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## **Interventional Neurorehabilitation for Promoting Functional Recovery Post-Craniotomy: A Proof-of-Concept — Source link**

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# Interventional Neurorehabilitation for Promoting Functional Recovery Post-Craniotomy: A Proof-of-Concept

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## **Interventional Neurorehabilitation for Promoting Functional Recovery Post-Craniotomy: A Proof-of-Concept**

### **ABSTRACT**

**Purpose:** The human brain is a highly plastic ‘complex’ network –it is highly resilient to damage and capable of self-reorganisation after a large perturbation. Clinically, neurological deficits secondary to iatrogenic injury have very few active treatments. New imaging and stimulation technologies, though, offer promising therapeutic avenues to accelerate post-operative recovery trajectories. In this study, we sought to establish the safety profile for ‘interventional neurorehabilitation’: connectome-based therapeutic brain stimulation to drive cortical reorganisation and promote functional recovery post-craniotomy.

**Methods:** In n=34 glioma patients who experienced post-operative motor or language deficits, we used connectomics to construct single-subject cortical networks. Based on their clinical and connectivity deficit, patients underwent network-specific Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (TMS) sessions daily over five consecutive days. Patients were then assessed for TMS-related side effects and improvements.

**Results:** 31/34 (91%) patients were successfully recruited and enrolled for TMS treatment within two weeks of glioma surgery. No seizures or serious complications occurred during TMS rehabilitation and one-week post-stimulation. Transient headaches were reported in 4/31 patients but improved after a single session. No neurological worsening was observed while a benefit was noted in 28/31 patients post-TMS. We present two clinical vignettes and a video demonstration of interventional neurorehabilitation.

**Conclusions:** For the first time, we demonstrate the safety profile and ability to recruit, enrol, and complete TMS acutely post-craniotomy in a high seizure risk population. Given the lack of randomisation and controls in this study, prospective randomised sham-controlled stimulation trials are now warranted to establish the efficacy of interventional neurorehabilitation following craniotomy.

# 1           **Interventional Neurorehabilitation for Promoting Functional** 2           **Recovery Post-Craniotomy: A Proof-of-Concept**

## 3   **Introduction**

4           The human brain is a highly plastic ‘complex’ network [1,2]: it self-organises without a  
5   hard blueprint, it adapts to evolving circumstances, and can withstand external insults. Our  
6   thoughts and behaviour are directly governed by how our brain networks handle, orchestrate, and  
7   execute various internal and external demands [3]. Nevertheless, similar to other naturally-  
8   occurring networks, brain networks can only endure a finite amount of damage before becoming  
9   maladaptive and fragmented [4].

10  
11           The practice of neurosurgery is based on therapeutically altering the brain’s global  
12   workspace to improve clinical outcomes [5,6]. However, since the antiquity of neurosurgery, few  
13   strategies have been employed to directly address neurological deficits due to iatrogenic injury.  
14   In fact, the usual approach is to send patients to physiotherapy and hope they improve over time  
15   in a sufficiently stimulating environment. Moreover, rehabilitation is further complicated when  
16   surgical pathology implicates critical areas for motor initiation, alertness, motivation, and  
17   consciousness [7]. Furthermore, advanced neurocomputational models suggest the capacity for  
18   neuroplasticity greatly varies based on the type of cortical damage which has occurred [8].  
19   Ideally, a fundamental goal of neuro-oncological surgery should be to drive cortical  
20   reorganisation and promote functional recovery in the immediate post-operative period. To  
21   advance this viewpoint, we coin a new concept called ‘interventional neurorehabilitation’:  
22   connectome-based therapeutic brain stimulation to promote network plasticity and functional  
23   recovery.

24  
25           Over the past few years, monumental advancements have been made in neuroimaging  
26   and neurostimulation technologies. Today, state-of-the art connectome methods enable  
27   neuroscientists to make highly accurate single-subject predictions on cognition [9-11]. In  
28   addition, we are beginning to non-invasively stimulate focally at-depth without perturbing  
29   overlying cortical structures [12]. However, before leveraging the most advanced technologies  
30   for interventional neurorehabilitation, applying well-studied existing stimulation approaches is

31 sensible. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) is an FDA-approved stimulation  
32 therapy routinely performed at hospitals across the world [13]. Given its relative ease and non-  
33 invasiveness, the field of TMS has flourished to treat a range of neurological and psychiatric  
34 illnesses. In acute and chronic stroke patients, rTMS facilitates cortical reorganization leading to  
35 functional preservation or compensation in motor and language abilities [14]. Unfortunately,  
36 prognosis is still poor in many these patients, which may be explained by the limited capacity for  
37 effective cerebral plasticity following some acute injuries compared to slow growing tumors [8].  
38 While meta-analyses highlight the remarkable safety of rTMS in ischemic stroke patients with  
39 extremely low-risks for seizures [15,16], there remains limited descriptions on the safety and  
40 efficacy of this treatment modality in tumor patients in the acute post-operative period. Given the  
41 striking advances in fields outside neuro-oncology, individualised TMS therapy merits  
42 investigation to accelerate recovery trajectories post-craniotomy.

43

44 In this proof-of-concept study, we sought to establish the safety profile and ability to  
45 recruit, enrol, and complete connectome-guided TMS to enhance network plasticity and promote  
46 functional recovery following glioma surgery.

