USA, [5]Krembil Brain Institute, Toronto, ON, Canada, [6]Center for Advancing Neurotechnological Innovation to Application (CRANIA), Toronto, ON, Canada and [7]Edmond J. Safra Program in Parkinson's Disease and Morton and Gloria Shulman Movement Disorders Centre, Toronto Western Hospital, UHN, Toronto, ON, Canada

ABSTRACT: The success of deep brain stimulation (DBS) relies on applying carefully titrated therapeutic stimulation at specific targets. Once implanted, the electrical stimulation parameters at each electrode contact can be modified. Iteratively adjusting the stimulation parameters enables testing for the optimal stimulation settings. Due to the large parameter space, the currently employed empirical testing of individual parameters based on acute clinical response is not sustainable. Within the constraints of short clinical visits, optimization is particularly challenging when clinical features lack immediate feedback, as seen in DBS for dystonia and depression and with the cognitive and axial side effects of DBS for Parkinson's disease. A personalized approach to stimulation parameter selection is desirable as the increasing complexity of modern DBS devices also expands the number of available parameters. This review describes three emerging imaging and electrophysiological methods of personalizing DBS programming. Normative connectome-base stimulation utilizes large datasets of normal or disease-matched connectivity imaging. The stimulation location for an individual patient can then be varied to engage regions associated with optimal connectivity. Electrophysiology-guided open- and closed-loop stimulation capitalizes on the electrophysiological recording capabilities of modern implanted devices to individualize stimulation parameters based on biomarkers of success or symptom onset. Finally, individual functional MRI (fMRI)-based approaches use fMRI during active stimulation to identify parameters resulting in characteristic patterns of functional engagement associated with long-term treatment response. Each method provides different but complementary information, and maximizing treatment efficacy likely requires a combined approach.

RÉSUMÉ: Techniques émergentes de personnalisation de la programmation de la stimulation cérébrale profonde. Le succès de la stimulation cérébrale profonde (SCP) repose sur l'application d'une stimulation thérapeutique soigneusement calibrée en fonction de cibles spécifiques. Une fois déterminés, les paramètres de stimulation électrique de chaque zone de contact des électrodes peuvent être modifiés. L'ajustement itératif des paramètres de stimulation permet de tester des réglages de stimulation optimaux. En raison de l'étendue de l'espace des paramètres, les tests empiriques actuellement utilisés portant sur des paramètres individuels basés sur une réponse clinique aiguë ne sont pas viables. Compte tenu des contraintes liées à la brièveté des visites cliniques, l'optimisation de la SCP est particulièrement difficile lorsque les caractéristiques cliniques des patients ne procurent pas, comme c'est le cas pour la SCP dans le traitement de la dystonie et de la dépression et pour les effets secondaires cognitifs et axiaux de la SCP dans le traitement de la maladie de Parkinson (MP), un retour d'information immédiat. Une approche personnalisée de la sélection des paramètres de stimulation est souhaitable, car la complexité croissante des appareils modernes de SCP a également augmenté le nombre de paramètres disponibles. Cet article entend décrire trois méthodes émergentes d'imagerie et d'électrophysiologie permettant de personnaliser la programmation de la SCP. La stimulation normative du connectome de base utilise de vastes ensembles de données d'imagerie de la connectivité normales ou adaptées à la maladie. L'emplacement de la stimulation pour un patient donné peut ensuite être modifié pour impliquer des régions associées à une connectivité optimale. La stimulation en boucle ouverte et fermée guidée par l'électrophysiologie exploite quant à elle les capacités d'enregistrement électrophysiologique des dispositifs modernes implantés pour individualiser les paramètres de stimulation, et ce, sur la base de biomarqueurs de réussite ou d'apparition de symptômes. Enfin, les approches individuelles basées sur l'imagerie par résonnance magnétique fonctionnelle (IRMf) utilisent cette technique pendant la stimulation active pour identifier les paramètres entraînant des modèles caractéristiques d'engagement fonctionnel associés à une réponse au traitement à long terme. Chaque méthode fournit donc des renseignements différents mais complémentaires, l'optimisation de l'efficacité d'un tel traitement nécessitant probablement une approche combinée.

Keywords: fMRI; DBS; neuromodulation; neuroimaging

(Received 3 December 2024; final revisions submitted 8 February 2025; date of acceptance 12 February 2025; First Published online 18 February 2025)

Corresponding author: Brendan Santyr: Email: brendan.santyr@uhn.ca

Cite this article: Santyr B, Boutet A, Ajala A, Germann J, Qiu J, Fasano A, Lozano AM, and Kucharczyk W. (2025) Emerging Techniques for the Personalization of Deep Brain Stimulation Programming. *The Canadian Journal of Neurological Sciences* **52**: 885–897, https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29

© The Author(s), 2025. Published by Cambridge University Press on behalf of Canadian Neurological Sciences Federation. This is an Open Access article, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution licence (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted re-use, distribution and reproduction, provided the original article is properly cited.

Introduction

Advances in surgical stereotaxy and neuroimaging have allowed the precise and accurate insertion of deep brain stimulation (DBS) electrodes into various intracranial targets. DBS's success relies on carefully titrated therapeutic stimulation in specific neural substrates.[1] Intraoperative targeting with millimetric accuracy is achieved through a combination of histological atlas-based stereotaxy,[2] microelectrode recordings[2] and direct target visualization on MRI.[3] Once implanted, the stimulation site can be slightly adjusted using different contacts along the electrode, and the current delivered can be titrated by way of amplitude, frequency and pulse width. Iteratively adjusting the stimulation parameters enables stimulation of only the most favorable region in terms of benefit and side effect ratio based on an individual's response to stimulation. However, making these adjustments using the currently employed empiric methods is clinically burdensome and time-consuming.[4] DBS in conditions where the effects of stimulation are delayed and advancements in DBS hardware where more parameters are adjustable further compound the unsustainable nature of this practice.[4,5] This review will discuss the imaging methods employed to better identify favorable stimulation parameters, including stimulation localization and modeling, connectome characterization and electrophysiology-guided stimulation, followed by an emphasis on how advancements in functional imaging of patient-specific responses to stimulation may improve outcomes and personalize therapy (Figure 1).

Stimulation Localization and Electric Field Modeling

Many open questions remain regarding the precise location of optimal stimulation. DBS is known to exert direct bioelectric effects on both neuronal cell bodies and axonal populations; however, the contribution of each to efficacy and side effects remains unclear.[6] Regardless, millimetric differences in stimulation appear to influence stimulation outcome.[7] Commonly the stimulation "sweet spot" is identified using group-level data by (1) determining the precise location of implanted electrodes, (2) determining the area of stimulation (volume of tissue activated: VTA) and (3) assessing the relationship with clinical outcome measures.

Several software tools have been developed for localization of implanted electrodes.[8–12] These employ various algorithms that reconstruct the desired electrode from the artifact visible on postoperative CT or MRI.[8,10,13–15] This reconstruction is then registered to the preoperative high-resolution MRI for visualization. The introduction of directional and segmented electrode (presently up to 16 channels per lead) technology has complicated this process.[16] Establishing the short-axis orientation of the electrode is required to fully utilize the directionality and steer the stimulation. Evidence suggests there is continued rotation of the electrode mainly during the first few weeks after implantation.[17] Efforts are currently being made to optimize and validate algorithms that can reconstruct this orientation from the artifact of directional markers.[17–19]

Once the electrode is localized, modeling an accurate electric field representative of the stimulation (i.e., VTA) has been a persistent challenge.[20–22] The "gold standard" for computational prediction of neurostimulation, developed in 1976, couples the electric field data to multi-compartmental neuron models; however, it is too computationally intensive for practical clinical application.[20] There have been considerable efforts spent attempting to simplify the method of calculating the spatial extent of the electric field while accounting for varying electrical stimulation parameters.[21,23–26] However, modeling how the field is influenced

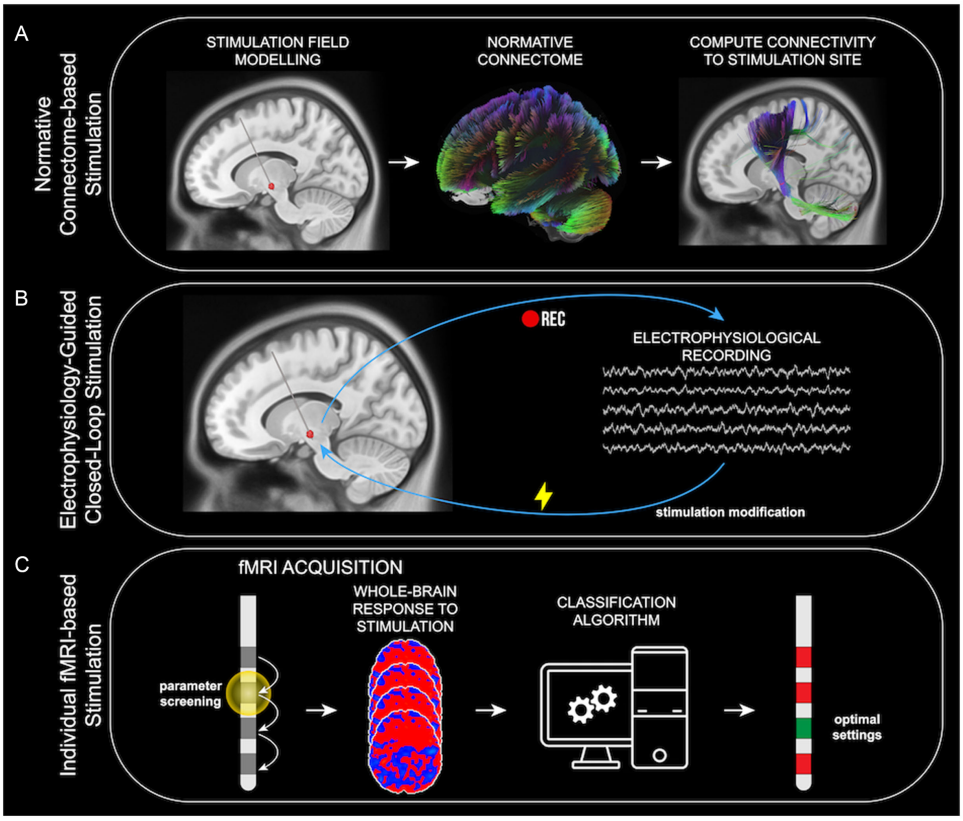


Figure 1. Imaging methods for personalizing deep brain stimulation therapy. (A) Normative connectome-base stimulation utilizes large datasets of normal or disease-matched connectivity imaging. The stimulation location for an individual patient can then be varied to engage regions associated with optimal connectivity. (B) Electrophysiology-guided closed-loop stimulation capitalizes on the electrophysiological recording capabilities of modern implanted devices to individualize stimulation parameters based on biomarkers of success or symptom onset. (C) Individual fMRI-based stimulation uses fMRI during active stimulation in various stimulation settings. Computational models link the individual imaging to whole-brain patterns of functional engagement identified as predictors of long-term treatment response to determine optimal stimulation parameters. fMRI = functional MRI.

