An exploratory study of EEG connectivity during the first year of life in preterm and full-term infants

Eduardo Gonzalez-Moreira[1], Deirel Paz-Linares[2,3], Lourdes Cubero-Rego[1], Ariosky Areces-
Gonzalez[2,4], Manuel Hinojosa-Rodriguez[1], Pedro A. Valdés-Sosa[2,3], Thalia Harmony[1*]

[1] Unidad de Investigación en Neurodesarrollo, Instituto de Neurobiología, Universidad Nacional
Autónoma de México, Querétaro, México

[2] The Clinical Hospital of Chengdu Brain Science Institute, MOE Key Lab for Neuroinformation,
University of Electronic Science and Technology of China, Chengdu, China

[3] Cuban Neuroscience Center, La Habana, Cuba

[4] Departamento de Informática, Universidad de Pinar del Rio, Pinar del Rio, Cuba

* Correspondence: Thalia Harmony

thaliah@unam.mx

Keywords: electroencephalography, connectivity, neurodevelopment, structured sparse
Bayesian learning, phase-lag index, locally weighted scatterplot smoothing, preterm infant

Abstract

Aim: To evaluate electroencephalography (EEG) connectivity during the first year of age in healthy
full-term infants and preterm infants with prenatal and perinatal risk factors for perinatal brain
damage.

Methods: Three groups of infants were studied: healthy full-term infants (n = 71), moderate/late-
preterm infants (n = 54), and very preterm infants (n = 56). All preterm infants had perinatal and/or
perinatal risk factors for brain damage. EEG was obtained during phase II of natural nonrapid eye
movement (NREM) sleep. EEG analysis was performed in 24 2.56-s artifact-free segments. For the
calculation of EEG sources, spectral structured sparse Bayesian learning (sSSBL) was used.
Connectivity was computed by the phase-lag index.

Results: In healthy full-term infants, EEG interhemispheric connectivity in the different frequency
bands followed similar trends with age to those reported in each frequency band: delta connectivity
decreased, theta increased at the end of the year, the alpha band showed different trends based on the
region studied, and beta interhemispheric connectivity decreased with age. EEG connectivity in
preterm infants showed differences from the results of the term group.

Discussion: Important structural findings may explain the differences observed in EEG connectivity
between the term and preterm groups.

Conclusion: The study of EEG connectivity during the first year of age provides essential
information on normal and abnormal brain development.

Introduction

Electroencephalographic brain connectivity in different spectral bands is associated with diverse
mechanisms underlying brain development function (1). Band-specific synchronized -spectral-
connectivity is the underlying mechanism for large-scale brain integration of functionally specialized
regions from which coherent behavior and cognition emerge (2–5). This mechanism relies mainly on
the neural architecture and interactions within layers of cortical columns at the microscopic level of
description (6,7). However, in isolation, its topological organization—spatial distribution and
connectivity pattern at the macroscopic level possesses tremendous descriptive power with regard to
the developing brain of preterm neonates (8).

An essential aspect of describing the development of neural networks involves mapping their spatial
distribution alone by the localization of responsive areas at the observational level of experimental
techniques, which can be collected by magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and
electroencephalography (EEG) (9). With either approach, this mapping is indirect. However, the
spectral composition of functional MRI (fMRI) signals is severely distorted by the slow metabolic-
hemodynamic cascade of the process that follows actual neural activity (10,11). Several MRI studies
have shown aberrant structural characteristics and even abnormal connectivity in preterm infants
(12), suggesting that disrupted white matter tracts may underlie the neurodevelopmental impairments
common in this population. It has also been suggested that abnormalities in the functional
connectivity between the cortex and thalamus underlie neurocognitive impairments seen after
preterm birth (13). The development of thalamocortical connections and how such development
relates to cognitive processes during the earliest stages of life, e.g., at ages of one and two years, have
been described during the last decade (14).

Furthermore, the thalamus–sensorimotor and thalamus–salience connectivity networks have been
shown to be already present in neonates, whereas the thalamus–medial visual and thalamus–default
mode network connectivity were shown to emerge later, at one year of age (14). The observation that
working memory performance measured at one and two years of age has significant correlations with
the thalamus–salience network connectivity is also important. Studies have compared the
connectivity between very preterm infants (VPTs) and full-term infants (FTIs) using MRI procedures
(15). These studies showed that the most decreased connectivity strength in VPTs was the
frontotemporal, fronto-limbic, and posterior cingulate gyrus, at gestational ages (GAs) of 39.6 ± 1.2
weeks (FTI) and 40.3 ± 0.6 weeks (VPT).

Although many studies have evaluated structural connectivity by MRI procedures, there is a lack of
references using EEG to measure functional connectivity. EEG recordings in neonates and infants
have shown that quantitative EEG analyses are a reliable and valuable procedure to evaluate
functional and maturational changes (16–18). The study of EEG connectivity is relevant since
coherent brain rhythmic activity plays a role in communication between neural populations engaged
in functional and cognitive processes (19). It has also been shown that neural synchrony plays a role
in synaptic plasticity (20). Therefore, the study of EEG connectivity in preterm and term infants early
in life may provide essential knowledge regarding brain development. However, EEG signals are
affected by their low spatial resolution and volume conduction effects (21,22). These pitfalls have
been addressed by deploying generations of electrophysiological source imaging (ESI) methods
during recent decades (23). ESI methods combine the best spatial resolution of MRI for head model

estimation with the better time resolution of EEG for inference of neural activity and connectivity at
the brain level (24–28).