47

## 48 **Methods**

49 This study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the South Eastern Sydney  
50 Local Health District (SESLHD). Patients provided written informed consent prior to enrolling  
51 in our study. All methods were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations  
52 Declaration of Helsinki. The clinical trial was registered at [clinicaltrials.gov](https://clinicaltrials.gov) (NCT03293888).

53

### 54 ***Patient population***

55 Patients with supratentorial gliomas who developed a significant post-operative  
56 neurological deficit related to motor or language function were invited to take part in an off-label  
57 treatment of FDA-approved rTMS. Subjects were only included in this study if TMS was  
58 initiated within two weeks post-surgery. Assessments for motor dysfunction were made using the  
59 standard Medical Research Council (MRC) 5-point scale [17]. To be eligible for rTMS therapy,  
60 weakness in an arm or leg needed to be 4-/5 or worse in the hand, proximal arm, foot or proximal

61 leg at the time of treatment. Language dysfunction was defined using the Aphasia Rapid Test  
62 (ART) with a score greater than 3 considered evidence of significant language disturbance [18].

63

#### 64 ***Clinical assessment and Definition of Outcomes***

65 Neurological assessments were performed immediately prior to treatment with rTMS and  
66 one week following the last rTMS session by a blinded team member. Improvement in motor  
67 function was defined as grade strength to at least 4+/5 in the affected limb, with either functional  
68 hand control or the ability to walk with assistance in the leg. In cases of hemiplegia,  
69 improvement in either hand or leg function was considered improvement. Finally, reduction in  
70 the patient's pre-treatment ART score by 3 or more points was considered improvement in  
71 language.

72

#### 73 ***Connectome-based TMS target selection in neurosurgical patients***

74 Once recruited, participants underwent a T1-weighted MPRAGE and resting-state fMRI  
75 scan. The cortical target was selected based on the patient's primary deficit (i.e. motor or  
76 language), our interpretation of any network fragmentation, and our experience with network  
77 topology from normative connectomes (i.e. HCP data) [7,19,20].

78

#### 79 ***Imaging Acquisition and Pre-processing Parameters***

80 The resting-state fMRI was performed on a Phillips 3T Achieva which was acquired as a  
81 T2-star EPI sequence, with  $3 \times 3 \times 3$ -mm voxels, 128 volumes/run, a TE = 27 ms, a TR = 2.8 s, a  
82 field of view = 256 mm, a flip angle =  $90^\circ$  and an 8 minute total run time. Resting-state and  
83 diffusion pre-processing was performed using in-house custom machine learning algorithms in  
84 Python. Standard image processing steps included skull stripping, motion correction with a 6-  
85 dimensional rigid body registration, correcting for physiological noise (CompCor), slice time  
86 correction, spatial smoothing (6 FWHM Gaussian kernel), high-pass filtering, and co-registration  
87 to the patient's structural space<sup>1</sup>. Of critical importance, we do not warp the brain into a standard  
88 space like Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) or Talairach space at any stage of the  
89 processing. The patients then had a diffusion sequence acquired for subsequent connectivity  
90 analyses from patient-specific multi-modal imaging data.

91

## 92 ***Machine-learning Aided Parcellation for Brain Tumours***

93         A fundamental challenge for interventional neurorehabilitation post-craniotomy is to  
94 apply a parcellation scheme to highly-distorted anatomical brains. The Glasser HCP parcellation  
95 scheme is a state-of-the art multi-modal neurobiological division of the cerebral cortex <sup>[21]</sup>.  
96 However, it was not designed to be applied to brains with large lesions and oedema. We aimed to  
97 directly address this challenge by determining new HCP parcellation locations by using a  
98 proprietary machine learning algorithm (Omniscient Technologies) –Figure 1 is the connectome  
99 construction pipeline and Figure 2 represents sample outputs. Using a supervised machine  
100 learning approach, we first trained our algorithms to identify each HCP parcel using network  
101 connectivity from a normative dataset. Then, we applied our machine to identify the most  
102 appropriate HCP parcels in brains after supratentorial tumour surgery based on the same input  
103 imaging data. To our knowledge, this approach is unique in that previous studies have resolved  
104 this issue by applying the HCP parcellation derived from healthy brains without any adjustment  
105 to cortical topology.

106

## 107 ***Comparative Connectome Analyses***

108         To gain additional insight into network connectivity, we processed n=300 HCP  
109 connectomes to serve as a reference of healthy canonical brain network organisation. Using this  
110 normative data, we qualitatively compared healthy networks to those observed in patients with  
111 lesions in particular areas. For example, we compared the normative visual areas to a patient  
112 with hemianopia (Figure 3a) or normative language network topology with that of a patient with  
113 aphasia (Figure 3b). This intra-network analysis enabled us to perform a hypothesis-driven  
114 neuro-navigated rTMS target selection.

115

## 116 ***rTMS treatment paradigm***

117         The rTMS treatment was initiated within 1-2 weeks after standard awake glioma surgery.  
118 We utilized theta burst stimulation (TBS) protocols in all patients. Details of the TMS protocol  
119 and rationale available in the SI. We performed treatment five times per day over five  
120 consecutive days. In between TMS sessions, patients underwent rehabilitative therapy.

121

## 122 ***Complications and Adverse Events***

123 All complications and side effects were noted after each rTMS session and one-week  
124 post-treatment. Seizures were defined as any observable seizure or possible seizure-like activity  
125 during the course of treatment. Neurological complications included any new or worsening of  
126 neurological dysfunction measured by the ART and MRC Motor scale.