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

by surrounding tissue properties remains a considerable hurdle. Recently, finite-element modeling has been applied to neuron compartment models to manage the complexities of axonal activation during extracellular stimulation.[22] These models attempt to display a stimulation field that is relevant to the therapeutic effects of stimulation. However, the threshold of axon activation is dependent on its size.[27] Moreover, which axons are responsible for therapeutic effect is not known.[27] Furthermore, axonal polarity is determined by the potential difference between adjacent axons; thus, the entire distribution of polarity must be considered. Finally, these models fail to account for stimulation frequency, which is known to influence therapeutic effect. Simplified models are available for visualization; however, they are understood to be a limited representation of the true electrophysiology.

Together with the localization of electrodes and estimation of the VTA, retrospective group-level analyses can identify stimulation "sweet spots" associated with improved outcomes. These probabilistic maps are generated by transforming the VTA to a common space and statistically weighting the location by clinical outcome.[7,28] The resulting maps delineate zones of response in a voxelwise data-driven manner. By this method, it has been possible to pinpoint the most efficacious substrate to stimulate across large cohorts of patients and refine future targeting.[7] Direct relationships between stimulation location and clinical improvement have been established for Parkinson's disease (PD),[29–33] dystonia,[34–36] essential tremor (ET)[37–39] and obsessive-compulsive disorder,[40] among others.[7] These associations have shown some advantages in improving the efficiency of DBS programming. In the case of subthalamic nucleus (STN) stimulation in PD, effective symptom control has been associated with stimulation at contacts around the dorsolateral border of the STN.[32] Despite accurate lead placement, optimization of stimulation settings requires in-depth evaluation and individualization of each setting. Modern DBS systems with more sophisticated designs have introduced techniques to shape and steer the electric field and increase the therapeutic window but also the burden of clinical programming.[41] Several recently developed data-driven tools utilize electrode localization information to suggest stimulation settings that optimize stimulation location at the established "sweet spot."[42,43] These studies have shown improved DBS programming efficiency and non-inferior clinical results compared to standard clinician-optimized settings.[42,43]

The association between stimulation location and clinical improvement, however, must be interpreted cautiously. The VTA, in particular, remains a visual approximation of the presumed electrical field based on theoretical models and often ignores local impedance changes and intrinsic dynamics of neuronal populations.[16] Crucially, these findings lack large-scale prospective validation, and different published approaches result in a variety of different "sweet spot" localizations when used with the same data set.[28] Despite efficiency advantages, thus far, no VTA-based programming has been found to be superior to programming based on clinical grounds.

Normative Structural and Functional Connectivity

There has been a shift in focus from what is being stimulated at the local level to how stimulation exerts its effects at a network level. Accumulating evidence opposes the long-held belief that DBS exerts its effects via local modulation of the discrete gray matter nuclei in which they are implanted.[33,44–46] Instead, suggesting that modulation of distributed brain networks is at least equally important for optimal outcomes.[47,48] To appreciate the engagement of distributed brain networks, specialized MRI sequences are required. Specifically, diffusion-tensor imaging (DTI) models the structural connectivity (i.e., the white matter tracts physically connecting regions) by interpreting the diffusion of water constrained along the long axis of axons. Conversely, functional MRI (fMRI) acquired at rest measures low-frequency blood oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) signal oscillations between regions and establishes connectivity between covarying regions (i.e., functional connectivity). Both measures provide complementary, indirect information about the architecture of brain-wide networks. Through mathematical models, the networks of connected regions provide a theoretical foundation for neurobehavioral phenomena, termed connectomics.[49]

Connectomes may be studied either between individuals using patient-specific DTI or fMRI or, more commonly, using aggregate group data from large cohorts of subjects. The latter approach generates a presumed generalizable average of brain connectivity, known as the normative connectome (Figure 1A).[50] The major advantage of using a normative connectome is the high quality of the data and its flexibility of use in populations where the necessary imaging (DTI or fMRI) may not be available. This is often the case in clinical environments, where advanced imaging acquisitions are not routine, costly and often reserved for specific research scenarios. Furthermore, for rare conditions that rely on collaborative efforts for subject recruitment, comparison of images acquired using different hardware and acquisition parameters may prohibit analysis. Normative connectivity is of particular interest in DBS subjects where the acquisition of high-resolution MRI has been challenging due to safety concerns related to the implanted metallic hardware. Normative connectivity provides the means to investigate network-related questions in large, previously inaccessible groups of patients, often retrospectively.

The major shortcoming of normative connectomes is their inability to capture the subtle but important differences specific to an individual. Fundamental differences exist between the brains of healthy individuals and the brains of those affected by neurological disease.[51] For example, the sample used to define the human connectome did not include subjects older than 40 years.[52] Therefore, a connectome derived from healthy subjects may not accurately depict the disease-specific circuitopathies influencing the outcome being studied.[53,54] As a compromise, it may be advantageous to create disease-specific connectomes using scans of individuals with the same disease as the population of interest.[55] Further, matching the connectomes for other covariates, including age, sex or disease duration/severity, may improve the accuracy of findings. However, with each subdivision, the number of subjects with available images for connectome generation diminishes. It has been suggested that a minimum of 150–200 subjects is necessary for the stabilization of group connectivity estimates, thereby constraining the ability to generate disease-specific connectomes.[56] A recent PD-specific functional connectome was created from 75 subjects undergoing DBS for PD, offering an alternative to normative connectomes capable of visualizing unique differences not seen in a healthy normative connectome.[57] A few studies have directly compared the results from disease-specific and healthy control-derived connectomes with conflicting overall findings.[33,55,57–59] Larger and better-matched disease-specific connectomes will likely provide clarity.

The field of neuromodulation has leveraged normative connectomics to study networks mediating therapeutic efficacy (Figure 1A).[55] The predictive ability of normative connectivity

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

profiles was investigated.[33] From the VTAs of 51 PD patients with STN stimulation, a connectivity profile was generated based on the human connectome project data (DTI and fMRI) to identify connections reliably associated with clinical motor improvement. This connectivity profile was used to predict the motor outcome of an out-of-sample cohort with 12–20% of variance explained. This concept has since been repeated for several other conditions with similar results.[40,44,60,61] Recently, small prospective studies have applied these findings in PD. Rajamani et al. developed an algorithm capable of suggesting optimal stimulation settings, which maximize engagement of tracts associated with improvement of four symptom domains (tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia and axial instability).[62] In a preliminary analysis of five patients, this algorithm was able to suggest settings with comparable symptomatic improvement compared to standard-of-care determined settings.[62] Similarly, in nine patients, Hines et al. demonstrated that prospective automated connectomic programming was safe and generated therapeutic effects similar to traditional programming strategies.[63] While promising, these studies are underpowered, and overinterpretation should be avoided.

As exemplified here, connectomes derived from large, high-quality datasets utilizing specialized MRI hardware[64,65] may be considered analogous to the anatomical reference atlases widely used in neurosurgical planning.[58,66,67] Both feature high-fidelity information insensitive to the subtleties of patient-specific anatomy. As in traditional reference atlases, normative connectomes should serve as a guide to inform patient-specific imaging.[68]

Electrophysiology-Guided Closed-Loop Stimulation

Advancements, including current steering, improved direct targeting and leveraging large normative datasets, offer the potential to enhance DBS therapy by refining the stimulation target. Despite this, PD patients still experience cognitive and speech impairment, suboptimal gait and axial motor control and residual fluctuations between on/off medication states related to stimulation.[69,70] Furthermore, limited battery life subjects these patients to subsequent exchange procedures.[71] A promising advancement to overcome these DBS drawbacks is closed-loop or adaptive DBS (aDBS), where stimulation parameters are continuously modulated based on a relevant biomarker (Figure 1B).[72] This provides the correct stimulation only when needed, lessening side effects and long-term habituation while possibly preserving battery life. A simple example of this work is position-sensitive spinal cord stimulation for pain, where the voltage is adjusted according to body position using an accelerometer.[73] So far, aDBS has been primarily studied in epilepsy using causal neural signals to change the stimulation before symptoms emerge.[74]

Adaptive DBS in PD has focused on local field potentials (LFPs) recorded from implanted electrodes (Figure 1B). The spectral power in the beta frequency range (11–30 Hz) at the STN or globus pallidus internus (GPi) has been correlated with bradykinesia and rigidity.[75–77] Averaging the beta activity over long periods allows the DBS power to be modulated based on the dynamics related to drug therapy and motor on-off states, leading to a reduction in battery usage by ~ 50% and a reduction in on-state dyskinesias.[78] Conversely, capturing the bursting nature of spontaneous beta activity can identify states of severe bradykinesia and rigidity.[79] Using the beta signal to trigger or increase stimulation to terminate the pathological signal has achieved a 50% reduction in power requirements and a reduction in adverse effects on speech compared to conventional continuous stimulation.[75,80,81] Better control of bradykinesia and rigidity has also been reported with beta signal-based aDBS.[76] The arrival of commercially available DBS devices with simultaneous neural sensing and stimulation capabilities has enabled wide-scale study of aDBS in chronically implanted patients.[82,83] Opportunities to develop more sophisticated aDBS approaches using machine learning based on the precise correlation between long-term electrophysiological signal recording and symptom severity are arising across a variety of diseases.

Importantly, LFP-based open-loop programming is already largely adopted due to the availability of DBS devices able to wirelessly stream from the brain (Medtronic Percept PC and RC, Dublin, Ireland). Multiple lines of evidence have confirmed that stimulating at the contact with the strongest LFP (e.g., beta in PD, alpha in ET) is associated with the best outcome. Likewise, the reduction of LFP with ongoing stimulation can be used to confirm the proper contact selection and identify the amount of stimulation needed to obtain such benefit.[76] This latter approach is particularly favorable in conditions with a delayed clinical effect of stimulation, such as dystonia.[5] Notably, the same device is capable of closed-loop stimulation using three different control algorithms: single threshold, single inverse threshold and dual threshold. The closed-loop capability is presently available only in Japan until approval from other health authorities is granted.