The World Health Organization estimates the prevalence of preterm birth to be 5–18% across 184
countries worldwide (29). The causes for premature birth comprise mainly biological, genetic, and
environmental factors (30). Despite advances in prenatal and neonatal care and decreased perinatal
mortality of preterm newborns, the number of survivors with neurological and cognitive deficits
constitutes a public health problem (31). Furthermore, preterm birth is a leading risk factor for (i)
cerebral palsy (32,33), (ii) delayed mental and/or psychomotor development (34,35), (iii) executive
dysfunction (36), (iv) neurosensory disability (37), (v) language and reading deficits (38), (vi)
academic underachievement (39,40), (vii) attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, and (viii) autism
spectrum disorders (12,41).

In this study, we focused on the temporal dynamics of neural networks in the millisecond range to
study early neural integration. We present a longitudinal study of EEG connectivity in preterm
infants and FTIs during the first year of life using a measure based on instantaneous phase
differences.

1   Methods

Ethical permission was granted by the Ethics Committee of the Instituto de Neurobiología of the
Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, which complies with the Ethical Principles for Medical
Research Involving Human Subjects by the Helsinki Declaration. Informed consent from the parents
was obtained for all study participants.

1.1   Participants

Three groups of infants were studied: i) healthy FTIs without any antecedent for perinatal brain
damage; ii) a group of moderate/late-preterm infants with GA between 32 and 37 weeks; and iii) a
group of VPTs with a GA of 27 to 31 weeks. All preterm babies had prenatal and/or perinatal risk
factors for perinatal brain damage. However, participants with congenital and hereditary brain
malformations or infectious or parasitic diseases were excluded from this study. After the infants
were discharged from the hospital where they were born, their parents were invited to participate in a
unique project of the Neurodevelopmental Research Unit at the Institute of Neurobiology of the
National Autonomous University of Mexico in Queretaro. Information regarding each group is
included in Table 1.

1.2   EEG data analysis

EEG was acquired from infants while they were in phase II sleep and were in his or her mother's lap
in a dimly lit room with acoustic isolation. No sedation was used. Referential EEG recordings for 20
minutes were obtained from 19 electrodes based on the 10/20 system using linked ears as a reference.
The MEDICID IV System with a gain of 20,000, amplifier bandwidth between 0.5 and 100 Hz, and
sample rate of 200 Hz was used. Some participants were recorded two or more times during their first
year of life. Therefore, EEG data were selected from a data-set of 297 recordings collected between
2016 and 2020 as part of an ongoing project investigating the characterization of brain development
in preterm infants.

Later, EEG data were segmented by visual inspection into 24 artifact-free segments of 2.56-s
duration. The idea behind this processing was to avoid transforming original data by using

preprocessing techniques such as independent component analysis to remove artifacts (eye movement
and blinks) or interpolation to fix "bad" channels. These methods could profoundly modify the
connectivity information relayed in the electrophysiology signal, leading us to an incorrect
interpretation of the data. The frequency analysis was set up from 0.3 Hz to 20 Hz. After EEG data
collection and selection, the data analysis continued with two main steps: inference of EEG source
space data using an ESI method and connectivity analysis based on the phase-lag connectivity
measure.

1.3   Inference of EEG source space data

ESI methods aim to infer local neural currents based on EEG and MRI data (42,43). However, this
process is subject to distortions due to the system of linear equations being highly ill-conditioned and
because the possible solutions lie within a high-dimensional space. These distortions can reach
unacceptable levels, as repeatedly shown in simulations (21,22,44).

In this paper, we estimated cortical neural activity using a third generation ESI method, spectral
structured sparse Bayesian learning (sSSBL) (45). sSSBL pursues estimation of neural activity
through a maximum "evidence" search via the expectation-maximization algorithm (46). Evidence is
defined as the conditional probabilities of two groups of parameters: (i) variances in spectral EEG
source activity, which controls the statistical relevance of the source cross-spectral components; and
(ii) variances in spectral EEG noise, which controls the level of noise in the observations.

Furthermore, this approach is based on an iterative scheme that produces an approximated
representation of the evidence (expectation) followed by its maximization, guaranteeing convergence
to a local maximum. The maximization step is carried out via estimation formulas of the vector
regression elastic net (47) and sparse Bayesian learning (48) through the arithmetic mean of typical
vector regression inputs corresponding to the samples. The global sparsity level is handled by
estimating the regularization parameters in a completely analogous form to the procedure described
by Paz-Linares and collaborators (47).

The cortical activity inference was set up on a cortical manifold space defined as 5000 points at the
gray matter, with coordinates on the pediatric Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) brain template
(http://www.bic.mni.mcgill.ca). The scalp sensor space was built on 19 electrodes within a 10-20
EEG sensor system (49). The lead fields were computed by the boundary element method (BEM)
integration method accounting for a model with five head compartments (gray matter, cerebrospinal
fluid, inner skull, outer skull, scalp) (50). The initial cortical surface parcellation based on ninety
regions of Tzourio-Mazoyer's atlas (51) was manually categorized into five large regions per
hemisphere: frontal, sensorimotor, parietal, temporal, and occipital regions.

1.4   Connectivity analysis through phase-lag based measures

In neuroscience, phase locking has become the primary measure for neural connectivity to evaluate
the synchronization between neural groups. In this study, we computed the phase-lag index (PLI)
(52,53) between regions of interest (ROIs). The PLI is one of the most popular methods for
synchronization inference because of its near "immunity" against volume conduction effects (54).
This approach applies spatial filters to EEG data that reduce volume conduction effects, leading to
the correct interpretation of connectivity information.