127

## 128 **Results**

### 129 ***Preliminary safety and recruitment data regarding rTMS treatment in neurosurgical patients.***

130 We successfully recruited 31/34 (91%) patients within two-weeks after glioma surgery  
131 and treated them with rTMS. The median participant age was 58 years with 20 females and 14  
132 males. 30 patients had WHO grade II-IV gliomas, while four patients had low grade gliomas. Of  
133 all the participants, n=23 began rTMS therapy within a week of surgery, and n=31 began within  
134 2 weeks of surgery. The remaining 3 participants underwent treatment at 2 months, 4 months and  
135 12 months and excluded in the recruitment rate citing logistic concerns. In total, 31 participants  
136 completed all planned treatment sessions with one participant missing one rTMS session due to a  
137 rehabilitation bed becoming available the day of their last scheduled treatment. No participant  
138 stopped therapy due to treatment intolerance. In 21 participants with a motor deficit, rTMS was  
139 applied to the sensorimotor network with an improvement noted in 19 patients after one-week  
140 following the last TMS session. In 13 participants with a language deficit, rTMS was applied to  
141 the frontoparietal network with an improvement in 12 patients after one-week of the final  
142 stimulation session.

143

### 144 ***Safety and preliminary efficacy of rTMS in neurosurgical patients***

145

146 No participants reported any general or partial seizures or seizure-like events during the  
147 course of treatment and follow-up. Four patients reported transient headaches which resolved at  
148 the end of each individual session. Light headedness (n=1) and nausea (n=1) was also reported  
149 but resolved before the start of the next session. Transient tingling was reported at the site of  
150 stimulation during stimulation onset, but also resolved immediately. These results are consistent  
151 with well-documented side-effects during rTMS of non-craniotomy patients <sup>[13,16,22]</sup>. We noted



152 no worsening of neurological deficits and no other obvious side effects. The Supplemental  
153 Digital Content is a video of a typical procedure; the participants consented to publication of  
154 his/her image. Two brief clinical vignettes are presented below.

155

### 156 *Clinical Vignettes*

157

#### 158 *Case 1:*

159 A woman (age 60-65) with a left parietal glioblastoma presented with preoperative  
160 aphasia and near complete hemiplegia. Following resection, she developed complete expressive  
161 aphasia and right hemiplegia. Connectome analyses revealed that her sensorimotor networks  
162 were fragmented as two independent parcellations, likely due to the destruction of the callosal  
163 fibers. Specifically, the injured side demonstrated satellite areas anterior to the dysfunctional  
164 sensorimotor networks (Figure 4). Additionally, the left frontoparietal network revealed a clear  
165 component of Broca's area, area 55b, and an SMA component. However, the temporal  
166 component appeared to be less organized, appearing abnormal compared to normative data.  
167 Thus, to potentially enhance functional recovery and address both delocalised networks, we  
168 sought to select a stimulation target that would lead to enhanced network recruitment.

169

170 Beginning on post-operative day five, we performed five days of daily continuous TBS  
171 (cTBS) to both the middle of the right sensorimotor network and the posterior frontal component  
172 of the right frontoparietal network (both targets treated once per day). We then performed  
173 intermittent TBS (iTBS) to the areas of scattered activation in the posterior left temporal lobe  
174 and the areas near the abnormal sensorimotor regions. This treatment was well tolerated, and by  
175 the end of the treatment, the patient was able to ambulate with a cane and speak in full sentences.  
176 There were no serious complications, however, she had some persistent arm weakness.

177

#### 178 *Case 2:*

179 A man (70-75 years of age) with a posterior left insular glioblastoma had moderate pre-  
180 operative expressive aphasia that persisted post-surgery. Connectome analyses demonstrated  
181 that his posterior temporal region was appropriately organized but did not co-activate within the  
182 same network as Broca's area (Figure 5) [6]. Thus, we hypothesized that this was the result of

183 inactivation of the arcuate fasciculus fibers by the tumor or related to oedema. We also noted that  
184 he was recruiting the right analog of Broca's area, as both regions were functionally co-activated.  
185 As a result, we chose to perform accelerated (spaced-delivery of stimulation [23]) iTBS to the left  
186 posterior temporal site to enhance the recruitment of additional connections for speech  
187 improvement. This treatment began on post-operative day four. At the end day five of rTMS, his  
188 speech markedly improved with no complications to report. Nevertheless, he persisted with  
189 residual paraphasia after his therapy.

190

## 191 **Discussion**

192 In this study, we demonstrate the safety of rTMS post-craniotomy with the goal of  
193 promoting functional recovery. Specifically, we demonstrate that no seizures were induced in 31  
194 patients post-craniotomy and transient side effects were reported in 6 patients. This work  
195 complements safety data from dozens of rTMS studies completed in non-craniotomy individuals  
196 [24,25]. Despite the uncontrolled and open-label nature of the study, we cautiously interpret that  
197 rTMS can potentially facilitate functional recovery post-craniotomy.

198 Similar results have been illustrated in acute and chronic stroke patients suggesting the  
199 possible role of TMS as a therapeutic modality for a variety of clinical conditions to facilitate  
200 motor and language improvement [14]. Given the widely demonstrated safety profile of TMS, it  
201 would be a disservice not to further investigate the efficacy of technology to optimize post-  
202 surgical clinical outcomes. To fully harness interventional neurorehabilitation's potential for  
203 neuro-oncological care, additional research is required in two areas: target engagement and  
204 stimulation protocol. Here, we elucidate the role of individualized TMS in standard inpatient  
205 rehabilitation and discuss implications for future study on rTMS to optimize clinical outcomes.

