

1 **The clinical diagnostic utility of electrophysiological techniques in**
2 **assessment of patients with disorders of consciousness following acquired**
3 **brain injury –A systematic review**

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27

28 **Key words (MeSH):**

29 Consciousness Disorder, Persistent vegetative state, Minimally conscious state,

30 Electrophysiology, Electroencephalography, Sensitivity Specificity, Diagnostic errors,

31 Attention, Cognition

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37 **Objective:** To investigate the diagnostic utility of electrophysiological recordings during
38 active cognitive tasks in detecting residual cognitive capacities in patients with disorders of
39 consciousness (DoC) after severe acquired brain injury.

40 **Design:** Systematic review of empirical research in Medline, Embase, PsycINFO, and
41 Cochrane from January 2002 to March 2016.

42 **Main Measures:** Data extracted included sample size, type of electrophysiological technique
43 and task design, rate of cognitive responders, false negatives and positives, and excluded
44 subjects from study analysis. The Quality Assessment of Diagnostic Accuracy Studies-2
45 (QUADAS-2) was used for quality appraisal of the retrieved literature.

46 **Results:** Twenty-four studies examining electrophysiological signs of command-following in
47 patients with DoC were identified. Sensitivity rates in healthy controls demonstrated variable
48 accuracy across the studies, ranging from 71% to 100%. In patients with DoC, specificity and
49 sensitivity rates varied in the included studies, ranging from 0% to 100%. Pronounced
50 heterogeneity was found between studies regarding methodological approaches, task design
51 and procedures of analysis, rendering comparison between studies challenging.

52 **Conclusion:** We are still far from establishing precise recommendations for standardized
53 electrophysiological diagnostic procedures in DoC, but electrophysiological methods may add
54 supplemental diagnostic information of covert cognition in some patients with DoC.

55

56 INTRODUCTION

57 Background

58 Developments in neuroimaging and electrophysiological methods have allowed both
59 structural and functional studies of the living brain, enabling online monitoring of mental
60 processes, including the neural correlates of human behavior.¹ Hence, much of contemporary
61 evidence and theories of brain processes are informed by neuroimaging techniques, offering
62 insight into age-old questions about brain-behavior relationships, and an emerging
63 understanding of underlying neural mechanisms.²⁻⁴ Although previously regarded as
64 scientifically intractable, consciousness can now be studied with modern neuroscientific
65 techniques, such as positron emission tomography (PET)⁵, functional (fMRI)⁶, and structural
66 (diffusion tensor imaging; DTI)⁷ Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI), and
67 electrophysiological techniques.⁸

68 In parallel with this methodological development, a great increase in scientific interest has
69 taken place with respect to patients with disorders of consciousness (DoC) following severe
70 acquired brain injury, i.e. patients in either a vegetative (VS), also referred to as the
71 “unresponsive wakefulness syndrome” (UWS),⁹ or a minimally conscious state (MCS).
72 Whereas the VS is characterized by absence of any behavioral signs of awareness, but
73 regained intermittent wakefulness, the MCS, by contrast, is characterized by the presence of
74 inconsistent, but clearly discernible behavioral evidence of awareness of self or the
75 environment (i.e. visual pursuit, localization to pain, or reproducible command-
76 following).^{10,11} Recently, the MCS entity has been suggested to be divided into MCS+ and
77 MCS-, depending on the complexity of behavioral responses. While MCS+ is characterized
78 by more complex cognitive capacities, i.e. presence of command-following, MCS-, is on the
79 other hand characterized by nonlinguistic and simple signs of conscious awareness. However,
80 consensus on a clear definition of MCS + and MCS- is currently lacking.^{12,13} Novel

81 neuroimaging and electrophysiological techniques have offered new insight and enhanced
82 theoretical understanding of these patients' level of consciousness, brain connectivity,
83 metabolic and cognitive functioning.¹⁴