In this study, an all-to-all PLI connectivity matrix was computed between the ten cortical regions,
five per hemisphere, at each frequency point from 0.3 Hz to 20 Hz. This procedure resulted in a 3-D

matrix (ROI-ROI-frequency). Finally, global efficiency was computed to assess the connectivity
information per cortical region and to summarize the connectivity matrices. Efficiency is based on
the inverse of the average distance from each vertex (ROI) to any other vertex (path lengths), which
explains why higher efficiency values correspond to more direct connections. Furthermore, global
efficiency has been proven to be helpful in evaluating pathological networks since it is robust against
networks that are not fully connected (55,56).

1.5   Statistical analysis

For the statistical analysis, a 3-D efficiency matrix (ROI-frequency-age) was created for each group
under analysis. One point to note is that our data did not cover every age value between 0 and 1 year.
Figure 1 shows some small gaps in the age distribution of each group. To address this pitfall and to
estimate with more critical details the development connectivity surfaces during the first year of life,
a locally weighted scatterplot smoothing (LOWESS) method was applied (57). The LOWESS
approach overcomes classical methods through a linear and nonlinear least squares regression. This
regression fits simple models with subsets of the data to build up a function that describes the
deterministic part of the variation in the data instead of requiring a global function to fit a model to
the entire dataset. Later, we computed a linear regression model for each row of the development
connectivity surface to evaluate the connectivity behavior for each frequency value during the first
year of life. The slope-based curve provides evidence to compare the connectivity developed for the
three groups under analysis.

2   Results

The results of the LOWESS approach for global efficiency measurements in FTIs and preterm infants
are shown in Figure 2. In this figure, the term group showed a decrease in connectivity with age
within the delta band frequencies (0.5 Hz–3.0 Hz), whereas, in both groups of preterm infants, an
increase was observed. Connectivity in the theta and alpha bands decreased in the three groups. In the
low beta band, EEG connectivity increased in the term and very preterm groups and decreased in the
moderate/late-preterm group. Connectivity at frequencies at 15 Hz and above decreased in all groups.
As it is difficult to interpret the results of global connectivity power, and almost all previous studies
studied interhemispheric connectivity, we present the results based on interhemispheric connectivity
for each cortical region under analysis.

2.1   Left-right frontal connectivity (LRFC)

LRFC results are shown in Figure 3. In the delta band, LRFC tended to decrease, although at age 0.1
years (36.5 days), different connectivity values were observed in different delta band frequencies. In
the moderate/late-preterm group, this interhemispheric delta connectivity decreased, although at 0.5
Hz–1.0 Hz there was an increase with age. In the very preterm group, a decrease in interhemispheric
frontal connectivity with increasing age was evident. LRFC in the theta band showed an increase in
full-term subjects with age. Meanwhile, in the moderate/late-preterm group, there was a decrease in
connectivity with age that was more marked in the very preterm group. LRFC in the alpha band in
term and moderate/late-preterm infants decreased with age. As power in this frequency band
decreased, this result was expected. However, there were differences in connectivity trends between
groups in the beta band: full-term infants had a decreasing trend during the first year of life, but both
groups of preterm infants showed increasing values with age.

2.2   Left-right sensorimotor connectivity (LRSC)

These results are shown in Figure 4. LRSC in the delta band in term infants decreased during the first
six months of age and subsequently increased. At the end of the first year, this increase was also
observed in the moderate/late-preterm infants and with great intensity in the VPTs. This latter group
also showed this increase in LRSC at frequencies in the theta band; meanwhile, a decrease in LRSC
in the theta band was observed in full-term infants and in moderate/late-preterm infants. There was a
constant increase in the 5 Hz–8 Hz range in term infants. This may correspond to rhythmic central
activity that has been reported as a precursor to the mu or sensorimotor rhythm (58). Moderate/late-
preterm infants showed a decrease in theta connectivity, and theta connectivity in VPTs showed a
constant decrease. In the alpha band, LRSC decreased with age in term and moderate/late-preterm
infants. In both groups at three months, robust alpha connectivity slowly decreased. However, in the
VPTs, there was a substantial decrease across the whole year. LRSC at approximately 15 Hz
decreased across the whole year in term infants and VPTs, and there was an unexpected increase at
the end of the year in the moderate/late-preterm infants.

2.3   Left-right parietal connectivity (LRPC)

The results regarding LRPC are shown in Figure 5. LRPC in term infants showed a decrease with age
at all frequencies between 5 Hz and 10 Hz. However, in moderate/late-preterm infants, LRPC in the
delta frequencies and the band from 6 Hz to 10 Hz showed high values at 3.65 months of age that
progressively decreased with increasing age. In this group, connectivity in the band from 11 Hz to 18
Hz decreased, but connectivity had increased with age at the end of the year.

2.4   Left-right temporal connectivity (LRTC)

Figure 6 shows the results for LRTC. In the delta band, this connectivity at three months was robust
and decreased with age in term infants. Moderate/late-preterm infants and VPTs showed the reverse
trend, i.e., increases with age. In term infants, LRTC at frequencies from 6 to 8 Hz increased during
the year. At 10 Hz to 12 Hz, LRTC decreased with age up to 6 months and subsequently increased.
LRTC at frequencies within the beta band decreased with age in term infants. LRTC in both preterm
groups decreased with age in the band from 10 Hz to 18 Hz.