206

### 207 ***Importance of Target Engagement and Stimulation Protocol***

208 There is a growing body of evidence suggesting that effective TMS targeting is critical  
209 for success. For example, using image guidance to target rTMS improves efficacy [26].  
210 Furthermore, targeting brain networks affected by disease-related processes is crucial for  
211 functional improvement. Recently, Momi and colleagues delivered TMS pulses to two  
212 frontoparietal nodes (prefrontal and parietal) to enhance fluid intelligence tasks [22] – adding  
213 another research consideration on multi-nodal, rather than uni-nodal, stimulation. In addition, it

214 is likely that different patients with the same clinical deficit may need different target(s) [27].  
215 Hence, there are many ways to interpret these observations, however, we advocate establishing  
216 “the right target for the right patient” as being critical to successful interventional rehabilitation.

217  
218 Similar to target engagement, *stimulation protocol* is another important variable to  
219 consider. There are numerous different TMS protocols available for use. However, TBS  
220 protocols are better suited for neurosurgical patients. First, the lower stimulus intensities used in  
221 TBS likely have a lower seizure risk [28]. Second, TBS protocols achieve similar effects with  
222 shorter treatment times (typically 8 minutes per session) compared to standard 30 minutes with  
223 10 Hz TMS protocols. This enables the use of accelerated protocols (spaced-delivery of  
224 stimulation sessions [23]) which are useful in treating patients in a subacute paradigm. Finally,  
225 the stimulation effects of TBS is believed to last 45-60 mins which may fit better when  
226 coordinating inter-session rehabilitation [29,30]. Our view is that while seizures are a concern,  
227 given our clinical experience in managing this problem concomitant with the low occurrence rate  
228 of this complication, there is now sufficient evidence to justify offering neurosurgical patients  
229 rTMS.

230

### 231 **Connectome-based Stimulation for Cognitive Rehabilitation**

232 In this study, we primarily focused on ameliorating motor and language deficits post-  
233 surgery in glioma patients. However, many patients experience cognitive deficits post-surgery  
234 and there are no clear guidelines on how to help these patients. The multiple demand (MD)  
235 system is a domain-general cognitive control network that acts as a skeleton for executing  
236 cognitive tasks [3,7]. Systematically studying this system and the implications of its removal  
237 during surgery would be useful for predicting post-operative cognitive trajectories [31]. More  
238 broadly, despite motor or language deficits in our cohort, the qualitative fundamental motivation  
239 to rehab greatly varied between our individuals [32]. An increasing line of evidence suggests that  
240 increasing the motivation to expend cognitive effort, rather than enhancing cognitive networks  
241 themselves, would be more effective in bolstering goal-directed behaviour [33]. Thus, if  
242 frontostriatal circuitry can be mapped and effectively modulated post-craniotomy, this would be  
243 a significant advancement and become important for other areas of neurosurgery, such as limbic  
244 surgery [34].

245

### 246 ***Establishing a TMS Clinic for a Neurosurgical Practice***

247 While rTMS is a well-developed field with standard techniques, treating post-craniotomy  
248 patients posed some unique challenges. First, the benefit of TMS early in the post-operative  
249 period appears important [35]. Due to logistical issues, not all patients were able to return within  
250 one week of surgery and returned within 14 days. However, there are important limits to early  
251 TMS intervention in neurosurgical patients. Chiefly, given the small risk of inducing a seizure,  
252 patients with significant swelling and/or midline shifts are not optimal candidates for rTMS.  
253 Furthermore, patients with seizure history due to a tumour should be excluded from TMS until  
254 more evidence of its safety in these circumstances are available. Despite these issues, we now  
255 feel rTMS can be safely performed as part of standard inpatient rehabilitation.

256

### 257 ***rTMS Therapy for Stroke and Surgery***

258 The literature on the role of TMS in motor and language functional recovery is well-  
259 established in stroke patients, providing most of our insight into the current benefits and  
260 limitations of this therapeutic modality. Thus, certain themes from stroke neurology may  
261 cautiously applied to neuro-oncological patients to guide therapeutic stimulation. For example,  
262 cerebral inflammation and angiogenesis are two of multiple overlapping processes between  
263 glioma surgery and cerebral ischemic stroke pathways [36]. A recent meta-analysis on 841  
264 patients across 20 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) demonstrates that rTMS is beneficial to  
265 the treatment of post-stroke hemiplegia, especially in: lower limb functioning, grip strength, and  
266 attenuating stroke severity [15]. Interestingly, cortical reorganization can be observed between  
267 primary motor and secondary motor cortices in stroke patients to facilitate improved motor  
268 functioning, leading authors to suggest the need for future customized TMS applications based  
269 on the newly activated cortical pathways in these stroke patients [37]. Similar cortical re-  
270 organization has also been demonstrated to facilitate language functioning following ischemic  
271 stroke [38]. Thus, following iatrogenic injury due to tumor resection, it is likely that similar  
272 cortical pathways responsible for motor functioning and motor learning can also be strengthened  
273 with rTMS given they too demonstrate plasticity following tumor growth [39,40].