84

85 The current standard approach to clinical diagnosis of DoC is based upon behavioral
86 assessment strategies, along with patient history and structural brain imaging.¹⁵ Notably, rates
87 of misdiagnosis in DoC have been estimated to be as high as $\approx 40\%$.¹⁶⁻¹⁸ The lack of a 'gold
88 standard' for detection of conscious awareness in DoC is a prominent confounding factor for
89 accurate diagnostic assessment, and it is recommended to apply standardized neurobehavioral
90 rating scales designed to detect subtle, but clinically significant signs of consciousness.^{19,20} In
91 a comprehensive evidence-based review of the psychometric properties of existing assessment
92 scales, the Coma Recovery Scale-Revised (CRS-R) was recommended with minor
93 reservation, while the Sensory Modality Assessment Technique (SMART), Western Neuro
94 Sensory Stimulation Profile (WNSSP), Sensory Stimulation Assessment Measure (SSAM),
95 Wessex Head Injury Matrix (WHIM), and Disorders of Consciousness Scale (DOCS) were
96 recommended with moderate reservations.²¹

97

98 **Clinical diagnostic utility of electrophysiological methods in patients with DoC**

99 Advances in neuroscientific methodology has led to optimism regarding potential clinical
100 utility in diagnostic and prognostic considerations in patients with DoC,²²⁻²⁴ in part due to
101 several studies indicating that cognitive processing can be detected with imaging techniques
102 in the absence of behavioral signs of consciousness.^{5,25-29} These studies applied tasks that
103 require subjects to exert mental responses to command,^{30,31} in contrast to merely passive
104 paradigms eliciting only "automatic" responses. Hence, in order to infer consciousness, it is
105 necessary to include tasks involving active cognitive processing in combination with

106 functional neuroimaging- and electrophysiological methods.³² However, functional imaging-
107 methods, such as fMRI and PET require high levels of technical skills, are expensive, and
108 most often not readily accessible in rehabilitation facilities. On the other hand,
109 electrophysiological techniques are more readily available by having the benefit of being of
110 low-cost, noninvasive, and can be conducted repeatedly at bedside. Herein, Event-related
111 potentials (ERPs) represent time-locked electroencephalographic (EEG) activity elicited by
112 external events, thus providing a neurophysiological correlate of cognitive processing at the
113 millisecond level, from early and largely sensory components to later and cognitively
114 mediated waveforms, such as the P3.³³⁻³⁵ Task-related systematic changes in oscillatory
115 variation can also be an index of cognitive effort, and can be detected through the analysis of
116 frequency bands, i.e. event-related desynchronisation (ERD).^{36,37} Such electrophysiological
117 features or activation patterns can also be applied in machine learning systems that allow
118 quantification of differences in neural responses at an individual level.^{38,39} Surface
119 electromyogram (EMG) is, on the other hand, recordings of electrical activity in muscles, and
120 is a commonly used tool to study physiological principles of muscles related to movement
121 generation.^{40,41}

122

123 **Objectives of the systematic review**

124 Although modern functional imaging and EEG-based techniques have given rise to hopes of
125 improved diagnostic accuracy in DoC,^{19,42} the body of existing systematic reviews and
126 overview articles have various shortcomings in providing a sufficient estimate of the clinical
127 usefulness of neurophysiological measures. A major limitation of existing reviews is the lack
128 of reports regarding rates of responders, meaning subjects showing signs of active mental
129 effort during electrophysiological assessment, both in healthy subjects and patients with DoC,
130 and also an insufficient account of false negatives,⁴³⁻⁴⁹ i.e. the rate of persons who do not

131 display clear signs of cognitive effort in electrophysiological assessments, despite definite
132 voluntary behavioral responses. Some reviews lack a representative body of included studies,
133 either due to overly strict study inclusion criteria regarding sensitivity/specificity,⁵⁰ while
134 others have not required use of active paradigms, rendering degree of consciousness
135 uninterpretable.^{44,51} Yet other papers only provide a topical overview without explicit
136 systematic literature search strategies.^{38,46,48,49,52-54} In addition, no existing review provides an
137 overview over the rate of excluded subjects across studies due to methodological artifacts,
138 which is quite common in electrophysiological methods in general, and might be expected to
139 be even higher in groups known to have ample muscle artifact, and lack cooperative abilities
140 in the engaged test-situation.