2.5   Left-right occipital connectivity (LROC)

In Figure 7, the results regarding LROC are shown. FTIs showed a progressive decrease with age in
delta band frequencies. In the alpha band, connectivity decreased during the first six months and
increased in the last six months of the year. Moderate/late-preterm infants and VPTs showed
completely different patterns of connectivity behavior across the first year of age.

3   Discussion

In this study, EEG connectivity in preterm infants was described. Most papers reporting brain
connectivity in preterm infants have used MRI (30,59–61), and prominent differences between
networks identified in term control versus premature infants at term-equivalent ages have been
described (62). These authors also reported that putative precursors of the default mode network were
detected in term control infants but were not identified in preterm infants, including those at term-
equivalent ages. In a follow-up study of preterm children at seven years of age, (63) demonstrated
that children born very preterm had less connected and less complex brain networks than typically
developing term-born children and that these structural abnormalities were observed after a follow-up
of seven years. Structural information about the connectivity observed in preterm infants

demonstrated alterations related to motor, linguistic and cognitive deficits (64). All this information
was the basis for studying EEG connectivity in preterm infants.

The pioneering studies of (65) reported EEG coherence from eight left and eight right
intrahemispheric electrode pairs from 253 children ranging in mean age from 6 months to 7 years.
The results supported the view that the functions of the left and right hemispheres are established
early in human development through complementary developmental sequences. These sequences
appeared to recapitulate differences in adult hemispheric function. However, subsequent studies in
infants have mainly analyzed the correlation between homologous left and right hemispheres.

Previous studies analyzing the correlations between homologous left and right hemispheres (66) have
described that median correlation values significantly decreased (between -40% and -60% decrease)
in infants from 27 to 37 weeks of GA. Regarding postnatal maturation, only the central-temporal
channel showed a decreasing trend. These authors concluded that the decreasing median correlation
values in all homologous channels indicated a decrease in similarity in signal shape with increasing
GA. González et al., in 2011, studied EEG inter- and intrahemispheric connectivity measuring
coherence between regions and a measure of phase synchronization (67). They found significant
differences between term and preterm infants during active and quiet sleep, with term infants having
greater magnitude values of coherence than preterm infants. The interhemispheric PLI values were
different during active sleep between term and preterm infants in the delta band. Similarly, the
intrahemispheric PLI values in the beta band differed between term and preterm infants during quiet
sleep. Our results showed that full-term infants had different EEG connectivity results during quiet
sleep than preterm infants in all frequency bands. Differences in the EEG analysis may explain the
contradiction with the González results.

Significant structural differences may explain the findings observed in EEG connectivity between the
term and preterm groups. Several studies have shown that preterm infants with risk factors for
perinatal brain damage, especially those born before 32 gestational weeks, exhibit cerebral white and
gray matter abnormalities (31). For example, brain MRI studies report that 50 to 80% of extreme and
very premature infants present mild-to-moderate abnormalities in the cerebral white matter (68).
Myelination delays in the posterior limb of the internal capsule and/or corona radiata, enlargement of
the lateral ventricles (due to cerebral white matter loss) and thinning of the corpus callosum (CC)
have frequently been observed on MRI. This last neuroradiological finding can range from a partial
thinning of the CC with a decrease in the isthmus and/or body, to a global thinning in the CC (69). It
is important to mention that the CC is a cerebral structure constituted by axons connecting
homologous cortical regions. Rapid growth in its volume occurs during the first 20 months of age
(68,70). The midsagittal area of the CC has been commonly used as a sensitive marker of brain
development and maturation since the area of the CC is related to the number of axons and their
morphology, such as axon diameter and myelination (71). Furthermore, the loss of CC at the level of
the isthmus and the mid-body has been associated with alterations in sensorimotor interhemispheric
connectivity due to the loss of transcallosal connections, which affects maturation of the motor
control network (72,73). This spectrum of structural abnormalities may explain many differences
noted between term and preterm infants in interhemispheric EEG connectivity, especially in the
sensorimotor region. Therefore, the development of the corpus callosum in preterm infants is affected
by prematurity (74), and in preterm infants, a decrease in its volume has frequently been observed
(69). This structural abnormality may explain many differences noted between term and preterm
infants in the interhemispheric EEG connectivity, which we consider the leading cause of the results
obtained.

Another important aspect is that cortical synaptogenesis shows different patterns of development
across the cortex, with a more rapid increase in the auditory cortex than in the prefrontal cortex (75),
which may explain the asynchrony in cortical maturation in the infant's brain (76). These facts,
together with the maturational process of myelination, show that it ends at a different time in
different regions: auditory and visual cortex myelination ends at 18-24 months, whereas these
processes end in Broca's area at five years and in the prefrontal cortex at nine years of age (77).
These findings may explain essential differences in the topography of EEG connectivity during the
first year of age. On the other hand, myelination in preterm babies is severely affected since MRI
studies have shown that diffuse white matter injury is one of the most frequent abnormalities
observed in preterm infants (78). The structural differences between term and preterm babies strongly
support the differences observed between this group in EEG connectivity.

In the group of term infants, the results obtained may be explained by studies of EEG development in
normal infants (79). In all regions studied, EEG connectivity in the delta band decreased with age.
EEG development in this frequency band has also been shown to decrease with age, which may
explain the results observed in connectivity. EEG connectivity in the theta band shows differences in
development based on the region being studied. LRFC showed a significant increase with age, which
is consistent with the observation that in term infants' theta, absolute and relative power in frontal
leads increase during the first year (79). LRTC also showed an increase at the end of the year, which
coincided with the EEG neurodevelopmental findings.