274

275           rTMS likely provides additional benefits in many patients following tumor resection,  
276 while being precluded from some stroke patients, due to certain temporal factors which are  
277 known to affect plasticity. For instance, certain gliomas may cause slower changes in cerebral  
278 connections and therefore affect connectome plasticity differently compared to acutely damaging  
279 stroke lesions[39]. Unfortunately, acute brain damage due to stroke often causes more localized  
280 neuronal cell death and subsequent unimodular cortical organization [8]. This type of damage  
281 may demonstrate less capacity for cerebral reorganisation compared to slow growing tumors (ie,  
282 low-grade gliomas, LGG), which disrupts greater amounts of cortex but provides more  
283 opportunity for functional reorganization possibly due to less abrupt, initial neuronal death [8].  
284 Thus, even more importantly in tumor patients, individualized connectomic approaches can be  
285 implemented before rTMS to identify any on-going network reorganization occurring from the  
286 lesion and ultimately facilitate motor and language preservation or compensation. This would  
287 enable an updated understanding of network connectivity which can be applied to effectively  
288 target and strengthen formerly silent polysynaptic cortical pathways following tumor resection  
289 [14,40]. Indeed, our study shows that intra-network analyses can *safely* enable hypothesis-driven  
290 neuro-navigated rTMS target selections.

291  
292           While the applications of TMS between stroke and surgical patients have not been  
293 compared, their respective methods may differ and therefore preclude certain benefits which  
294 have been demonstrated specifically in ischemic stroke patients. Unfortunately, no studies were  
295 able to be identified which looked at post-surgical rehabilitation utilizing individualized rTMS  
296 treatment. Most surgical studies incorporating TMS have confined their uses to intra-operative  
297 functional mapping (ie, language mapping) [41]. The only post-surgical application of rTMS  
298 identified investigated its ability to reduce pain following gastric bypass surgery [42].  
299 Nonetheless, in stroke patients, the effects produced by TMS correlates with the specific TMS  
300 protocol applied [14]. Specifically, a TBS protocol of 50 Hz with 80% of active motor threshold  
301 intensity is believed to modulate motor learning through effects similar long-term potentiation  
302 (LTP) and long-term depression (LTD), and has been applied in numerous stroke trials [14,43]. Our  
303 study utilized bursts of 3 pulses delivered with a repetition rate of 50 Hz at 80% of motor  
304 threshold for 400 continuous (cTBS) or intermittent (iTBS) trains. Still, while our protocol is  
305 similar to those described for ischemic stroke patients and we too observed improvements in

306 language and motor functioning, possible differences in neuroplasticity as identified by  
307 neurocomputational models between glioma and stroke patients suggests that specific rTMS  
308 protocols may produce different cortical changes and subsequent functional recovery based on  
309 the type cortical injury.

310

### 311 ***Future Directions for Interventional Neurorehabilitation***

312 With the rapid advancements made in imaging and stimulation technologies [32], the  
313 future is bright to continuously evolve the concept of interventional neurorehabilitation for  
314 neuro-oncology. Importantly, pre-operatively predicting which patients will require post-  
315 operative interventional support or predicting which patients will best respond to and benefit  
316 from rTMS as a therapeutic adjunct would be highly valuable. rTMS treatment causes changes in  
317 electroencephalographic (EEG) assessed- functional connectivity (FC) that correlates well with  
318 clinical outcomes in certain patients. Thus, EEG-FC measures can provide accurate, early,  
319 biomarkers to guide personalized clinical decisions for long-term rTMS treatments or not,  
320 possibly saving hospital costs while improving patient quality of life over time [44]. A machine  
321 learning algorithm can accurately predict (83%) which patients with major depressive disorder  
322 (MDD) will respond to long-term rTMS treatment in just the first rTMS session [45]. Similar  
323 studies have not been extended into the perioperative setting, but numerous studies have  
324 established the role of TMS and fMRI data as biomarkers to predict motor recovery following  
325 stroke, warranting further investigation following neuro-oncological resection [46,47]. Lastly,  
326 interventional neurorehabilitation can also be utilised in other patient populations following  
327 stroke-induced pain or movement disorders [48-50]

328 With rising open science and international collaborative efforts, prospective registry-  
329 based clinical studies could be employed to overcome heterogeneous glioma populations and  
330 derive more practical outcomes.

331

### 332 ***Study Limitations***

333 This study, however, is not without key limitations. First, the uncontrolled and early-  
334 nature of our intervention raises the possibility whether these patients would have improved  
335 without treatment. Now that we have established the TMS safety profile and recruitment rate for  
336 this complex patient population, future trials should employ prospective, randomised, double-

337 blinded active- and sham-controlled TMS to determine the efficacy of improving recovery  
338 trajectories. While glioma patients are highly heterogenous given different tumors, different  
339 degrees of cortical reorganisation, and different resections completed, strict inclusion criteria and  
340 multi-site collaborations can overcome such limitations. An alternative approach would be to  
341 conduct large-scale international prospective registry-based studies. Finally, we did not acquire  
342 long-term outcome data in these patients. Nevertheless, qualitatively, all patients reported they  
343 would undergo TMS therapy again and found that it assisted with their rehabilitative efforts.  
344 Despite these limitations, our primary aim was to establish the safety profile and recruitment rate  
345 for TMS post-craniotomy.

346

## 347 **Conclusion**

348 In conclusion, we present a proof-of-concept of ‘interventional neurorehabilitation’ for  
349 neuro-oncological clinicians to take charge in driving cortical reorganisation and functional  
350 recovery. Specifically, we demonstrate the safety profile and recruitment rate for connectome-  
351 based TMS acutely post-surgery for glioma patients. Given the clear enthusiasm from our  
352 patients, we believe that TMS treatment is of low-risk, well-tolerated, and could be of immense  
353 therapeutic benefit.