Individual Functional Response to Stimulation

As our understanding of the mechanism of DBS grows deeper, it is clear that although stimulation acts on the local region around the electrode, the therapeutic effects and side effects that manifest are the result of brain-wide network engagement.[47,48] As discussed, this engagement may be investigated using the connectivity of the stimulation site to the rest of the brain using normative connectomes.[50] Although applicable to large groups of varied data, this method is limited by assumptions that patient-specific circuitopathies are accurately represented by normative data,[51,84] registration and localization errors of estimated VTAs are minimal,[85–88] and the modeling of electrical stimulation is a representation of true electrophysiology.[16] Conversely, the acquisition of neuroimaging data demonstrating an individual's response to stimulation has provided key insights into the mechanism of DBS and has potential clinical application as a personalized biomarker for stimulation success.[89,90]

Early work

In PD, aberrant and dysfunctional processing within the cortico-striato-thalamo-cortical (CSTC) circuit has been hypothesized to play a key role in pathophysiology.[91] Using molecular neuroimaging, in particular positron emission tomography (PET), this spatial pattern of abnormal activity has been uncovered.[92,93] The expression of this pattern is increased as the disease progresses and decreases with treatment, including pharmacotherapy and DBS.[92,93] This work has also been extended to study the acute effects of active DBS on whole-brain metabolism.[89] Acute stimulation reproducibly engaged the CSTC circuit, leading to increases in activity in the STN, thalamus and pallidum.[89] This is consistent with increased afferent inhibitory pallidothalamic tract activity as a proposed therapeutic mechanism.[94,95] Molecular neuroimaging studies such as these represent a final common output of complex neurochemical and molecular mechanisms and a surrogate for direct synaptic activity.

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

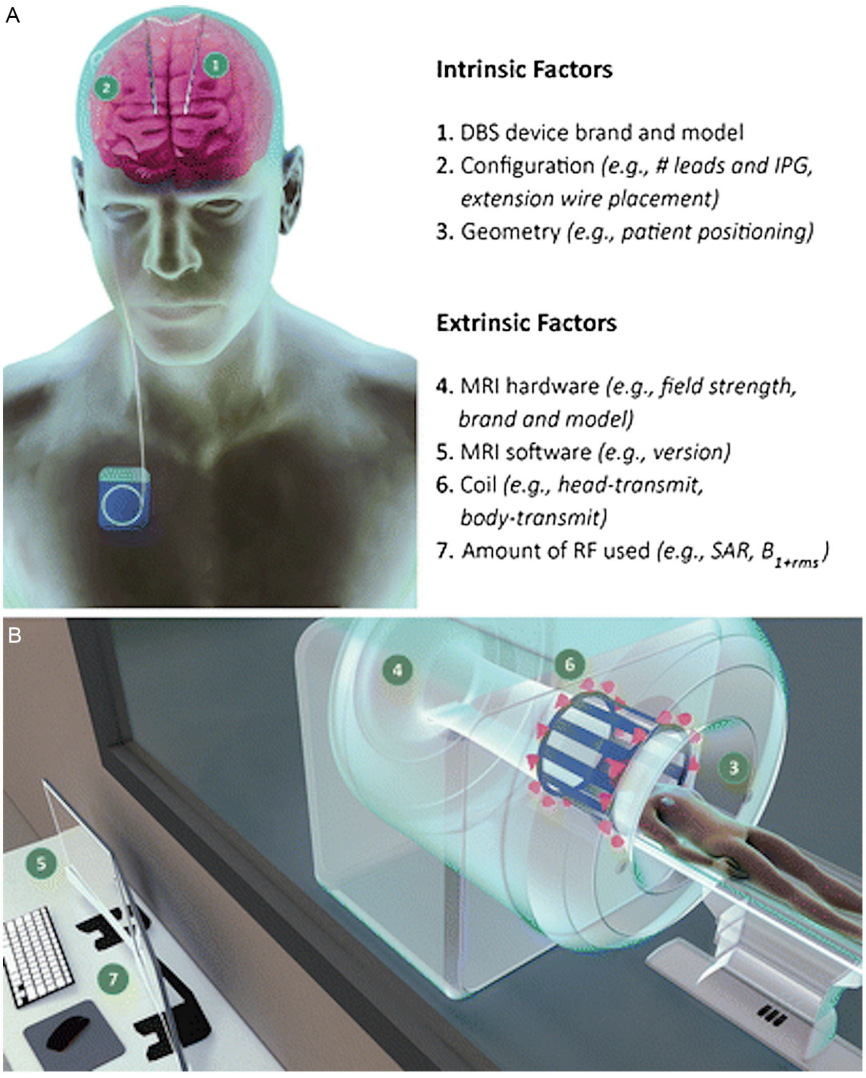


Figure 2. Summary of risk factors contributing to DBS device heating. Intrinsic and extrinsic risk factors are listed and labeled on a depiction of an implanted DBS device (A) and an illustration of an MRI suite (B). B_{1+RMS} = root-mean-square value of MRI effective component of RF magnetic (B_1) field; IPG = implantable pulse generator; RF = radiofrequency; SAR = specific absorption rate. Reproduced with permission from Boutet et al. Radiology 2020.[102]

While molecular neuroimaging has advantages in studying a specific substrate, high-resolution fMRI may investigate changes in brain circuitry with superior spatial-temporal resolution. Approaching the end of the twentieth century, there had been no reports of fMRI studies in patients with implanted DBS electrodes.[96] Although already used routinely in other clinical situations, hesitation with proceeding in DBS patients was related to the potential risk of injury caused by displacement or heating of the implanted electrodes.[96–99] Owing to early in-human work and phantom studies establishing the safe acquisition parameters, fMRI in patients with implanted and active DBS could be performed, ushering in a new era of neuroimaging investigations into the effects of DBS.

The pioneering work in PD by Jech et al. occurred in 2001. Here, they reveal acute motor circuit engagement using fMRI during active STN stimulation.[100] Their findings align with PET studies demonstrating ipsilateral activation of the GPi and ipsilateral ventrolateral thalamus.[100] In addition to local effects, remote effects in the ipsilateral dorsolateral prefrontal cortex were witnessed, suggesting a mechanism beyond long-lasting depolarization mimicking a lesional effect.[100] Complementing this, early investigations also showed that these effects were specific to the site stimulated and circuit engaged. Stefurak et al. showed motor cortex, ventrolateral thalamus and cerebellar activity changes with STN stimulation.[101] However, stimulation marginally superior and lateral into the fields of Forel showed more prominent engagement of the prefrontal cortex, anterior cingulate and anterior thalamus associated clinically with reproducible acute depressive dysphoria.[101] These early findings showcased the role of fMRI in probing the mechanism of DBS, revealing the feasibility of studying the acute local and remote effects of stimulation with sensitivity to the stimulation site and disease condition. Excitement in this technique came to an abrupt halt in the subsequent years when several MR-related adverse events were reported.[102] This necessitated a reevaluation of the safety of MRI in this population.

MR-related adverse events and safety implications

MRI scanning of implanted metallic DBS systems is subject to stringent safety guidelines, which have restricted its use.[103] In 2009, it was reported that close to 50% of centers surveyed did not use MRI in patients with implanted DBS.[104] MRI restrictionsss arise from safety concerns mainly related to the potential for radiofrequency (RF) induced heating of the metallic hardware during the scanning (Figure 2).[96–99]

There are five reports of injury involving RF currents in the DBS literature, three of which are MR-related.[102] This prompted the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) to issue a warning

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

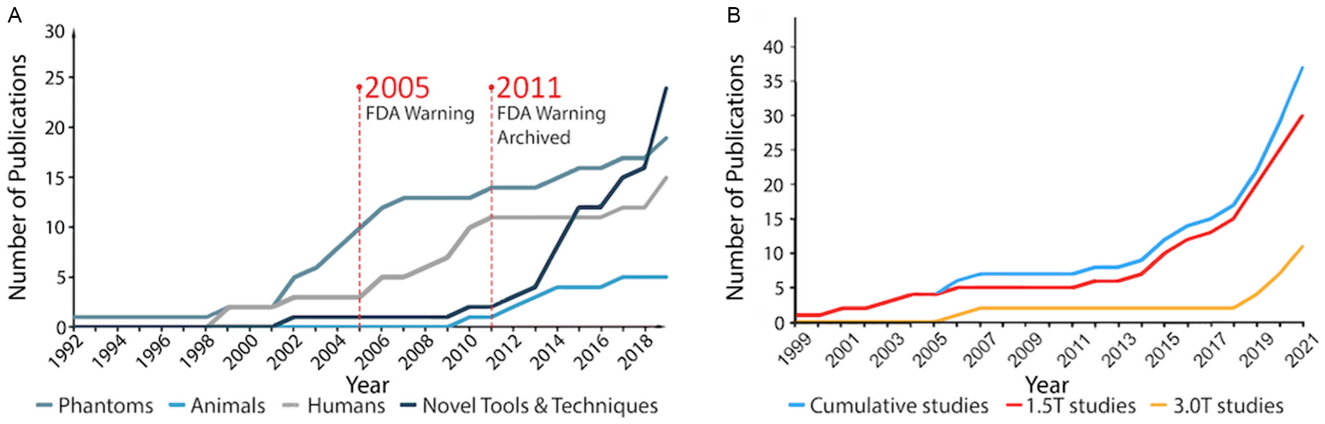


Figure 3. Graphs depicting MRI-DBS-related publication over time. (A) A line graph representing the cumulative number of DBS-related MRI safety studies published from 1992 to 2019. The studies were categorized into phantom, animal, human and technique safety studies. Modified with permission from Boutet et al. Radiology 2020.[102] (B) A line graph representing DBS-fMRI studies over time. The rate of publication increasing, particularly in the last 5 years. Modified with permission from Loh et al. Brain Stim. 2022.[118] DBS = deep brain stimulation; FDA = Food and Drug Administration; fMRI = functional MRI; T = tesla.

Prior to MRI

1. Confirm DBS device brand and model
2. Interrogate device impedances (exclude short and open circuit)
3. Assess clinical status with DBS turned OFF[1]
4. Instruct patients to report any unusual sensations during MRI
5. Ensure patient can lie supine (or prone)

Monitor throughout MRI

If following guidelines:

1. Carefully review guidelines indicated for specific DBS brand and model:
   - Magnetic field strength
   - Coil
   - Gradient slew rate
   - RF frequency
   - RF power ($SAR/B1_{+rms}$)[2]
   - Active scan time limits
   - Operating mode
2. If required, consult expert to modify MRI protocols

If outside guidelines:

1. Consider whether an alternate imaging modality may be acceptable.
2. Consider benefits and risks:
   - **Benefits**: Will the study substantially aid in the diagnostic process? If not, then the examination **should not** be performed.
   - **Risks**: Are the risks for the patient, scanner, and imaging protocol reasonably well understood? If not, then safety testing[3] should be explored before proceeding.
3. Adapt MRI protocol to minimize risks (e.g., limit $SAR/B1_{+rms}$)
4. Obtain informed consent (+ ethics approval if research)
5. Ensure conditions are consistent with prior safety testing (e.g., DBS system configuration and patient positioning within coil).