In the range from 5 Hz to 8 Hz in FTIs, there was a constant increase in LRFC, as well as in LRTC
and LRSC. This may correspond to rhythmic central activity that has been reported as a precursor to
the mu or sensorimotor rhythm (58). The moderate/late-preterm group showed a decrease in
connectivity, and in the very preterm group, this activity constantly decreased. Our findings are
consistent with (80). A clear sensorimotor rhythm was described in the range of 5.47–7.03 Hz with
contralateral activity in response to free movement while awake FTIs around the four months of life.
Furthermore, the preterm infant group with periventricular leukomalacia did not show any
electroencephalographic sign of the presence of this rhythm.

In the alpha band, EEG connectivity in term infants showed different trends in the different regions.
In the frontal, temporal, and sensorimotor regions, interhemispheric connectivity decreased with age
across the whole year. However, LROC showed a sharp decrease in the early months that changed to
a progressive increase in the second semester of the year. This changing trend was not detected in the
studies of EEG development, perhaps because they used linear regression for the analysis (79).

EEG beta band connectivity decreased in all regions. Our results were limited to a small range of
frequencies, from 13 to 20 Hz. Therefore, it is difficult to compare with other studies of EEG
development.

4   Conclusions

Our exploratory study of EEG connectivity between left and right cortical areas in healthy FTIs
during the first year of life showed a similar trend that has been reported in the different frequency
bands in similar groups of healthy FTIs. EEG interhemispheric connectivity in all preterm infants
studied with a GA from 26 to 37 weeks and prenatal and perinatal risk factors for brain damage
showed great differences from the group of healthy FTIs. Such differences in EEG connectivity may
be due to the structural brain abnormalities that have been described in preterm infants.   8

5   Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

6   Author Contributions

TH conceived the project and contributed to the design of the study and validations. EGM
contributed to the design of the study, data analysis, validations, and drafted the figures. DPL and
AAG contributed to the design of the software tool implementation, carried out computational
experiments and validations. LCR, MHR and PAVS contributed to the design of the study and
supervised validations. All authors contributed to the final manuscript.

7   Funding

This study was partially supported by DGAPA PAPIIT IN205520 from the Universidad Nacional
Autónoma de México.

8   Acknowledgments

This work received support from Luis Aguilar, Alejandro de León, and Jair García from Laboratorio
Nacional de Visualización Científica Avanzada. The authors would also like to thank colleagues
Hector Belmont, María Elizabeth Monica Carlier, and María Elena Juarez for their support during
data collection.

9   References

1.   Brookes MJ, O'Neill GC, Hall EL, Woolrich MW, Baker A, Palazzo Corner S, et al.
Measuring temporal, spectral and spatial changes in electrophysiological brain network
connectivity. NeuroImage [Internet]. 2014 May;91:282–99. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811914000123

2.   Engel AK, Fries P, Singer W. Dynamic predictions: Oscillations and synchrony in top–
down processing. Nature Reviews Neuroscience [Internet]. 2001 Oct;2(10):704–16.
Available from: http://www.nature.com/articles/35094565

3.   Varela F, Lachaux J-P, Rodriguez E, Martinerie J. The brainweb: Phase synchronization
and large-scale integration. Nature Reviews Neuroscience [Internet]. 2001 Apr [cited
2021 Oct 11];2(4):229–39. Available from: http://www.nature.com/articles/35067550

4.   Nunez PL, Srinivasan R. Electric Fields of the Brain [Internet]. Oxford University
Press; 2006. Available from:
https://oxford.universitypressscholarship.com/view/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195050387
.001.0001/acprof-9780195050387

5.   Vidaurre D, Abeysuriya R, Becker R, Quinn AJ, Alfaro-Almagro F, Smith SM, et al.
Discovering dynamic brain networks from big data in rest and task. NeuroImage
[Internet]. 2018 Oct 15;180:646–56. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811917305487

6.   Freeman WJ. Mass action in the nervous system [Internet]. 1975. Available from:
www.ccs.fau.edu/~bressler/EDU/NTSA/References/MASS

7. Jirsa VK, Haken H. A derivation of a macroscopic field theory of the brain from the
quasi-microscopic neural dynamics. Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena [Internet]. 1997
Jan;99(4):503–26. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0167278996001662

8. Wilson-Costello D, Friedman H, Minich N, Fanaroff AA, Hack M. Improved survival
rates with increased neurodevelopmental disability for extremely low birth weight
infants in the 1990s. Pediatrics. 2005 Apr;115(4):997–1003.

9. Mantini D, Perrucci MG, del Gratta C, Romani GL, Corbetta M. Electrophysiological
signatures of resting state networks in the human brain. Proceedings of the National
Academy of Sciences [Internet]. 2007 Aug 7;104(32):13170–5. Available from:
http://www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.0700668104

10. Buxton RB, Wong EC, Frank LR. Dynamics of blood flow and oxygenation changes
during brain activation: The balloon model. Magnetic Resonance in Medicine [Internet].
1998 Jun;39(6):855–64. Available from:
https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/mrm.1910390602

11. Logothetis NK, Pauls J, Augath M, Trinath T, Oeltermann A. Neurophysiological
investigation of the basis of the fMRI signal. Nature [Internet]. 2001
Jul;412(6843):150–7. Available from: http://www.nature.com/articles/35084005

12. Rogers CE, Lean RE, Wheelock MD, Smyser CD. Aberrant structural and functional
connectivity and neurodevelopmental impairment in preterm children. Journal of
Neurodevelopmental Disorders [Internet]. 2018 Dec 13;10(1):38. Available from:
https://jneurodevdisorders.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s11689-018-9253-x