354

355

356

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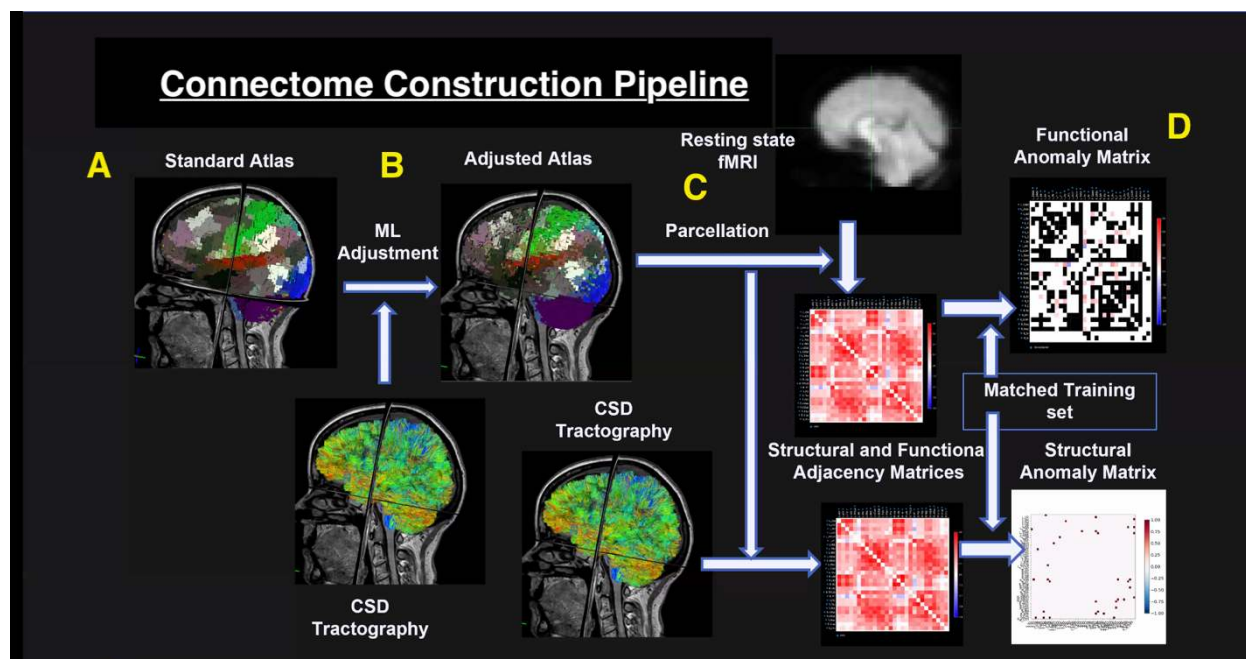
503 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization, AP, IMY and MES; Data curation, CP, IMY;  
504 Formal analysis, AP, IMY.; Methodology, AP, RGB, MES; Project administration, IMY, CT.  
505 and M.E.S.; Software SAA, KC, RRG; Writing—original draft, AP.; Writing—review and  
506 editing, NBD, RRG, JS, MES.

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## FIGURE LEGENDS

512 **Figure 1:** The connectome construction pipeline used in this study. A) A standard Glasser atlas  
513 was established using 300 healthy individuals from the Human Connectome Project (HCP). A  
514 supervised machine learning algorithm was employed to recognise connectivity patterns for each  
515 of the 360 HCP parcels in a healthy cohort. B) Using diffusion sequences, we applied  
516 constrained spherical deconvolution (CSD) tractography to our patient cohort. Using these  
517 images, our algorithm was applied to recognise and adjust the locations of HCP parcels in highly  
518 atypical brains. C) After establishing maximal likely structural connectivity, we used this data to  
519 inform and constrain functional connectivity using resting-state fMRI. D) Finally, structural and  
520 functional anomaly matrices were generated to compare network connectivity differences (i.e.  
521 language) between our patient and a normative atlas. Adopted with permission from Reference  
522 [48].