141

142 In summary, it is still not well described to what extent the combination of experimental
143 paradigms with active conditions during electrophysiological recordings can complement
144 standardized neurobehavioral assessment, or which type of experimental procedure or
145 neurophysiological measure may be best suited. Both are paramount in order to establish the
146 diagnostic value of the methods in clinical practice, where correct assessment of the level of
147 consciousness in patients with DoC is crucial, but challenging. In a clinical context, it is
148 necessary to establish to what extent we can gain additional diagnostic information from
149 electrophysiological assessments at an individual patient level. The aim of this review was to
150 examine the diagnostic utility of electrophysiological methods where active cognitive tasks
151 have been applied to detect covert cognition in patients with DoC due to mixed etiologies. In
152 order to evaluate the potential for clinical translation, two main issues were explored: Firstly,
153 the experimental robustness of various published experimental paradigms was explored in
154 healthy volunteers, who are by definition perfectly conscious. Secondly, the rate of patients

155 with DoC who show electrophysiological responses indicating command following
156 (responders) was assessed, as well as the rate of false negatives and positives.

157

158 **METHODS**

159

160 **Inclusion criteria**

161 Methods of the analysis and inclusion criteria were specified in advance and documented in a
162 protocol, adhering to established recommendations for conducting systematic reviews,⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷
163 including the PRISMA guidelines.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰ The full review protocol can be accessed in the
164 Supplemental Digital Content 1, as well as PRISMA checklist in Content 2. Studies were
165 included in the systematic review if they involved electrophysiological methods used in
166 combination with experimental paradigms encompassing active conditions. Furthermore, only
167 English empirical studies with more than five subjects were included. Studies were included
168 if they investigated patients who met the diagnostic criteria for VS and MCS after acquired
169 brain injury, where level of consciousness was established with a standardized behavioral
170 assessment tool with acceptable psychometric properties, i.e. either the CRS-R, WHIM,
171 SSAM, WNSSP, DOCS or SMART scales.²¹ A further inclusion criterion required
172 publication after the consensus-based criteria for diagnosing MCS, published in 2002.¹⁰
173 Literature reviews and systematic reviews were excluded.

174

175 **Search method for identification of studies**

176 We undertook a systematic review of the literature and selected relevant studies published
177 between January 2002 and March 2016 in the following databases: Medline, Embase,
178 PsycINFO, Database of Abstracts of reviews of effects (Cochrane Library), and Cochrane
179 Central Register of Controlled Trials (Cochrane Library). Primary search terms used defining
180 DoC were: *Consciousness disorder, disorder of consciousness, vegetative state, persistent*

181 *vegetative state, unresponsive wakefulness syndrome, or minimally conscious state.* Primary
182 terms were paired with secondary terms defining aspects of electrophysiological
183 measurement: *electrodiagnosis, electrophysiology, neurophysiology,*
184 *electroencephalography, encephalogram, EEG, myography, or electromyography.* These
185 were furthermore paired with third terms related to measure outcome: *Event Related*
186 *Potentials, ERP, evoked potentials, P300, active task/condition/paradigm, residual function,*
187 *covert attention/awareness/cognition or command-following.* We last searched the electronic
188 databases on March 7th, 2016. See Supplemental Digital Content 3 for a full description of
189 Medline search strategy. As studies were identified, researchers also checked for additional
190 relevant articles being cited.

191

192 **Study selection and analysis**

193 ***Selection of studies***

194 Titles and abstracts were reviewed first, and when indicating relevance, full text articles were
195 assessed using the inclusion and exclusion criteria to exclude those papers that were not
196 relevant to this review. The initial selection was conducted by one author (SLH), and double-
197 checked by an independent second author (ML). Any disagreements were resolved by
198 consensus, and if no agreement could be reached, it was planned that a third author would
199 decide (author SA). One study author was contacted for additional information regarding
200 clarification of the included study sample. Data was extracted by author SLH, and verified by
201 author ML.