13. Toulmin H, O'Muircheartaigh J, Counsell SJ, Falconer S, Chew A, Beckmann CF, et al.
Functional thalamocortical connectivity at term equivalent age and outcome at 2 years
in infants born preterm. Cortex [Internet]. 2021 Feb 1;135:17–29. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S001094522030366X

14. Alcauter S, Lin W, Smith JK, Short SJ, Goldman BD, Reznick JS, et al. Development
of Thalamocortical Connectivity during Infancy and Its Cognitive Correlations. Journal
of Neuroscience [Internet]. 2014 Jul 2;34(27):9067–75. Available from:
https://www.jneurosci.org/lookup/doi/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0796-14.2014

15. Sa de Almeida J, Meskaldji D-E, Loukas S, Lordier L, Gui L, Lazeyras F, et al. Preterm
birth leads to impaired rich-club organization and fronto-paralimbic/limbic structural
connectivity in newborns. NeuroImage [Internet]. 2021 Jan 15;225:117440. Available
from: https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811920309253

16. Niemarkt HJ, Andriessen P, Peters CHL, Pasman JW, Zimmermann LJ, Bambang
Oetomo S. Quantitative analysis of maturational changes in EEG background activity in
very preterm infants with a normal neurodevelopment at 1year of age. Early Human
Development [Internet]. 2010 Apr;86(4):219–24. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0378378210000629

17.   Niemarkt HJ, Jennekens W, Pasman JW, Katgert T, van Pul C, Gavilanes AWD, et al.
407   Maturational Changes in Automated EEG Spectral Power Analysis in Preterm Infants.
408   Pediatric Research [Internet]. 2011 Nov;70(5):529–34. Available from:
409   http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1203/PDR.0b013e31822d748b

410   18.   Schaworonkow N, Voytek B. Longitudinal changes in aperiodic and periodic activity in
411   electrophysiological recordings in the first seven months of life. Developmental
412   Cognitive Neuroscience [Internet]. 2021 Feb 1;47:100895. Available from:
413   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1878929320301420

414   19.   Wang X-J. Neurophysiological and Computational Principles of Cortical Rhythms in
415   Cognition. Physiological Reviews [Internet]. 2010 Jul;90(3):1195–268. Available from:
416   https://www.physiology.org/doi/10.1152/physrev.00035.2008

417   20.   Uhlhaas PJ, Roux F, Rodriguez E, Rotarska-Jagiela A, Singer W. Neural synchrony and
418   the development of cortical networks. Vol. 14, Trends in Cognitive Sciences. 2010. p.
419   72–80.

420   21.   Haufe S, Nikulin V v., Müller K-R, Nolte G. A critical assessment of connectivity
421   measures for EEG data: A simulation study. NeuroImage [Internet]. 2013 Jan
422   1;64(1):120–33. Available from:
423   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811912009469

424   22.   van de Steen F, Faes L, Karahan E, Songsiri J, Valdes-Sosa PA, Marinazzo D. Critical
425   Comments on EEG Sensor Space Dynamical Connectivity Analysis. Brain Topography
426   [Internet]. 2019 Jul 30;32(4):643–54. Available from:
427   http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10548-016-0538-7

428   23.   Gonzalez-Moreira E, Paz-Linares D, Areces-Gonzalez A, Wang R, Valdes-Sosa PA.
429   Third Generation MEEG Source Connectivity Analysis Toolbox (BC-VARETA 1.0)
430   and Validation Benchmark. 2018 Oct 26; Available from:
431   http://arxiv.org/abs/1810.11212

432   24.   Hämäläinen MS, Ilmoniemi RJ. Interpreting magnetic fields of the brain: minimum
433   norm estimates. Medical & Biological Engineering & Computing. 1994;32(1):35–42.

434   25.   Pascual-marqui RD. Review of Methods for Solving the EEG Inverse Problem.
435   1999;1(1):75–86.

436   26.   Srinivasan R. Methods to Improve the Spatial Resolution of EEG [Internet]. Vol. 1,
437   INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BIOELECTROMAGNETISM. 1999. Available
438   from: www.tut.fi/ijbem/

439   27.   Babiloni F, Cincotti F, Carducci F, Rossini PM, Babiloni C. Spatial enhancement of
440   EEG data by surface Laplacian estimation: the use of magnetic resonance imaging-
441   based head models. Clinical Neurophysiology [Internet]. 2001 May;112(5):724–7.
442   Available from: https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1388245701004941

443   28.   He B, Astolfi L, Valdes-Sosa PA, Marinazzo D, Palva SO, Benar C-G, et al.
444   Electrophysiological Brain Connectivity: Theory and Implementation. IEEE

Transactions on Biomedical Engineering [Internet]. 2019 Jul 1;66(7):2115–37.
Available from: https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/8708690/

29.   WHO. World health organization report about preterm birth [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2021
Oct 17]. Available from: http://www.who.int/en/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/preterm-
birth

30.   Gao W, Lin W, Grewen K, Gilmore JH. Functional Connectivity of the Infant Human
Brain. The Neuroscientist [Internet]. 2017 Apr 7;23(2):169–84. Available from:
http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1073858416635986

31.   Volpe JJ. Brain injury in premature infants: a complex amalgam of destructive and
developmental disturbances. The Lancet Neurology [Internet]. 2009 Jan;8(1):110–24.
Available from: https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1474442208702941

32.   Himpens E, van den Broeck C, Oostra A, Calders P, Vanhaesebrouck P. Prevalence,
type, distribution, and severity of cerebral palsy in relation to gestational age: a meta-
analytic review. Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology [Internet]. 2008
May;50(5):334–40. Available from: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1469-
8749.2008.02047.x