Post MRI

1. Monitor for acute adverse effects
2. Ensure impedance stability
3. Reprogram to initial settings

1. Monitor for acute and long term side effects
2. Ensure impedance stability
3. Reprogram to initial settings

[1] If patient requires stimulation to tolerate MRI, ensure that stimulation is allowed by guidelines and that stimulation mode is compatible with guidelines.
[2] $B1_{+rms}$ should be used if allowed as it should result in less restrictive MRI scans.
[3] If performed, safety testing should include a protocol with the deviations from the guidelines intended to be used in patients (e.g., DBS device configuration and geometry, acquisition parameters).

Figure 4. Summary recommendations of best practices for MRI in patients with DBS devices. These recommendations are based on guidelines from DBS vendors, reviewed literature and institutional experience. B_{1+RMS} = root-mean-square value of MRI effective component of RF magnetic (B_1) field; DBS = deep brain stimulation; RF = radiofrequency; SAR = specific absorption rate. Reproduced with permission from Boutet et al. Radiology 2020.[102]

regarding the MR imaging of patients with DBS devices in 2005 (Figure 3A).[97] This led to strict vendor guidelines including restricting the field strengths (e.g., 1.5T) and limiting parameters related to the amount of RF being delivered (e.g., specific absorption rate [SAR], root-mean-square value of the MRI effective component of the RF magnetic [B_1] field [B1+rms]). Between 2005 and 2011, several human studies aimed to confirm the safety of the FDA guidelines, with no adverse events reported in over 3000 DBS patients scanned at 1.5T (Figure 3A).[104] As discussed above, there is considerable interest in investigating DBS patients outside of these restrictive guidelines, including using fMRI during active stimulation. As a result, recent studies in phantoms have examined the safety of these systems outside vendor guidelines, reporting acceptable temperature rises under local experimental conditions (Figure 3A).[98,105–110] This was further expanded in vivo in a publication where 102 subjects with fully internalized DBS were scanned with 3T structural T1-weighted and fMRI outside vendor guidelines, confirming

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

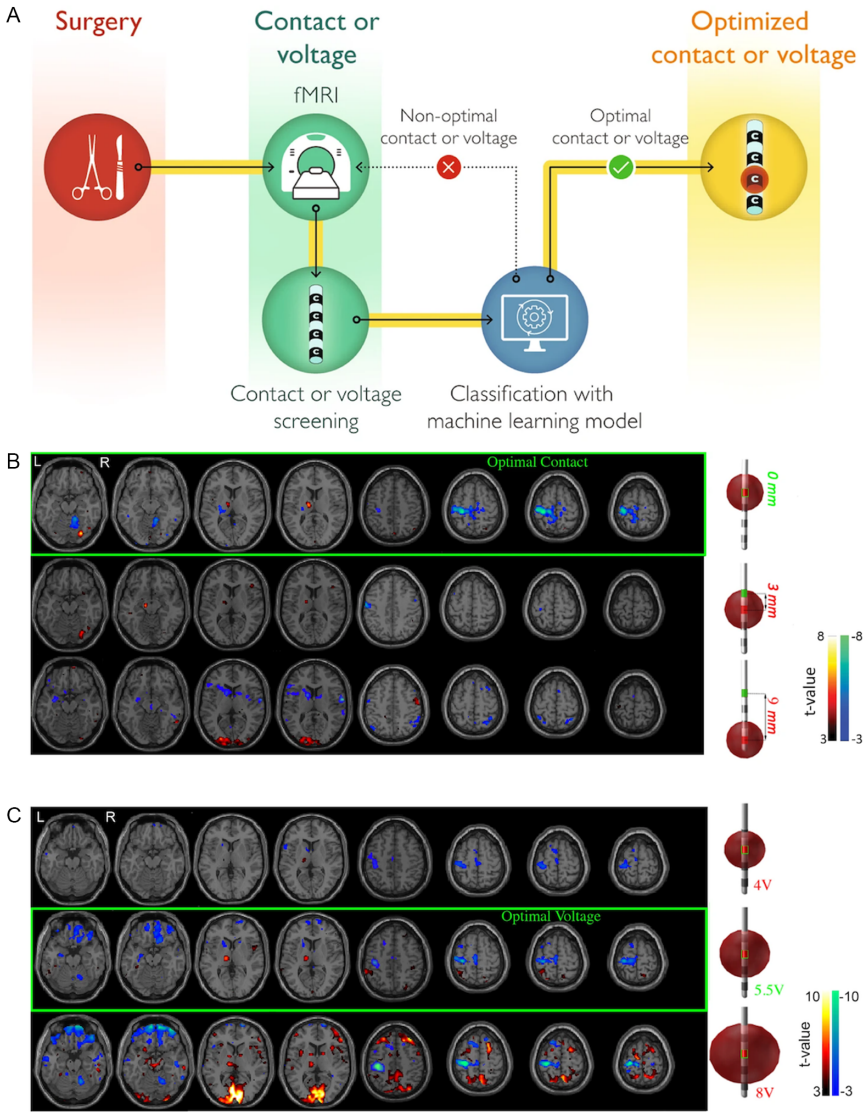


Figure 5. (A) Experimental design for postoperative DBS contact and voltage screening using fMRI. fMRI is acquired on each contact and a range of clinically relevant voltages. The resulting images are analyzed using a machine learning classification model, and the most optimal settings tested are identified. The model identifies a pattern of network engagement specific to stimulation at the clinically optimized contact (visualized in panel B) and voltage (visualized in panel C). DBS = deep brain stimulation; fMRI = functional MRI. Modified with permission from Boutet et al. Nat. Comm. 2021.[90]

safety.[111] Importantly, these findings may not be generalizable to different MRI or DBS systems, and local institutional safety testing should be performed until generalizability can be confirmed.[112,113]

Advancements in DBS hardware and neuroimaging techniques have partially overcome the challenges of performing MRI in patients with implanted and active DBS systems. However, heat at the electrode tips remains the primary risk associated with DBS devices. Electrode and device designs incorporating components to act as heat sinks and improve insulation have been studied.[114,115] Other studies report modification to RF coils, resulting in lower SAR and heating and custom MRI acquisition parameters to limit the use of RF pulses.[102] The progressive development in this field has led to the evolution of vendor guidelines and considerable growth in the number of publications (Figure 3B).[102] Select modern DBS devices have been deemed conditional at 3T and for whole-body scanning.[102] When imaging outside of published guidelines, emphasis should be placed on minimizing SAR and B1+rms.[102] The current best practice guidelines based on DBS vendor recommendations, reviewed literature and institutional experience are summarized in Figure 4.

A modern era of functional imaging in response to DBS

Improved understanding of MRI-DBS safety has facilitated a growing number of studies utilizing fMRI to provide unique mechanistic and therapeutic insights.[106,110,111,116,117] As of 2022, there were 37 studies investigating fMRI during active DBS, with over half published within the last 5 years (Figure 3B).[118] The majority of these studies focused on STN-DBS in PD; perhaps more notable was the paucity of GPi-DBS studies.[118] Encouragingly, emerging and experimental indications for DBS are represented in fMRI-DBS studies, reflecting the utility for characterizing the effects of stimulation, refining patient selection and targeting.[118] These studies have demonstrated the large-scale networks modulated by DBS and the variation in stimulation-evoked response related to the stimulation site, stimulation parameters, patient characteristics and degree of treatment efficacy.[118] Reviewing this literature suggests a movement beyond characterizing just the brain response to stimulation but increasingly making associations between these responses and clinical outcomes.[118] This hints at the translational potential of fMRI in DBS, particularly in identifying biomarkers of therapeutic success. As discussed, the process of stimulation parameter optimization is burdensome and

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

especially difficult in instances with delayed clinical feedback, such as dystonia, depression and Alzheimer's disease.[4,5] fMRI during active DBS appears to be an accessible and rapidly acquired objective marker with the potential to guide programming (Figure 1C).[90] Furthermore, the fMRI response to DBS has been correlated with long-term motor improvement, suggesting intraoperative fMRI may help refine electrode placement.

A study using a large cohort of PD-DBS patients found that fMRI acquired prospectively at 3T demonstrated a characteristic pattern of brain response to clinically optimal stimulation.[90] Specifically, over 200 fMRI sessions were conducted in 67 PD-DBS patients during active cycling stimulation. The sessions were acquired in both clinically optimal and nonoptimal settings by adjusting the contact and amplitude (Figure 5). Comparing the stimulation-dependent functional response obtained during these sessions allowed the training and validation of a machine learning classification model able to identify optimal stimulation settings with a 76% out-of-sample testing accuracy.[90] This model relies on features within 16 regions throughout the brain, one of the more prominent being the decrease in stimulation-dependent BOLD signal in the ipsilateral primary motor cortex in addition to thalamic and cerebellar changes observed (Figure 5). These findings, central to the classification model, are consistent with previously reported imaging and electrophysiological work.[100,118–124] At the network level, it appears that both DBS and levodopa attempt to normalize the PD-related spatial covariance pattern.[125,126] Interestingly, inspecting the pattern of engagement from nonoptimal stimulation shows the involvement of non-motor circuits, including the visual cortices and operculum.[90] This is likely a manifestation of target-adjacent stimulation. As the location of stimulation moves away from the dorsolateral STN, surrounding white matter tracts and associative/limbic territories of the STN may be recruited.[61,127,128] These consistent neuroimaging findings suggest a common neuroanatomical network mediating therapeutic improvement, and engagement outside of this network possibly explains the presence of adverse events.