202

203 ***Quality appraisal of retrieved literature***

204 Quality appraisal of the retrieved literature was conducted using the Quality Assessment of
205 Diagnostic Accuracy Studies-2 (QUADAS-2). The initial assessment was conducted by

206 author SLH, and verified by a second author (ML). The QUADAS-2 checklist assesses the
207 risk of bias and concerns regarding applicability over four domains: patient selection, index
208 test, reference standard, and flow and timing,⁶¹ see Supplemental Digital Content 4 for
209 QUADAS-2 questions. Patient selection was regarded to be at high risk of bias if the study
210 did not primarily include patients in a medically stable phase, or in cases of insufficient
211 differential diagnosis, i.e. from coma or Locked-In-Syndrome, was not based on a
212 consecutive or random sample, or did not clearly avoid inappropriate exclusion, i.e.
213 outpatients or concurrent referrals. Unblinded interpretation of the electrophysiological
214 assessment, and lack of detailed descriptions of procedures for processing of EEG-data and
215 experimental procedures was considered to represent a high risk of bias concerning the
216 electrophysiological index test. The reference standard was considered to be at high risk if the
217 behaviorally based diagnostic conclusion did not adhere to established consensus-based
218 diagnostic criteria for VS and MCS,^{10,11} and if the interpretation of the behavioral assessment
219 was not blinded to the results of the electrophysiological assessment. Concerns regarding
220 applicability were related to the representativeness of the studies in relation to the review
221 questions, such as sample representatives, clearness and relevance of processing and
222 interpretation of electrophysiological data in assessing consciousness, and adherence to
223 diagnostic criteria for DoC.

224

225 **Statistical analysis**

226 Individual responder rates in both healthy controls and patient groups were described with
227 actual numbers of subjects and percentage per study. Patients who displayed unequivocal
228 behavioral signs of command-following were classified as MCS+, while patients with no
229 reproducible behavioral response to command were classified as MCS-, in accordance with
230 the definition provided by Bruno et al.¹³ Sensitivity and specificity were computed using data

231 from the published articles and calculated with 95% confidence intervals (CI) per study, with
232 the behavioral assessment as the reference standard and VS and MCS- as the disorder of
233 interest. Sensitivity was understood as the ability of the electrophysiological assessment to
234 detect command-following in patients behaviorally classified as MCS+. Specificity was
235 understood as the ability of electrophysiological techniques to confirm the behaviorally based
236 VS or MCS- diagnosis, by the lack of electrophysiological signs of command-following.
237 However, accurate calculation of sensitivity and specificity in patients with DoC is difficult,
238 due to the lack of a true gold standard measure of level of consciousness.

239

240 **RESULTS**

241 **Characteristics of the included studies**

242 As illustrated in Figure 1, a total of 832 articles were initially identified from the search
243 process, and nine were identified through other sources. Twenty-four studies were finally
244 included for review. The characteristics of these studies are summarized in table 1.

245 ***Included study samples.*** Of the 24 studies, seven did not include a healthy control group for
246 the active paradigm,⁶²⁻⁶⁸ whereof four referred to previously published healthy control
247 data.^{62,63,65,67} The studies varied considerably with regard to sample sizes, from only six
248 included patients^{62,63} to a total of 167 electrophysiological recordings acquired from 113
249 patients in the largest study.⁶⁹ Overall, many studies were characterized by small sample
250 sizes.

251 ***Behavioral assessment tool.*** All studies applied the CRS-R as the behavioral assessment scale
252 of choice, except for one, where WHIM was applied.⁶⁴ Hence, the included studies
253 represented uniform and sound procedures for behavioral diagnosis of consciousness.