33.   Spittle AJ, Morgan C, Olsen JE, Novak I, Cheong JLY. Early Diagnosis and Treatment
of Cerebral Palsy in Children with a History of Preterm Birth. Clinics in Perinatology
[Internet]. 2018 Sep 1;45(3):409–20. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0095551081813708

34.   Stoelhorst GMSJ, Rijken M, Martens SE, van Zwieten PHT, Feenstra J, Zwinderman
AH, et al. Developmental outcome at 18 and 24 months of age in very preterm children:
a cohort study from 1996 to 1997. Early Human Development [Internet]. 2003
Jun;72(2):83–95. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0378378203000112

35.   van Beek PE, van der Horst IE, Wetzer J, van Baar AL, Vugs B, Andriessen P.
Developmental Trajectories in Very Preterm Born Children Up to 8 Years: A
Longitudinal Cohort Study. Frontiers in Pediatrics [Internet]. 2021 May 10;9. Available
from: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fped.2021.672214/full

36.   Woodward LJ, Edgin JO, Thompson D, Inder TE. Object working memory deficits
predicted by early brain injury and development in the preterm infant. Brain [Internet].
2005 Nov 1;128(11):2578–87. Available from:
http://academic.oup.com/brain/article/128/11/2578/339575/Object-working-memory-
deficits-predicted-by-early

37.   Leversen KT, Sommerfelt K, Rønnestad A, Kaaresen PI, Farstad T, Skranes J, et al.
Predicting neurosensory disabilities at two years of age in a national cohort of
extremely premature infants. Early Human Development [Internet]. 2010
Sep;86(9):581–6. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0378378210001829

38. Lee ES, Yeatman JD, Luna B, Feldman HM. Specific language and reading skills in
school-aged children and adolescents are associated with prematurity after controlling
for IQ. Neuropsychologia [Internet]. 2011 Apr;49(5):906–13. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0028393210005828

39. Aylward GP. Neurodevelopmental Outcomes of Infants Born Prematurely. Journal of
Developmental & Behavioral Pediatrics [Internet]. 2014 Jul;35(6):394–407. Available
from: https://journals.lww.com/00004703-201407000-00007

40. Mangin KS, Horwood LJ, Woodward LJ. Cognitive Development Trajectories of Very
Preterm and Typically Developing Children. Child Development [Internet]. 2017 Jan
1;88(1):282–98. Available from:
https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/cdev.12585

41. Carmo ALS do, Fredo FW, Bruck I, Lima J do RM de, Janke RNRGH, Fogaça T da
GM, et al. Neurological, cognitive and learning evaluation of students who were born
preterm. Revista Paulista de Pediatria [Internet]. 2022;40:e2020252. Available from:
http://www.scielo.br/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S0103-
05822022000100406&tlng=en

42. Nunez PL, Silberstein RB, Cadusch PJ, Wijesinghe RS, Westdorp AF, Srinivasan R. A
theoretical and experimental study of high resolution EEG based on surface Laplacians
and cortical imaging. Electroencephalography and Clinical Neurophysiology [Internet].
1994 Jan;90(1):40–57. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/0013469494901120

43. Burle B, Spieser L, Roger C, Casini L, Hasbroucq T, Vidal F. Spatial and temporal
resolutions of EEG: Is it really black and white? A scalp current density view.
International Journal of Psychophysiology. 2015 Sep 1;97(3):210–20.

44. Colclough GL, Brookes MJ, Smith SM, Woolrich MW. NeuroImage A symmetric
multivariate leakage correction for MEG connectomes. NeuroImage [Internet].
2015;117:439–48. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2015.03.071

45. Gonzalez-Moreira E, Paz-Linares D, Areces-Gonzalez A, Wang Y, Li M, Harmony T,
et al. Bottom-up control of leakage in spectral electrophysiological source imaging via
structured sparse bayesian learning. bioRxiv 2020.02.25.964684; Available from:
https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.02.25.964684

46. Paz-Linares D, Gonzalez-Moreira E, Martinez-Montes E, Valdes-Hernandez PA,
Bosch-Bayard J, Bringas-Vega ML, et al. Caulking the "leakage effect" in MEEG
source connectivity analysis. arXiv. 2018.

47. Paz-Linares D, Vega-Hernández M, Rojas-López PA, Valdés-Hernández PA, Martínez-
Montes E, Valdés-Sosa PA. Spatio Temporal EEG Source Imaging with the
Hierarchical Bayesian Elastic Net and Elitist Lasso Models. Frontiers in Neuroscience
[Internet]. 2017 Nov 16;11(NOV). Available from:
http://journal.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fnins.2017.00635/full

48. Wipf D, Nagarajan S. A unified Bayesian framework for MEG/EEG source imaging.
NeuroImage [Internet]. 2009 Feb 1;44(3):947–66. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811908001870

49. Oostenveld R, Praamstra P. The five percent electrode system for high-resolution EEG
and ERP measurements. Clinical Neurophysiology [Internet]. 2001 Apr;112(4):713–9.
Available from: https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1388245700005277

50. Fuchs M, Kastner J, Wagner M, Hawes S, Ebersole JS. A standardized boundary
element method volume conductor model. Clinical Neurophysiology [Internet]. 2002
May;113(5):702–12. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1388245702000305

51. Tzourio-Mazoyer N, Landeau B, Papathanassiou D, Crivello F, Etard O, Delcroix N, et
al. Automated Anatomical Labeling of Activations in SPM Using a Macroscopic
Anatomical Parcellation of the MNI MRI Single-Subject Brain. NeuroImage [Internet].
2002 Jan;15(1):273–89. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811901909784

52. Stam CJ, Nolte G, Daffertshofer A. Phase lag index: Assessment of functional
connectivity from multi channel EEG and MEG with diminished bias from common
sources. Human Brain Mapping [Internet]. 2007 Nov;28(11):1178–93. Available from:
https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/hbm.20346

53. Vinck M, Oostenveld R, van Wingerden M, Battaglia F, Pennartz CMA. An improved
index of phase-synchronization for electrophysiological data in the presence of volume-
conduction, noise and sample-size bias. NeuroImage. 2011 Apr 15;55(4):1548–65.