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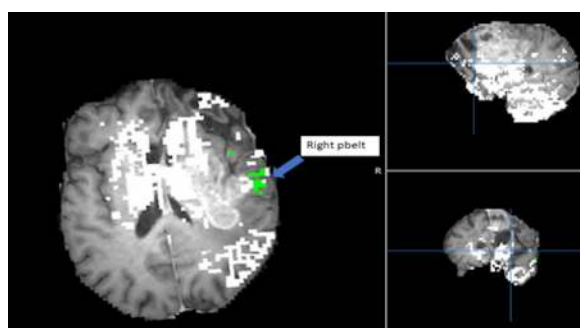
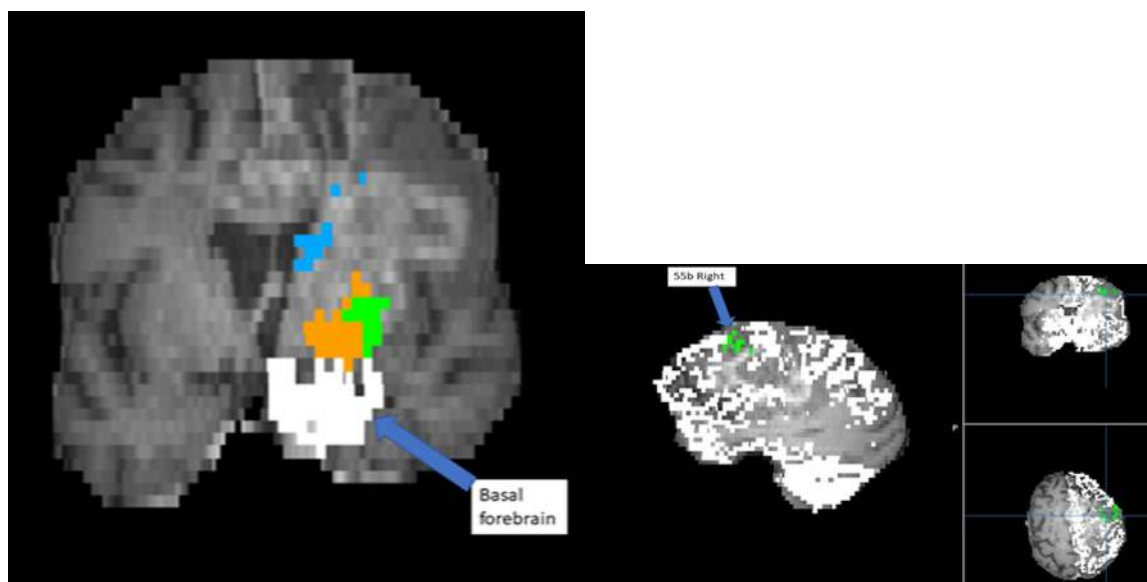
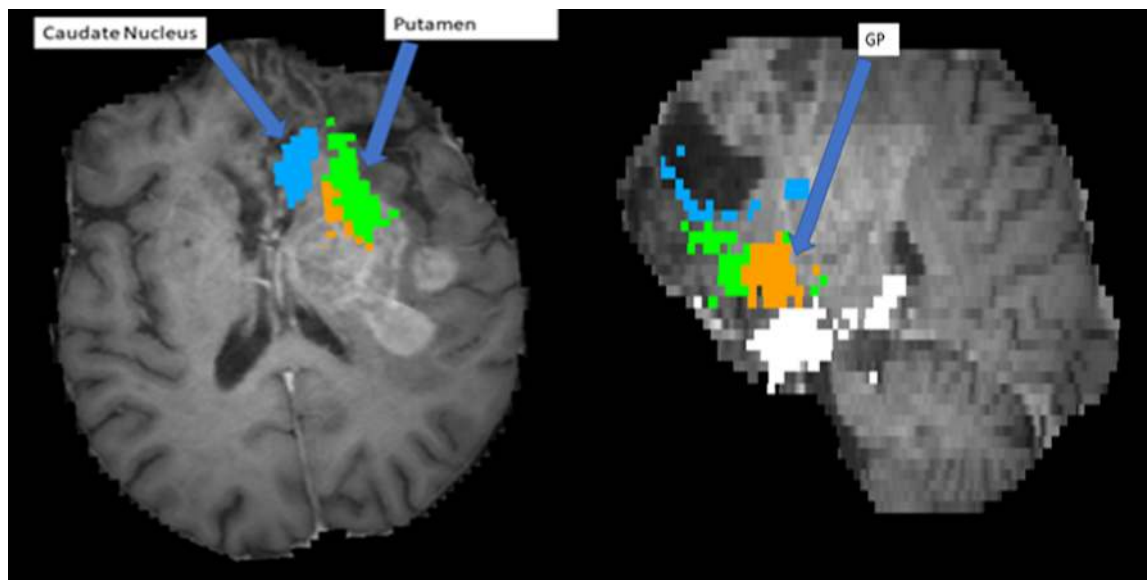


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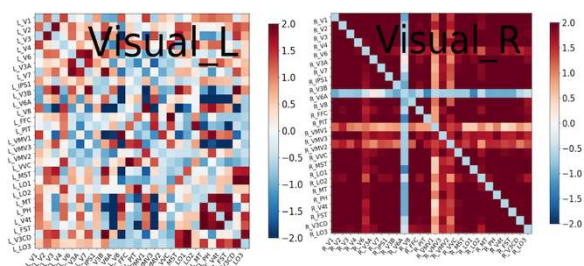
527 **Figure 2:** Demonstration of proprietary machine learning algorithm (Omniscient) that assigns  
528 parcellations to very distorted brains. Patient with a frontal lobe GBM and resected regions  
529 resulting in total anterior brain shift. Figure 2a displays the modified location of the caudate  
530 nucleus and the putamen. Figure 2b displays the modified location of the GP. Figure 2c displays  
531 the modified location of the basal forebrain. Figure 2d displays the modified location of right  
532 parcellation. Figure 2e displays the modified location of the right PBelt. This allows for the  
533 creation of a connectivity matrix of any brain despite .