254 ***Electrophysiological techniques.*** The included studies displayed a wide variation with regard
255 to applied index tests. The majority of the studies applied EEG-based technology, while two

256 included studies used experimental tasks with EMG.^{64,70} Ten studies applied systems using
257 EEG in combination with machine-learning, where algorithms were used to identify
258 “patterns” of brain activity using a classifier method (for a review of classifier methods,
259 see⁷¹). A subgroup of studies applied complex multivariate classifier methods, integrating
260 data from a variety of electrophysiological features based on recordings during active tasks,
261 e.g. ERPs, frequency power, complexity and connectivity measures.^{69,72}

262 **Design/task.** The systematic review revealed considerable heterogeneity with regard to types
263 of active experimental paradigms applied. The majority of tasks fell into two main categories;
264 either imagery tasks, or tasks requiring counting an auditory target stimuli, while only three
265 studies involved visual stimuli.⁷³⁻⁷⁵ Five imagery tasks included instructions to imagine motor
266 movements, e.g. squeezing hand, moving toes, or moving arm towards an object.^{62,63,65,73,76}
267 Fourteen studies included the active instruction to count either a target name or word,^{27,66,77-80}
268 occurrence of deviant tones,^{81,82} or a target global deviant.^{67-69,72,83,84} The latter has been
269 repeatedly studied in a “local-global” paradigm consisting of series of tone sequences
270 containing a two-level structure of occasional irregularities in short-term (“local”) violations
271 within a five-sound sequence, and long-term (“global”) violations of the expectancies of such
272 sequences.⁸³ Seven studies included subjectively relevant stimuli, e.g. photo of the subject,⁷⁴ a
273 customized familiar motor imagery task,⁶² or the subject’s own name (SON), where SON was
274 applied in five studies.^{26,27,66,77,78} All experimental tasks included verbally delivered
275 instructions.

276 **Excluded subjects.** Not all studies provided information of whether subjects were excluded
277 from analysis or not. Notably, some studies reported high rates of excluded subjects in the
278 patient group. For example, Gibson and colleagues reported exclusion of five of 11 patients
279 from the EEG-analysis.⁶² Chennu and colleagues reported exclusion of nine out of 30
280 recruited patients,⁸⁰ and in the study of Faugeras and colleagues,⁶⁷ a total of 35 out of 100

281 patient EEG-recordings were excluded. Data exclusion was mainly due to low quality of
282 EEG-recordings, and excessive noise artifacts in patients with DoC, demonstrating one of the
283 intrinsic limitations of this approach. Also, exclusion of EEG-data from healthy controls due
284 to artifacts was explicitly reported in two studies.^{78,84}

285 **Diagnostic performance.** Table 2 illustrates calculated rates of sensitivity and specificity per
286 study in healthy subjects and patients with DoC, except from five studies, due to results only
287 confined to the group level,^{73,77} lack of reports on individual patient behavioral responses,^{81,82}
288 or because comparison between EEG-responses and behaviorally based diagnosis was not
289 possible.⁷⁵ Sensitivity and specificity rates in patients with DoC were calculated with the
290 behavioral assessment as the reference standard, although a true gold standard to confirm
291 consciousness level is nonexistent. In healthy controls, the studies displayed a relatively wide
292 variability with regard to sensitivity rates, ranging from 71% to 100%. A high false negative
293 rate up to 29% showed that the electrophysiological test failed to detect active mental effort in
294 a considerable number of healthy subjects, while other studies identified all control subjects
295 as responders.^{27,74,75,83,84} There was also a wide variety in sensitivity rates in the patient group,
296 ranging from 0% to 100%. Here, a sensitivity rate of 0% showed that none of the included
297 patients with discernible behavioral evidence of command-following (MCS+) were classified
298 as responders in the active task.^{63,79,80} Of notice, a sensitivity rate of 100% was in several
299 studies the result of samples consisting of one single MCS+ -responder. Specificity rates in
300 the patient groups also ranged from 0% to 100%, the latter again due to one single patient.⁶³
301 Notably, eight studies^{27,64,69,74,76,78,83,85} demonstrated specificity rates of 80% or below,
302 illustrating that more than 20% of patients who could not demonstrate response to command
303 behaviorally, did so in the electrophysiological assessment.