A central finding in fMRI studies during active DBS is that changes to stimulation (e.g., cycling the device on/off) will manifest in rapid fMRI responses, preceding changes in symptoms that may take hours/days to reappear.[90,129–133] These studies have further shown an association between acute stimulation-dependent activity and long-term clinical outcome, an association robust enough to build predictive models of outcome.[90,129,130] These desirable features position fMRI as a biomarker of stimulation success. As hinted at earlier, these biomarkers are considered increasingly important in the expanding parameter space of modern DBS devices. The trial-and-error testing of individual parameters is not sustainable. Within the constraints of short clinical visits, optimization is particularly challenging when clinical features lack immediate feedback. The current literature suggests it is conceivable that contact and amplitude settings could be efficiently optimized using fMRI.[90] Beyond this, the fMRI signal appears to be specific to individual diseases and stimulation targets, showing unique patterns with predictive capability in GPi-DBS for dystonia,[130] subcallosal cingulate DBS for depression,[129] ventral striatum DBS for obsessive-compulsive disorder[134], the anterior thalamic nucleus for epilepsy[135] and the ventrocaudalis nucleus for pain.[96] These conditions require days to weeks between setting changes for a visible clinical response.[5]

Future directions

The landscape of MRI in the context of implanted DBS and particularly fMRI during active stimulation has progressed considerably over the past two decades. Acquisition of large-volume, high-quality data remains a challenge, and safety concerns loom in the forefront. Although our knowledge of MRI safety continues to grow and the data demonstrating safe acquisition are increasing, there is still a lack of standardization in MR hardware, DBS hardware, acquisition parameters and implanted DBS configurations. This requires that institutional safety testing be performed prior to any scanning outside of device manufacturer guidelines. However, manufacturers are developing DBS hardware with materials and insulation that are expected to become MR compatible regardless of configuration and at increasing field strength.

One of the main emerging utilities of fMRI in DBS is as a rapidly acquired, objective biomarker of stimulation success. Although initial studies suggest it may simplify and accelerate the DBS optimization process, prospective validation of these models is still required.[90] In an effort to facilitate the acquisition of this data, work is underway developing more advanced modeling capable of real-time processing during acquisition and actively informing the fMRI sampling strategy by predicting likely beneficial parameters to trial.[136] Most studies identify fMRI patterns of response associated with global outcome improvement. fMRI may afford the granularity to reveal networks mediating individual symptom effects due to the robustness of the signal and specificity between diseases. The field would benefit from further dissection of these stimulation-dependent responses and prospective clinical validation.

More work will need to be done to lessen the artifact of the lead as seen at the MRI and to identify the exact lead orientation. Not surprisingly, a recent double-blind cross-over study compared standard programming, neuroimaging-based programming (VTA on a commercialized software) and LFP-based open-loop programming in PD treated with STN. Patients were asked to judge the best programming parameters, and only one out of eight subjects favored the neuroimaging-based one.[137]

Competing simultaneous imaging and DBS modalities

Although there are significant advantages of fMRI in terms of spatial resolution, accessibility and robustness of response, there remain pervasive safety limitations. Concurrent with the study of fMRI responses to stimulation, several other modalities have investigated DBS-evoked responses, including electroencephalography (EEG) and magnetoencephalography (MEG). Electrophysiological recording of response to stimulation has long been investigated.[138–141] Here, similar to fMRI, the cortical response to stimulation is measured and time-locked to independent and individual DBS pulses. While capable of measuring sub-second changes in neuronal activity, EEG is limited by spatial resolution, high-frequency artifact related to clinically relevant DBS settings and poor sensitivity to low amplitude electrophysiological changes.[142–145] Despite these limitations, recent studies using EEG have observed that cortical evoked potential amplitudes over the motor cortex and supplementary motor area are associated with therapeutic efficacy.[146–148] Conversely, MEG localizes neural activity on the order of milliseconds by detecting the magnetic fields generated by neural currents.[149,150] It can noninvasively and reliably

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

sample the entire cortical envelope and detect clinically relevant higher-frequency electromagnetic oscillations, which are typically too low in amplitude for EEG to detect.[151] Only recently, however, has MEG been available to study patients with implanted DBS electrodes. DBS-generated artifacts have previously obscured data collection, but several groups have worked to resolve this by employing artifact removal algorithms.[152,153] Spatial and temporal patterns of DBS-evoked MEG response are actively being investigated to identify additional biomarkers of stimulation success. Once robust and reproducible electro-/magnetophysiological patterns of evoked response are identified, the logical next step will be clinical application as a personalized programming approach. Until then, these modalities require further data acquisition and outcome definition.

Conclusions

Three emerging methods of personalizing DBS programming are discussed here (Figure 1): normative connectomic work, which incorporates stimulation localization information and large normative datasets; electrophysiology-guided stimulation, which is responsive to local changes in neuronal oscillation and firing rate; and finally, fMRI, which provides insight into the whole-brain response to stimulation. Each method provides different but complementary information, and maximizing treatment efficacy likely requires a combined approach. One suggested approach may be to begin by stimulating the precise location based on normative connectomics followed by parameter adjustment based on whole-brain engagement on fMRI and ongoing fine-tuning using responsive electrophysiology. Determining the precise role in clinical practice will require prospective validation. There are currently no studies that assess the utility of these biomarkers to guide DBS programming.

Author contributions. BS contributed to the project conception, design, execution and manuscript writing and review. AB, AA, JG and JQ contributed to the project conception, design and manuscript review. AF, AML and WK contributed to project conception and design, execution and manuscript review and critique.

Funding statement. This work was supported in part by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke of the National Institutes of Health under Award R01NS133433 and Michael J. Fox Foundation under Grant MJFF-008877.

Competing interests. AML is the scientific director of Functional Neuromodulation Ltd and a consultant for Medtronic, Abbott, Boston Scientific and Insightec. AF received honoraria and/or research support from Abbott, Abbvie, Boston Scientific, Ceregate, Inbrain and Medtronic. AA and JQ are employees of GE HealthCare.

References

1. Sarica C, Conner CR, Yamamoto K, et al. Trends and disparities in deep brain stimulation utilization in the United States: a nationwide inpatient sample analysis from 1993 to 2017. *Lancet*. 2023;26:100599. DOI: 10.1016/j.lana.2023.100599.
2. Bejjani BP, Dormont D, Pidoux B, et al. Bilateral subthalamic stimulation for Parkinson's disease by using three-dimensional stereotactic magnetic resonance imaging and electrophysiological guidance. *J Neurosurg*. 2000;92:615–625. DOI: 10.3171/JNS.2000.92.4.0615.
3. Ko AL, Image-Guided Burchiel KJ. Asleep deep brain stimulation. *Prog Neurol Surg*. 2018;33:94–106. DOI: 10.1159/000480984.
4. Picillo M, Lozano AM, Kou N, Puppi Munhoz R, Fasano A. Programming deep brain stimulation for Parkinson's disease: the Toronto western hospital algorithms. *Brain Stimul*. 2016;9:425–437. DOI: 10.1016/j.brs.2016.02.004.
5. Picillo M, Lozano AM, Kou N, Munhoz RP, Fasano A. Programming deep brain stimulation for tremor and dystonia: the Toronto Western hospital algorithms. *Brain Stimul*. 2016;9:438–452. DOI: 10.1016/J.BRS.2016.02.003.
6. Jakobs M, Fomenko A, Lozano AM, Kiening KL. Cellular, molecular, and clinical mechanisms of action of deep brain stimulation-a systematic review on established indications and outlook on future developments. *EMBO Mol Med*. 2019;11(4):e9575. DOI: 10.15252/emmm.201809575.
7. Elias GJB, Boutet A, Joel SE, et al. Probabilistic mapping of deep brain stimulation: insights from 15 Years of therapy. *Ann Neurol*. 2021;89:426–443. DOI: 10.1002/ANA.25975.
8. Horn A, Li N, Dembek TA, et al. Lead-DBS v2: towards a comprehensive pipeline for deep brain stimulation imaging. *Neuroimage*. 2019;184:293–316. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2018.08.068.
9. Bonmassar G, Angelone LM, Makris N. A virtual patient simulator based on human connectome and 7 T MRI for deep brain stimulation. *Int J Adv Life Sci*. 2014;6:364–372.
10. Neudorfer C, Butenko K, Oxenford S, et al. Lead-DBS v3.0: mapping deep brain stimulation effects to local anatomy and global networks. *Neuroimage*. 2023;268:119862. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2023.119862.
11. Miocinovic S, Noecker AM, Maks CB, Butson CR, McIntyre CC. Cicerone: stereotactic neurophysiological recording and deep brain stimulation electrode placement software system. *Acta Neurochir Suppl*. 2007;97 (Pt 2):561–567. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-211-33081-4_65.
12. Lauro PM, Vanegas-Arroyave N, Huang L, et al. DBSproc: an open source process for DBS electrode localization and tractographic analysis. *Hum Brain Mapp*. 2016;37:422–33. DOI: 10.1002/HBM.23039.
13. Milchenko M, Snyder AZ, Campbell MC, et al. ESM-CT: a precise method for localization of DBS electrodes in CT images. *J Neurosci Methods*. 2018;308:366–376. DOI: 10.1016/J.JNEUMETH.2018.09.009.
14. Chakravorti S, Li R, Rodriguez WJ, et al. Validation of an automatic algorithm to identify NeuroPace depth leads in CT images. 2019;1, Vol, 0951:625–31. DOI: 101117/122512580.
15. Husch A, V. Petersen M, Gemmar P, Goncalves J, Hertel F. PaCER – a fully automated method for electrode trajectory and contact reconstruction in deep brain stimulation. *Neuroimage Clin*. 2018;17:80–89. DOI: 10.1016/J.NICL.2017.10.004.
16. Krauss JK, Lipsman N, Aziz T, et al. Technology of deep brain stimulation: current status and future directions. *Nat Rev Neurol*. 2021;17-17:75–87. DOI: 10.1038/s41582-020-00426-z 2020.
17. Dembek TA, Hoevels M, Hellerbach A, et al. Directional DBS leads show large deviations from their intended implantation orientation. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord*. 2019;67:117–121. DOI: 10.1016/J.PARKRELDIS.2019.08.017.
18. Sitz A, Hoevels M, Hellerbach A, et al. Determining the orientation angle of directional leads for deep brain stimulation using computed tomography and digital x-ray imaging: a phantom study. *Med Phys*. 2017;44:4463–4473. DOI: 10.1002/MP.12424.
19. Dembek TA, Hellerbach A, Jergas H, et al. DiODe v2: Unambiguous and Fully-Automated Detection of Directional DBS Lead Orientation. *Brain Sci*. 2021;11(11):1450. DOI:10.3390/BRAINSCI11111450.
20. McNeal DR. Analysis of a model for excitation of myelinated nerve. *IEEE Trans Biomed Eng*. 1976;BME-23:329–337. DOI: 10.1109/TBME.1976.324593.
21. Chaturvedi A, Luján JL, McIntyre CC. Artificial neural network based characterization of the volume of tissue activated during deep brain stimulation. *J Neural Eng*. 2013;10:056023. DOI: 10.1088/1741-2560/10/5/056023.
22. Åström M, Diczfalusy E, Martens H, Wårdell K. Relationship between neural activation and electric field distribution during deep brain stimulation. *IEEE Trans Biomed Eng*. 2015;62:664–672. DOI: 10.1109/TBME.2014.2363494.
23. Rattay F. Analysis of models for external stimulation of axons. *IEEE Trans Biomed Eng*. 1986;BME-33:974–977. DOI: 10.1109/TBME.1986.325670.