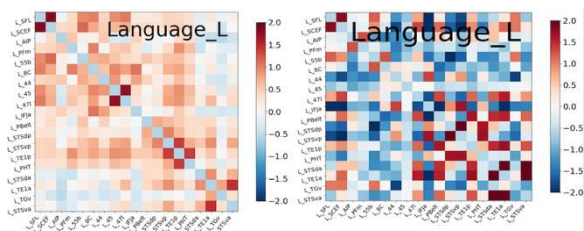
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541 **Figure 3:** 3a compares connectivity matrices of the left and right visual networks in a patient  
542 with hemianopia. The left visual network is dotted mostly *blue*, which means that areas of the  
543 visual system are not well synchronized to one another. By comparison, the right visual network  
544 displays strong intra-network connectivity. Figure 3b compares the connectivity matrix of the  
545 language area of a healthy control on the left with the language area connectivity of an aphasic  
546 patient on the right. This aphasic matrix has the parcellations within the language system  
547 anticorrelated, therefore, predominantly *blue*, suggestion loss of connectivity within the language  
548 network. Note that columns 55b, 45 and STSdp are blue representing that they are isolated. We  
549 hypothesized that this is in part due to problems with the superior longitudinal fasciculus/ arcuate  
550 fasciculus system which links different components of the language system<sup>7</sup>. Conducting  
551 connectomics analysis by comparing connectivity matrices enables us to generate potential  
552 targets for TMS treatment.

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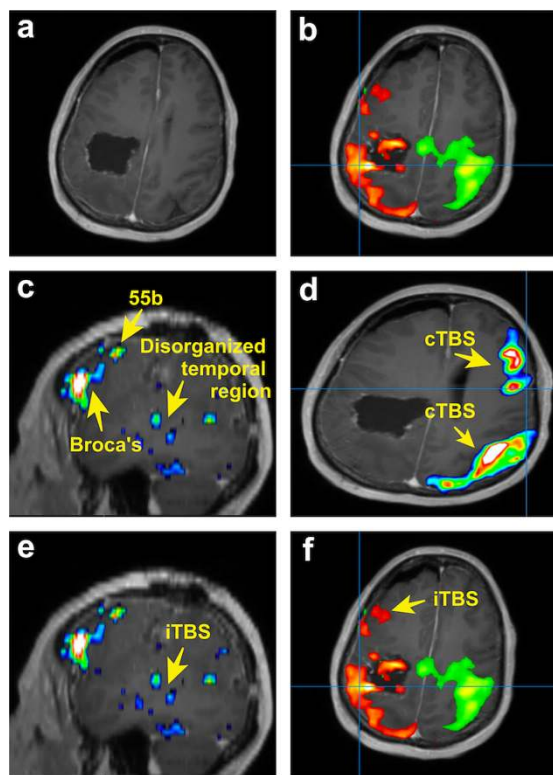
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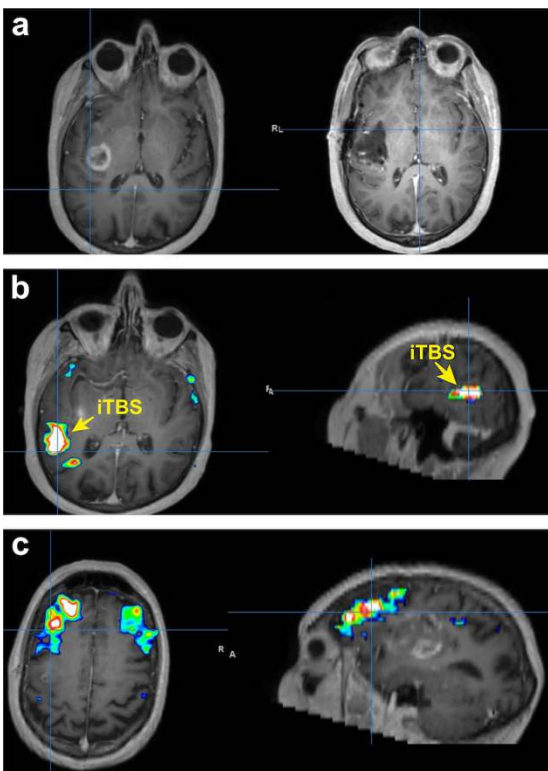
558 **Figure 4:** TMS strategy for patient presenting with aphasia and near complete hemiplegia  
559 secondary to glioblastoma. (a) Postoperative MRI of patient demonstrating resection cavity. (b)  
560 Independent right sided (green) and left sided (orange) sensorimotor networks. Although  
561 presented on the same image, these networks appeared as separate networks on connectomic  
562 analysis. The anterior satellite areas in the left (orange) dysfunctional sensorimotor network. (c)  
563 Left frontoparietal network demonstrating clear Broca's area and area 55b. The temporal

564 component of the network is disorganized. (d) cTBS was administered to both the middle of the  
565 sensorimotor network and the right posterior frontal component of the right frontoparietal  
566 network. (e) iTBS was administered to the disorganized temporal component of the left  
567 frontoparietal network and the (f) anterior areas of the pathological left sensorimotor network.  
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572 **Figure 5:** TMS strategy for patient presenting with moderate expressive aphasia secondary to  
573 glioblastoma. (a) Preoperative MRI (left) demonstrating left insula glioblastoma and  
574 postoperative MRI (right) demonstrating complete resection. (b) Network analysis demonstrating  
575 a strongly organized posterior temporal region that is not in in the same network as Broca's area.  
576 This was the area that was selected for treatment with iTBS. (c). Further network analysis  
577 demonstrating Broca's area with bilateral representation that is not in the same network as the  
578 posterior temporal region.



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583 **Supplemental Digital Content:** This video expands on the TMS technique described in the  
584 Methods. The video illustrates patient set-up, patient registration, measuring motor threshold,  
585 and TMS treatment. The participants consented to publication of his/her image.

586 [https://www.dropbox.com/s/prp7dm3h7bsgm62/TMS\\_Demonstration\\_Video.mp4?dl=0](https://www.dropbox.com/s/prp7dm3h7bsgm62/TMS_Demonstration_Video.mp4?dl=0)

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