304

305 Insert figure 1 here (PRISMA).

306

307 Insert table 1 here (study characteristics).

308

309 Insert table 2 here (CI calculations sensitivity/specificity).

310

311 **Risk of bias**

312 The QUADAS-2 assessment demonstrated that none of the 24 included studies had a low risk
313 of bias or concerns regarding applicability across all domains (see table 3). Regarding patient

314 selection, bias concern was found due to inclusion of patients in a very early sub-acute phase

315 after severe acquired brain injury,^{77,83} lack of information regarding time since injury,^{75,81}

316 only two studies clearly stated they were based on consecutive sample^{66,67}, and overall lack of
317 clarifications about inappropriate exclusion avoided, i.e. outpatients or concurrent referrals.

318 Applicability concerns regarding patient selection was due to potential sample representativity
319 issues. Risk of bias was found with regard to the index and reference tests, as all studies,

320 except one,⁷⁸ lacked clear statements of whether or not interpretation of the

321 electrophysiological assessment was blinded to the behavioral assessment, or vice versa.

322 Concern regarding applicability of the index test was thus found in all studies but one,⁷⁸

323 reflecting that there is no tradition of blinding in this field. Furthermore, the domain of flow

324 and timing was overall of bias concern, as nine studies were scored as unclear or with high

325 bias risk with regard to the time interval between the behavioral and electrophysiological

326 assessment. Accordingly, this implicated a concern for the relation between behavioral and

327 electrophysiological assessments.

328

329 Insert table 3 here.

330

331 **DISCUSSION**

332 Over the past decade, there has been increasing scientific effort aiming at assessing covert
333 awareness in patients with DoC applying active paradigms during electrophysiological
334 recordings. However, the diagnostic accuracy of electrophysiological methods is still not
335 established. Furthermore, there is no consensus regarding which experimental designs and
336 modes of analysis would be most applicable for clinical use at a single patient level. The aim
337 of this systematic review was to identify existing studies and to explore the clinical utility of
338 electrophysiological methods.

339

340 **Task robustness of active paradigms in healthy control subjects**

341 In order to evaluate the diagnostic potential of electrophysiological methods to detect remnant
342 cognitive resources in DoC, a main aim was to establish the robustness of active experimental
343 paradigms in healthy conscious subjects. This could not be done in the seven studies lacking a
344 healthy control group.⁶²⁻⁶⁸ However, the remaining studies had sensitivity rates in healthy
345 controls varying from 71% to 100%. Of the three studies showing sensitivity rates below
346 80%,^{26,76,78} two included an active condition with the instruction to listen for a change in pitch
347 to the subject's own name (SON).^{26,78} The necessity of including personally relevant stimuli
348 has previously been strongly emphasized, as the probability of electrophysiological responses
349 in patients with DoC increases with salient self-referential stimuli,⁸⁶ and the person's own
350 name (SON) has proven promising in this regard.^{27,87-90} However, these results demonstrate
351 that the cognitive content of the active condition is also of importance, as the instruction to
352 count SON has proven to be more robust, with replicated high sensitivity rates in healthy
353 subjects.^{27,78} While SON is a complex meaningful salient stimulus, other studies have applied
354 simple harmonic tones with the instruction to count a global auditory deviant, denoted as the
355 "local-global" paradigm,⁸³ where high sensitivity rates in healthy subjects have been

356 repeatedly demonstrated.^{68,69,72,83,84} This review illustrates that far from all
357 electrophysiological studies have shown 100% accuracy in healthy controls. In addition, even
358 if a method is robust in healthy subjects, it remains a question whether the sensitivity will
359 generalize to severe brain injury populations.