24. Warman EN, Grill WM, Durand D. Modeling the effects of electric fields on nerve fibers: determination of excitation thresholds. *IEEE Trans Biomed Eng*. 1992;39:1244–1254. DOI: 10.1109/10.184700.
25. Moffitt MA, McIntyre CC, Grill WM. Prediction of myelinated nerve fiber stimulation thresholds: limitations of linear models. *IEEE Trans Biomed Eng*. 2004;51:229–236. DOI: 10.1109/TBME.2003.820382.
26. Butson CR, McIntyre CC. Role of electrode design on the volume of tissue activated during deep brain stimulation. *J Neural Eng*. 2006;3:1–8. DOI: 10.1088/1741-2560/3/1/001.
27. Ranck JB. Which elements are excited in electrical stimulation of mammalian central nervous system: a review. *Brain Res*. 1975;98:417–440. DOI: 10.1016/0006-8993(75)90364-9.
28. Dembek TA, Baldermann JC, Petry-Schmelzer JN, et al. Sweetspot mapping in deep brain stimulation: strengths and limitations of current approaches. *Neuromodul*. 2022;25:877–887. DOI: 10.1111/NER.13356.
29. Horn A, Wenzel G, Irmen F, et al. Deep brain stimulation induced normalization of the human functional connectome in Parkinson's disease. *Brain*. 2019;142:3129–3143. DOI: 10.1093/BRAIN/AWZ239.
30. Akram H, Georgiev D, Mahlknecht P, et al. Subthalamic deep brain stimulation sweet spots and hyperdirect cortical connectivity in Parkinson's disease. *Neuroimage*. 2017;158:332–345. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2017.07.012.
31. Bot M, Schuurman PR, Odekerken VJJ, et al. Deep brain stimulation for Parkinson's disease: defining the optimal location within the subthalamic nucleus. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2018;89:493–498. DOI: 10.1136/JNNP-2017-316907.
32. Dembek TA, Roediger J, Horn A, et al. Probabilistic sweet spots predict motor outcome for deep brain stimulation in Parkinson disease. *Ann Neurol*. 2019;86:527–538. DOI: 10.1002/ANA.25567.
33. Horn A, Reich M, Vorwerk J, et al. Connectivity predicts deep brain stimulation outcome in Parkinson disease. *Ann Neurol*. 2017;82:67–78. DOI: 10.1002/ANA.24974.
34. Neumann WJ, Horn A, Ewert S, et al. A localized pallidal physiomarker in cervical dystonia. *Ann Neurol*. 2017;82:912–924. DOI: 10.1002/ANA.25095.
35. Reich MM, Horn A, Lange F, et al. Probabilistic mapping of the antidystonic effect of pallidal neurostimulation: a multicentre imaging study. *Brain*. 2019;142:1386–1398. DOI: 10.1093/BRAIN/AWZ046.
36. Schönecker T, Gruber D, Kivi A, et al. Postoperative MRI localisation of electrodes and clinical efficacy of pallidal deep brain stimulation in cervical dystonia. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2015;86:833–839. DOI: 10.1136/JNNP-2014-308159.
37. Al-Fatly B, Ewert S, Kübler D, Kroneberg D, Horn A, Kühn AA. Connectivity profile of thalamic deep brain stimulation to effectively treat essential tremor. *Brain*. 2019;142:3086–3098. DOI: 10.1093/BRAIN/AWZ236.
38. Dembek TA, Barbe MT, Åström M, et al. Probabilistic mapping of deep brain stimulation effects in essential tremor. *Neuroimage Clin*. 2017;13:164–173. DOI: 10.1016/J.NICL.2016.11.019.
39. Germann J, Santyr B, Boutet A, et al. Comparative neural correlates of DBS and MRgFUS lesioning for tremor control in essential tremor. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2024;95:180–183. DOI: 10.1136/JNNP-2022-330795.
40. Baldermann JC, Melzer C, Zapf A, et al. Connectivity profile predictive of effective deep brain stimulation in obsessive-compulsive disorder. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2019;85:735–743. DOI: 10.1016/J.BIOPSYCH.2018.12.019.
41. Dembek TA, Reker P, Visser-Vandewalle V, et al. Directional DBS increases side-effect thresholds—a prospective, double-blind trial. *Movement Disord*. 2017;32:1380–1388. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.27093.
42. Waldthaler J, Bopp M, Kühn N, et al. Imaging-based programming of subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation in Parkinson's disease. *Brain Stimul*. 2021;14:1109–1117. DOI: 10.1016/j.brs.2021.07.064.
43. Roediger J, Dembek TA, Achtzehn J, et al. Automated deep brain stimulation programming based on electrode location: a randomised, crossover trial using a data-driven algorithm. *Lancet Digit Health*. 2023;5:e59–e70. DOI: 10.1016/S2589-7500(22)00214-X.
44. Horn A, Fox MD. Opportunities of connectomic neuromodulation. *Neuroimage*. 2020;221:117180. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2020.117180.
45. Yarach U, Luengviriya C, Stucht D, Godenschweger F, Schulze P, Speck O. Correction of B 0-induced geometric distortion variations in prospective motion correction for 7T MRI. *MAGMA*. 2016;29:319–332. DOI: 10.1007/S10334-015-0515-2.
46. See AAQ, King NKK. Improving surgical outcome using diffusion tensor imaging techniques in deep brain stimulation. *Front Surg*. 2017;4:54. DOI: 10.3389/FSURG.2017.00054/FULL.
47. Lozano AM, Lipsman N. Probing and regulating dysfunctional circuits using deep brain stimulation. *Neuron*. 2013;77:406–424. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEURON.2013.01.020.
48. Accolla EA, Herrojo Ruiz M, Horn A, et al. Brain networks modulated by subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation. *Brain*. 2016;139:2503–2515. DOI: 10.1093/BRAIN/AWW182.
49. Sporns O. The human connectome: a complex network. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2011;1224:109–125. DOI: 10.1111/J.1749-6632.2010.05888.X.
50. Fox MD. Mapping symptoms to brain networks with the human connectome. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;379:2237–2245. DOI: 10.1056/NEJMRA1706158.
51. Bassett DS, Bullmore ET. Human brain networks in health and disease. *Curr Opin Neurol*. 2009;22:340–347. DOI: 10.1097/WCO.0B013E32832D93DD.
52. Elam JS, Glasser MF, Harms MP, et al. The human connectome project: a retrospective. *Neuroimage*. 2021;244:118543. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2021.118543.
53. Klobušiakova P, Mareček R, Fousek J, Výtvarova E, Rektorova I. Connectivity between brain networks dynamically reflects cognitive status of Parkinson's disease: a longitudinal study. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2019;67:971–984. DOI: 10.3233/JAD-180834.
54. Sala A, Caminiti SP, Presotto L, et al. Altered brain metabolic connectivity at multiscale level in early Parkinson's disease. *Sci Rep-UK*. 2017;7:1–12. DOI: 10.1038/s41598-017-04102-z.
55. Wang Q, Akram H, Muthuraman M, et al. Normative vs. patient-specific brain connectivity in deep brain stimulation. *Neuroimage*. 2021;224:117307. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2020.117307.
56. Cohen AL, Fox MD. Reply: The influence of sample size and arbitrary statistical thresholds in lesion-network mapping. *Brain*. 2020;143:e41–e41. DOI: 10.1093/BRAIN/AWAA095.
57. Loh A, Boutet A, Germann J, et al. A functional connectome of Parkinson's disease patients prior to deep brain stimulation: a tool for disease-specific connectivity analyses. *Front Neurosci*. 2022;16:804125. DOI: 10.3389/FNINS.2022.804125/FULL.
58. Ewert S, Plettig P, Li N, et al. Toward defining deep brain stimulation targets in MNI space: a subcortical atlas based on multimodal MRI, histology and structural connectivity. *Neuroimage*. 2018;170:271–282. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2017.05.015.
59. Germann J, Elias GJB, Boutet A, et al. Brain structures and networks responsible for stimulation-induced memory flashbacks during forniceal deep brain stimulation for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement*. 2021;17:777–787. DOI: 10.1002/ALZ.12238.
60. Horn A, Kühn AA, Merkl A, Shih L, Alterman R, Fox M. Probabilistic conversion of neurosurgical DBS electrode coordinates into MNI space. *Neuroimage*. 2017;150:395–404. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2017.02.004.
61. Hollunder B, Ostrem JL, Sahin IA, et al. Mapping dysfunctional circuits in the frontal cortex using deep brain stimulation. *Nat Neurosci*. 2024;27:573–586. DOI: 10.1038/s41593-024-01570-1.
62. Rajamani N, Friedrich H, Butenko K, et al. Deep brain stimulation of symptom-specific networks in Parkinson's disease. *Nat Commun*. 2024;15:1–16. DOI: 10.1038/s41467-024-48731-1.
63. Hines K, Noecker AM, Frankemolle-Gilbert AM, et al. Prospective connectomic-based deep brain stimulation programming for Parkinson's disease. *Movement Disord*. 2024;39:2249–2258. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.30026.
64. Setsompop K, Kimmlingen R, Eberlein E, et al. Pushing the limits of in vivo diffusion MRI for the human connectome project. *Neuroimage*. 2013;80:220–233. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2013.05.078.