360

361 **Diagnostic accuracy of electrophysiological measures in DoC**

362 A second aim of this systematic review was to establish the rates of responders in patients
363 with DoC, as well as the number of patients with behavioral command following that fail to
364 show definite electrophysiological signs of active cognitive effort (false negatives).
365 Sensitivity rates in patients with DoC varied markedly across the included studies, ranging
366 from 0% to 100%, indicating on average that maybe as many as one third of patients that
367 presented with unequivocal behavioral responses to command were not classified as
368 responders based on their electrophysiological activity across studies. It is however
369 challenging to disentangle whether lack of responsivity is due to patients' characteristics or
370 the methodological limitations of the electrophysiological technique. Patients with DoC may
371 suffer from severe underlying perceptual and cognitive impairments, such as deficits in
372 language, working memory, attention, memory and executive functioning, potentially
373 preventing them from responding in active tasks despite being conscious. Bias due to
374 impaired hearing can be controlled for with auditory evoked potentials and by ensuring
375 presence of the auditory N1 and/or mismatch negativity (MMN) components. Furthermore,
376 the tasks in electrophysiological studies may demand higher cognitive abilities than what is
377 required for displaying behavioral command-following, rendering CRS-R and
378 electrophysiological results potentially incomparable. In addition, patients with DoC typically
379 fluctuate both in their level of cognitive functioning and fatigue.⁹¹ Also, active tasks
380 containing verbal instructions to elicit willfully modulated mental processes are limited by the

381 fact that they require language comprehension, constituting a comparable challenge to that
382 inherent in all behavioral scales.⁹² Consequently, negative EEG-findings in this patient group
383 cannot be interpreted as evidence that the patient lacks awareness any more than a negative
384 behavioral finding does so.^{29,62,93}

385

386 Specificity rates also varied markedly, ranging from 0% to 100%, implying that some patients
387 show signs of command-following in electrophysiological recordings, despite not doing so
388 behaviorally (false positives). This could be related to small sample sizes, or might actually
389 be due to the fact that behavioral measures, in some cases fail to detect the true level of
390 functioning in the patient. Of note, the two largest studies containing 158 and 167 valid
391 patient recordings, demonstrated false positive rates of 17% and 33%, respectively.^{69,72} This
392 highlights that, despite high rates of false negatives, covert signs of command-following have
393 also been demonstrated. Notably, the number of patients showing electrophysiological signs
394 of mental effort despite lack of behavioral command-following, is in line with those obtained
395 in fMRI studies using active tasks.^{38,94} In summary, the two large studies applying
396 multivariate EEG-classifier systems most likely represent the method with best balance
397 between rates of sensitivity and specificity.

398

399 **Methodological issues**

400 The review demonstrates heterogeneity with regard to the electrophysiological techniques
401 applied. Even though EEG-based techniques were the most frequently applied method, with
402 only two EMG-studies, there was variety in the mode of analysis, such as ERP and ERD,
403 along with diversity in EEG features included in classifier methods, hence complicating
404 comparison of results.

405

406 Furthermore, the electrophysiological methods are characterized by variations in, e.g. choice
407 of EEG-equipment, protocols for EEG-recordings, and methods for data analysis. Notably,
408 there are studies where data have been re-analyzed, showing diverging results regarding rates
409 of responders both in healthy controls and VS/MCS patients.^{76,95,96} Additionally, studies
410 performed in different scientific laboratories conducting similar experimental paradigms have
411 generated conflicting results. Using a variant of the local-global experiment, a different
412 research group found responses to global deviants in 10/24 comatose patients following
413 cardiac arrest, but only in six out of 21 healthy controls,⁹⁷ thus challenging previous results
414 where the global effect has been interpreted as only being present in conscious subjects.
415 ^{69,72,83,84} These conflicting results have led to a debate about divergences in methodological
416 approaches.^{98,99}