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

65. Elias GJB, Germann J, Joel SE, et al. A large normative connectome for exploring the tractographic correlates of focal brain interventions. *Scientific Data*. 2024;11:1–12. DOI: 10.1038/s41597-024-03197-0.
66. Schaltenbrand G, Wahren W. *Atlas for Stereotaxy of the Human Brain*. Thieme; 1977.
67. Chakravarty MM, Bertrand G, Hodge CP, Sadikot AF, Collins DL. The creation of a brain atlas for image guided neurosurgery using serial histological data. *Neuroimage*. 2006;30(2):359–76. DOI: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2005.09.041.
68. Coenen VA, Schlaepfer TE, Varkuti B, et al. Surgical decision making for deep brain stimulation should not be based on aggregated normative data mining. *Brain Stimul*. 2019;12:1345–1348. DOI: 10.1016/J.BRS.2019.07.014.
69. Zibetti M, Merola A, Rizzi L, et al. Beyond nine years of continuous subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation in Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord*. 2011;26:2327–2334. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.23903.
70. Rizzone MG, Fasano A, Daniele A, et al. Long-term outcome of subthalamic nucleus DBS in Parkinson's disease: from the advanced phase towards the late stage of the disease? *Parkinsonism Relat Disord*. 2014;20:376–381. DOI: 10.1016/J.PARKRELDIS.2014.01.012.
71. Almeida L, Rawal PV, Ditty B, et al. Deep brain stimulation battery longevity: comparison of monopolar versus bipolar stimulation modes. *Mov Disord Clin Pract*. 2016;3:359–366. DOI: 10.1002/MDC3.12285.
72. Neumann WJ, Gilron R, Little S, Tinkhauser G. Adaptive deep brain stimulation: from experimental evidence toward practical implementation. *Mov Disord*. 2023;38:937–948. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.29415.
73. Schultz D, Schultz DM, Webster L, et al. Sensor-driven position-adaptive spinal cord stimulation for chronic pain. 2012;15:1-12. Accessed June 19, 2024. https://www.painphysicianjournal.com/current/pdf?article=MTU2Mw==&journal=65.
74. Hoang KB, Cassar IR, Grill WM, Turner DA. Biomarkers and stimulation algorithms for adaptive brain stimulation. *Front Neurosci*. 2017;11:303295. DOI: 10.3389/FNINS.2017.00564/BIBTEX.
75. Little S, Pogosyan A, Neal S, et al. Adaptive deep brain stimulation in advanced Parkinson disease. 2013;74(3):449-457.
76. Arlotti M, Marceglia S, Foffani G, et al. Eight-hours adaptive deep brain stimulation in patients with Parkinson disease. *Neurology*. 2018;90:e971. DOI: 10.1212/WNL.0000000000005121.
77. Tinkhauser G, Pogosyan A, Debove I, et al. Directional local field potentials: a tool to optimize deep brain stimulation. *Movement Disord*. 2018;33:159–164. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.27215.
78. Rosa M, Arlotti M, Marceglia S, et al. Adaptive deep brain stimulation controls levodopa-induced side effects in Parkinsonian patients. *Movement Disord*. 2017;32:628–629. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.26953.
79. Deffains M, Iskhakova L, Katabi S, Israel Z, Bergman H. Longer β oscillatory episodes reliably identify pathological subthalamic activity in Parkinsonism. *Mov Disord*. 2018;33:1609–1618. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.27418.
80. Little S, Beudel M, Zrinzo L, et al. Research paper: bilateral adaptive deep brain stimulation is effective in Parkinson's disease. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2016;87:717–721. DOI: 10.1136/JNNP-2015-310972.
81. Little S, Tripoliti E, Beudel M, et al. Letter: adaptive deep brain stimulation for Parkinson's disease demonstrates reduced speech side effects compared to conventional stimulation in the acute setting. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2016;87:1388–1389. DOI: 10.1136/JNNP-2016-313518.
82. Jimenez-Shahed J. Device profile of the percept PC deep brain stimulation system for the treatment of Parkinson's disease and related disorders. *Expert Rev Med Devices*. 2021;18:319–332. DOI: 10.1080/17434440.2021.1909471.
83. Fung WKW, Sumarac S, Sorrento G, et al. Thalamic local field potentials and closed-loop deep brain stimulation in orthostatic tremor. *Movement Disorders*. Published online 2025;40:141–146. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.30035.
84. Horien C, Shen X, Scheinost D, Constable RT. The individual functional connectome is unique and stable over months to years. *Neuroimage*. 2019;189:676–687. DOI: 10.1016/J.NEUROIMAGE.2019.02.002.
85. Lofredi R, Auernig C, Ewert S, et al. Interrater reliability of deep brain stimulation electrode localizations. Elsevier. *NeuroImage*. 2022;262:119552.
86. Bower K, Noecker A, Reich MM, et al. Quantifying the Variability Associated with Postoperative Localization of Deep Brain Stimulation Electrodes.
87. Engelhardt J, Guehl D, and NDPS, et al. Localization of deep brain stimulation electrode by image registration is software dependent: a comparative study between four widely used software programs.
88. O'Gorman R, Jarosz J, Samuel M et al.CT/MR image fusion in the postoperative assessment of electrodes implanted for deep brain stimulation. *Stereotact Funct Neurosurg*. 2009;87:205–210.
89. Boutet A, Jain M, Gwun D, et al. Modulation of CNS functions by deep brain stimulation: insights provided by molecular imaging, *PET and SPECT in Neurology*. Published online October 20, 2020, pp. 1177–244. doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-53168-3_46.
90. Boutet A, Madhavan R, Elias GJB, et al. Predicting optimal deep brain stimulation parameters for Parkinson's disease using functional MRI and machine learning. *Nat Commun*. 2021;12:1–13. DOI: 10.1038/s41467-021-23311-9.
91. Rodriguez-Oroz MC, Jahanshahi M, Krack P, et al. Initial clinical manifestations of Parkinson's disease: features and pathophysiological mechanisms. *Lancet Neurol*. 2009;8:1128–1139. DOI: 10.1016/S1474-4422(09)70293-5.
92. Eidelberg D. Metabolic brain networks in neurodegenerative disorders: a functional imaging approach. *Trends Neurosci*. 2009;32:548–557. DOI: 10.1016/j.tins.2009.06.003.
93. Ma Y, Tang C, Spetsieris PG, Dhawan V, Eidelberg D. Abnormal metabolic network activity in Parkinson's disease: test-retest reproducibility. *J Cerebr Blood F Met*. 2007;27:597–605. DOI: 10.1038/SJ.JCBFM.9600358/ASSET/IMAGES/LARGE/10.1038_SJ.JCBFM.9600358-FIG3.JPEG.
94. Hill KK, Campbell MC, McNeely ME, et al. Cerebral blood flow responses to dorsal and ventral STN DBS correlate with gait and balance responses in Parkinson's disease. *Exp Neurol*. 2013;241:105–112. DOI: 10.1016/J.EXPNEUROL.2012.12.003.
95. Volonté MA, Garibotto V, Spagnolo F, et al. Changes in brain glucose metabolism in subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation for advanced Parkinson's disease. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord*. 2012;18:770–774. DOI: 10.1016/j.parkreldis.2012.03.016.
96. Rezai AR, Lozano AM, Crawley AP, et al. Thalamic stimulation and functional magnetic resonance imaging: localization of cortical and subcortical activation with implanted electrodes. *J Neurosurg*. 1999;90:583–90.
97. Gupte AA, Shrivastava D, Spaniol MA, Abosch A. MRI-related heating near deep brain stimulation electrodes: more data are needed. *Stereotact Funct Neurosurg*. 2011;89:131–140. DOI: 10.1159/000324906.
98. Kahan J, Papadaki A, White M, et al. The safety of using body-transmit MRI in patients with implanted deep brain stimulation devices. *PLoS One*. 2015;10:e0129077. DOI: 10.1371/JOURNAL.PONE.0129077.
99. Rezai AR, Phillips M, Baker KB, et al. Neurostimulation system used for deep brain stimulation (DBS): MR safety issues and implications of failing to follow safety recommendations. *Invest Radiol*. 2004;39:300–303. DOI: 10.1097/01.RLI.0000124940.02340.AB.
100. Jech R, Urgošík D, Tintěr J, et al. Functional magnetic resonance imaging during deep brain stimulation: a pilot study in four patients with Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord*. 2001;16:1126–1132. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.1217.
101. Stefurak T, Mikulis D, Mayberg H, et al. Deep brain stimulation for Parkinson's disease dissociates mood and motor circuits: a functional MRI case study. *Movement Disord*. 2003;18:1508–1516. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.10593.
102. Boutet A, Chow CT, Narang K, et al. Improving safety of MRI in patients with deep brain stimulation devices. *Radiology*. 2020;296:250–262. DOI: 10.1148/radiol.2020192291.
103. Medtronic I. MRI guidelines for medtronic deep brain stimulation systems. *Published online*. 2015