417

418 Further methodological challenges are illustrated in the QUADAS-2 assessment,
419 demonstrating a bias concern with regard to whether the interpretation of the
420 electrophysiological assessment was masked to the behavioral assessment and vice versa. In
421 clinical trials, blinding of assessors is a common requirement, while this is not tradition
422 within electrophysiological research, likely because the electrophysiological recording is not
423 expected to be biased by rater expectations. However, there is a fair amount of subjective
424 evaluations in processing and interpretation of EEG-data, rendering reason for bias concern.
425 Also, the QUADAS-2 assessment illustrated that flow of timing between the
426 electrophysiological assessment and behavioral diagnostic measure was a concern in as many
427 as nine studies, highlighting that the lack of standardized and uniformly accepted
428 methodological approaches is a real concern and a prerequisite for successful clinical
429 translation.

430

431 Unfortunately, not all studies reported on the rate of excluded subjects, while others reported
432 relatively high exclusion numbers due to artifacts, even in healthy subjects. In clinical
433 practice, this means that there is a relatively high risk that a time-consuming assessment will
434 not provide interpretable data.

435

436 In summary, there are several general and method-specific advantages and disadvantages with
437 electrophysiological techniques applied in the included studies. High levels of artifacts remain
438 an issue of concern in all methods described. In particular, relying on motor responses in
439 EMG-tasks is problematic due to frequent severe motor deficits such as paresis, spasticity and
440 contractures. When it comes to EEG frequency analysis (e.g. ERD), this method alone has not
441 per date provided strong evidence of clinical applicability, but has been included as one of
442 several components in multivariate feature analysis. Regarding ERP, the P3 is the component
443 of choice in this particular diagnostic context, but as noted, the chance of providing evidence
444 of consciousness is highly dependent on the experimental paradigm applied. Additionally,
445 applying multivariate EEG-classifier systems might be less influenced by subjective rater
446 bias.

447

448 **Conclusions and implications for future studies**

449 Determining where patients lie on the spectrum of conscious awareness, and assessment of
450 residual cognitive resources, is essential in accurate diagnosis of patients with DoC.

451 Electrophysiological methods have the potential to make important contributions. However,
452 we are still far from establishing precise recommendations for standardized
453 electrophysiological diagnostic measures in DoC. A necessary step in future research is to
454 initiate multi-center studies, as a means to establish comparable data sets with large sample
455 sizes across laboratories, and to further establish sensitivity and specificity. Herein, ensuring

456 systematic validation of electrophysiological paradigms in healthy controls is essential. Both
457 false positive and false negative rates may have important implications for clinical decision-
458 making, e.g. pain management, intensity of rehabilitation, and sometimes end-of-life
459 decisions. In summary, one needs to cautiously balance the risk of false positive versus false
460 negative diagnostic errors in individual assessments, as it is evident that a patient with
461 discernible signs of behavioral command-following can appear as a false negative
462 electrophysiologically. Thus, standardized behavioral measures still constitute the standard
463 approach to diagnostic assessment. However, in cases where severe motor deficit may mask a
464 patient's true level of consciousness, or where other factors contribute to diagnostic
465 uncertainty, electrophysiological methods can complement behavioral measures with valuable
466 additional clinical information.

467

468 **Limitations**

469 The main limitation of this systematic review is the difficulty of study comparison.
470 Subsequently, the review focused on a qualitative synthesis of identified studies, as meta-
471 calculation of pooled sensitivities and specificities across methods and experimental
472 conditions was considered ineffectual. Also, as there is no established veridical benchmark of
473 level of consciousness, precaution should be taken in interpreting results as precise estimates
474 of sensitivity and specificity in patients with DoC.

475

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744 **LIST OF SUPPLEMENTAL DIGITAL CONTENT**

- 745 **Supplemental Digital Content 1:** Full review protocol, PDF.
- 746 **Supplemental Digital Content 2:** PRISMA checklist, PDF.
- 747 **Supplemental Digital Content 3:** Full search strategy Medline, PDF.
- 748 **Supplemental Digital Content 4:** QUADAS-2 worksheet with signaling questions, PDF.
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