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

104. Tagliati M, Jankovic J, Pagan F, Susatia F, Isaias IU, Okun MS. National Parkinson Foundation DBS Working Group. Safety of MRI in patients with implanted deep brain stimulation devices. *Neuroimage*. 2009;47(Suppl 2):T53-T57. DOI: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.04.044.
105. Bhidayasiri R, Bronstein JM, Sinha S, et al. Bilateral neurostimulation systems used for deep brain stimulation: in vitro study of MRI-related heating at 1.5 T and implications for clinical imaging of the brain. *Magn Reson Imaging*. 2005;23:549–555. DOI: 10.1016/J.MRI.2005.02.007.
106. Boutet A, Hancu I, Saha U et al. 3-Tesla MRI of deep brain stimulation patients: safety assessment of coils and pulse sequences. *J Neurosurg*. 2019;132:586–594. DOI: 10.3171/2018.11.JNS181338.
107. Carmichael DW, Pinto S, Limousin-Dowsey P, et al. Functional MRFunctional MRI with active, fully implanted, deep brain stimulation systems: safety and experimental confounds.
108. Rezai AR, Finelli D, Nyenhuis JA, et al. Neurostimulation systems for deep brain stimulation: In vitro evaluation of magnetic resonance imaging–related heating at 1.5 tesla. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2002;15:241–250. doi:10.1002/jmri.10069.
109. Sammartino F, Krishna V, Sankar T, et al. 3-Tesla MRI in patients with fully implanted deep brain stimulation devices: a preliminary study in 10 patients. Journal of neurosurgery.
110. Hancu I, Boutet A, Fiveland E, et al. On the (Non-) equivalency of monopolar and bipolar settings for deep brain stimulation fMRI studies of Parkinson's disease patients. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2018;49:61736–1749. DOI: 10.1002/jmri.26321.
111. Boutet A, Rashid T, Hancu I, et al. Functional MRI safety and artifacts during deep brain stimulation: experience in 102 patients. *Radiology*. 2019;293:174–183. DOI: 10.1148/RADIOL.2019190546.
112. Baker KB, Tkach JA, Nyenhuis JA, Phillips M, Shellock FG, Gonzalez-Martinez J, Rezai AR. Evaluation of specific absorption rate as a dosimeter of MRI-related implant heating. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2004;20(2):315–320. DOI: 10.1002/jmri.20103. PMID: 15269959.
113. Baker KB, Tkach JA, Phillips MD, Rezai AR. Variability in RF-induced heating of a deep brain stimulation implant across MR systems. *J Magn Reson Imaging*. 2006;24:1236–1242. DOI: 10.1002/JMRI.20769.
114. Zhao S, Liu X, Xu Z, et al. Graphene encapsulated copper microwires as highly MRI compatible neural electrodes. *Nano Lett*. 2016;16:7731–7738. DOI: 10.1021/ACS.NANOLETT.6B03829.
115. Elwassif MM, Datta A, Rahman A, Bikson M. Temperature control at DBS electrodes using a heat sink: experimentally validated FEM model of DBS lead architecture. *J Neural Eng*. 2012;9:046009. DOI: 10.1088/1741-2560/9/4/046009.
116. Sui Y, Tian Y, Ko WKD, et al. Deep brain stimulation initiative: toward innovative technology, new disease indications, and approaches to current and future clinical challenges in neuromodulation therapy. *Front Neurol*. 2021;11:597451. DOI: 10.3389/FNEUR.2020.597451/FULL.
117. Davidson B, Tam F, Yang B, et al. Three-tesla magnetic resonance imaging of patients with deep brain stimulators: results from a phantom study and a pilot study in patients. *Neurosurgery*. 2021;88:349–355. DOI: 10.1093/NEUROS/NYAA439.
118. Loh A, Gwun D, Chow CT, et al. Probing responses to deep brain stimulation with functional magnetic resonance imaging. *Brain Stimul*. 2022;15:683–694. DOI: 10.1016/j.brs.2022.03.009.
119. Cilia R, Marotta G, Landi A, et al. Clinical and cerebral activity changes induced by subthalamic nucleus stimulation in advanced Parkinson's disease: a prospective case-control study. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg*. 2009;111:140–146. DOI: 10.1016/J.CLINEURO.2008.09.018.
120. Karimi M, Golchin N, Tabbal SD, et al. Subthalamic nucleus stimulation-induced regional blood flow responses correlate with improvement of motor signs in Parkinson disease. *Brain*. 2008;131:2710–2719. DOI: 10.1093/BRAIN/AWN179.
121. Whitmer D, de Solages C, Hill B, Yu H, Henderson JM, Bronte-Stewart H. High frequency deep brain stimulation attenuates subthalamic and cortical rhythms in Parkinson's disease. *Front Hum Neurosci*. 2012;6:2012. DOI: 10.3389/FNHUM.2012.00155.
122. Knight EJ, Testini P, Min HK, et al. Motor and nonmotor circuitry activation induced by subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation in patients with Parkinson disease: intraoperative functional magnetic resonance imaging for deep brain stimulation. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2015;90:773–785. DOI: 10.1016/J.MAYOCP.2015.03.022.
123. Phillips MD, Baker KB, Lowe MJ, et al. Parkinson disease: pattern of functional MR imaging activation during deep brain stimulation of subthalamic nucleus–initial experience. *Radiology*. 2006;239:209–216. DOI: 10.1148/RADIOL.2391041990.
124. Hesselmann V, Sorger B, Girnus R, et al. Intraoperative functional MRI as a new approach to monitor deep brain stimulation in Parkinson's disease. *Eur Radiol*. 2004;14:686–690. DOI: 10.1007/S00330-003-2051-0.
125. Asanuma K, Tang C, Ma Y, et al. Network modulation in the treatment of Parkinson's disease. *Brain*. 2006;129:2667–2678. DOI: 10.1093/brain/awl162.
126. Moeller JR, Nakamura T, Mentis MJ, et al. Reproducibility of regional metabolic covariance patterns: comparison of four populations. *J Nucl Med*. 1999;40:1264–1269. DOI: 10.1016/b978-012161340-2/50039-1.
127. Vanegas-Arroyave N, Lauro P, Huang L, et al. Tractography patterns of subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulation. *Brain*. 2016.
128. Alexander GE, DeLong MR, Strick PL. Parallel organization of functionally segregated circuits linking basal ganglia and cortex. *Annu Rev Neurosci*. 1986;9:357–381. DOI: 10.1146/ANNUREV.NE.09.030186.002041.
129. Elias GJB, Germann J, Boutet A et al. 3T MRI of rapid brain activity changes driven by subcallosal cingulate deep brain stimulation. *Brain*. 2022;145:2214–2226. DOI: 10.1093/BRAIN/AWAB447.
130. Loh A, Elias GJB, Germann J, et al. Neural correlates of optimal deep brain stimulation for cervical dystonia. *Ann Neurol*. 2022;92:418–424. DOI: 10.1002/ANA.26450.
131. Santyr B, Loh A, Vetkas A, et al. Uncovering neuroanatomical correlates of impaired coordinated movement after pallidal deep brain stimulation. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2024;95:167–170. DOI: 10.1136/JNNP-2022-330734.
132. Elias GJB, Germann J, Loh A, et al. Habenular involvement in response to subcallosal cingulate deep brain stimulation for depression. *Front Psychiatry*. 2022;13:810777. DOI: 10.3389/FPSYT.2022.810777/FULL.
133. Dimarzio M, Rashid T, Hancu I, et al. Functional MRI signature of chronic pain relief from deep brain stimulation in Parkinson disease patients. *Neurosurgery*. 2019;85:E1043–E1049. DOI: 10.1093/NEUROS/NYZ269.
134. Slepneva N, Frank A, Norbu T, et al. BOLD fMRI response to therapeutic and nontherapeutic deep brain stimulation in obsessive-compulsive disorder. *Brain Stimul*. 2023;16:375. DOI: 10.1016/j.brs.2023.01.741.
135. Sarica C, Yamamoto K, Loh A, et al. Blood oxygen level-dependent (BOLD) response patterns with thalamic deep brain stimulation in patients with medically refractory epilepsy. *Epilepsy Behav*. 2021;122:108153. DOI: 10.1016/J.YEBEH.2021.108153.
136. Qiu J, Karigiannis J, Santyr B, et al. Deep learning and fMRI-based pipeline for optimization of deep brain stimulation during Parkinson's disease treatment: toward rapid semi-automated stimulation optimization. *IEEE J Transl Eng Health Med*. 2024;12:589–599. DOI: 10.1109/JTEHM.2024.3448392.
137. Binder T, Lange F, Pozzi N, et al. Feasibility of local field potential-guided programming for deep brain stimulation in Parkinson's disease: a comparison with clinical and neuro-imaging guided approaches in a randomized, controlled pilot trial. *Brain Stimul*. 2023;16:1243–1251. DOI: 10.1016/J.BRS.2023.08.017.
138. Ashby P, Paradiso G, Saint-Cyr JA, Chen R, Lang AE, Lozano AM. Potentials recorded at the scalp by stimulation near the human subthalamic nucleus. *Clin Neurophysiol*. 2001;112:431–437. DOI: 10.1016/S1388-2457(00)00532-0.
139. Limousin P, Brown P, Marsden J, Defebvre L, Rothwell J. Evoked potentials from subthalamic nucleus, internal pallidum and thalamic stimulation in Parkinsonian and postural tremor patients. *J Physiol-LONDON*. 1998;509P.
140. Walker HC, Huang H, Gonzalez CL, et al. Short latency activation of cortex during clinically effective subthalamic deep brain stimulation for Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord*. 2012;27:864–873. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.25025.
141. Baker KB, Montgomery EB, Rezai AR, Burgess R, Lüders HO. Subthalamic nucleus deep brain stimulus evoked potentials: physiological

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press

and therapeutic implications. *Mov Disord*. 2002;17:969–983. DOI: 10.1002/MDS.10206.
142. Zumsteg D, Lozano AM, Wennberg RA. Rhythmic cortical EEG synchronization with low frequency stimulation of the anterior and medial thalamus for epilepsy. *Clin Neurophysiol*. 2006;117:2272–2278. DOI: 10.1016/J.CLINPH.2006.06.707.
143. Zumsteg D, Lozano AM, Wieser HG, Wennberg RA. Cortical activation with deep brain stimulation of the anterior thalamus for epilepsy. *Clin Neurophysiol*. 2006;117:192–207. DOI: 10.1016/J.CLINPH.2005.09.015.
144. Hamani C, McAndrews MP, Cohn M, et al. Memory enhancement induced by hypothalamic/fornix deep brain stimulation. *Ann Neurol*. 2008;63:119–123. DOI: 10.1002/ANA.21295.
145. Laxton AW, Tang-Wai DF, McAndrews MP, et al. A phase I trial of deep brain stimulation of memory circuits in Alzheimer's disease. *Ann Neurol*. 2010;68:521–534. DOI: 10.1002/ANA.22089.
146. Bahners BH, Spooner RK, Hartmann CJ, Schnitzler A, Florin E. Subthalamic stimulation evoked cortical responses relate to motor performance in Parkinson's disease. *Brain Stimul*. 2023;16:561–563. DOI: 10.1016/j.brs.2023.02.014.
147. Helson P, Lundqvist D, Svenningsson P, Vinding MC, Kumar A. Cortex-wide topography of 1/f-exponent in Parkinson's disease. *npj Parkinson's Disease*. 2023;9:1–11. DOI: 10.1038/s41531-023-00553-6.
148. Peeters J, Boogers A, Van Bogaert T, et al. Towards biomarker-based optimization of deep brain stimulation in Parkinson's disease patients. *Front Neurosci*. 2023;16: DOI: 10.3389/FNINS.2022.1091781.
149. Wheless JW, Castillo E, Maggio V, et al. Magnetoencephalography (MEG) and magnetic source imaging (MSI). *Neurologist*. 2004;10:138–153. DOI: 10.1097/01.NRL.0000126589.21840.A1.
150. Chang EF, Nagarajan SS, Mantle M, Barbaro NM, Kirsch HE. Magnetic source imaging for the surgical evaluation of electroencephalography-confirmed secondary bilateral synchrony in intractable epilepsy. *J Neurosurg*. 2009;111:1248–1256. DOI: 10.3171/2009.6.JNS081376.
151. Harmsen IE, Rowland NC, Wennberg RA, Lozano AM. Characterizing the effects of deep brain stimulation with magnetoencephalography: A review. *Brain Stimul*. 2018;11(3):481–491. DOI: 10.1016/j.brs.2017.12.016.
152. Song T, Gaa K, Cui L, Feffer L, Lee RR, Huang M. Evaluation of signal space separation via simulation. *Med Biol Eng Comput*. 2008;46:923–932. DOI: 10.1007/S11517-007-0290-Y.
153. Taulu S, Hari R. Removal of magnetoencephalographic artifacts with temporal signal-space separation: demonstration with single-trial auditory-evoked responses. *Hum Brain Mapp*. 2009;30:1524–1534. DOI: 10.1002/HBM.20627.

https://doi.org/10.1017/cjn.2025.29 Published online by Cambridge University Press