54. Cohen MX. Analyzing neural time series data: Theory and practice. 2014.

55. Achard S, Bullmore E. Efficiency and Cost of Economical Brain Functional Networks.
Friston KJ, editor. PLoS Computational Biology [Internet]. 2007 Feb 2;3(2):e17.
Available from: https://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.0030017

56. Wozniak JR, Mueller BA, Bell CJ, Muetzel RL, Hoecker HL, Boys CJ, et al. Global
functional connectivity abnormalities in children with fetal alcohol spectrum disorders.
Alcoholism, clinical and experimental research [Internet]. 2013 May;37(5):748–56.
Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23240997

57. Cleveland WS, Devlin SJ. Locally Weighted Regression: An Approach to Regression
Analysis by Local Fitting Locally Weighted Regression: An Approach to Regression
Analysis by Local Fifing. Vol. 83, Source: Journal of the American Statistical
Association. 1988.

58. Dereymaeker A, Pillay K, Vervisch J, de Vos M, van Huffel S, Jansen K, et al. Review
of sleep-EEG in preterm and term neonates. Early Human Development [Internet]. 2017
Oct 1;113:87–103. Available from:
https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0378378217303250

59.   Gao W, Alcauter S, Elton A, Hernandez-Castillo CR, Smith JK, Ramirez J, et al.
562   Functional network development during the first year: Relative sequence and
563   socioeconomic correlations. Cerebral Cortex. 2015 Sep 1;25(9):2919–28.

564   60.   Gao W, Alcauter S, Smith JK, Gilmore JH, Lin W. Development of human brain
565   cortical network architecture during infancy. Brain Structure and Function. 2015 Mar
566   1;220(2):1173–86.

567   61.   Toulmin H, Beckmann CF, O'Muircheartaigh J, Ball G, Nongena P, Makropoulos A, et
568   al. Specialization and integration of functional thalamocortical connectivity in the
569   human infant. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of
570   America [Internet]. 2015 May 19;112(20):6485–90. Available from:
571   http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25941391

572   62.   Smyser CD, Inder TE, Shimony JS, Hill JE, Degnan AJ, Snyder AZ, et al. Longitudinal
573   analysis of neural network development in preterm infants. Cerebral cortex (New York,
574   NY : 1991) [Internet]. 2010 Dec;20(12):2852–62. Available from:
575   http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20237243

576   63.   Thompson DK, Chen J, Beare R, Adamson CL, Ellis R, Ahmadzai ZM, et al. Structural
577   connectivity relates to perinatal factors and functional impairment at 7 years in children
578   born very preterm. NeuroImage [Internet]. 2016 Jul 1;134:328–37. Available from:
579   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811916300143

580   64.   Rogers CE, Lean RE, Wheelock MD, Smyser CD. Aberrant structural and functional
581   connectivity and neurodevelopmental impairment in preterm children. Vol. 10, Journal
582   of Neurodevelopmental Disorders. BioMed Central Ltd.; 2018.

583   65.   Thatcher RW, Biver CJ, North D. Spatial-Temporal Current Source Correlations and
584   Cortical Connectivity. Clinical EEG and Neuroscience [Internet]. 2007 Jan
585   25;38(1):35–48. Available from:
586   http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/155005940703800109

587   66.   Meijer EJ, Hermans KHM, Zwanenburg A, Jennekens W, Niemarkt HJ, Cluitmans
588   PJM, et al. Functional connectivity in preterm infants derived from EEG coherence
589   analysis. European Journal of Paediatric Neurology. 2014 Nov 1;18(6):780–9.

590   67.   González JJ, Mañas S, de Vera L, Méndez LD, López S, Garrido JM, et al. Assessment
591   of electroencephalographic functional connectivity in term and preterm neonates.
592   Clinical Neurophysiology. 2011 Apr;122(4):696–702.

593   68.   Hinojosa-Rodríguez M, Harmony T, Carrillo-Prado C, van Horn JD, Irimia A,
594   Torgerson C, et al. Clinical neuroimaging in the preterm infant: Diagnosis and
595   prognosis. NeuroImage: Clinical [Internet]. 2017;16:355–68. Available from:
596   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S2213158217302061

597   69.   Harmony T. Early diagnosis and treatment of infants with prenatal and perinatal risk
598   factors for brain damage at the neurodevelopmental research unit in Mexico.
599   NeuroImage [Internet]. 2021 Jul 15;235:117984. Available from:
600   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1053811921002615

601   70.   Sakai T, Mikami A, Suzuki J, Miyabe-Nishiwaki T, Matsui M, Tomonaga M, et al.
602   Developmental trajectory of the corpus callosum from infancy to the juvenile stage:
603   Comparative MRI between chimpanzees and humans. PLoS ONE. 2017 Jun 1;12(6).

604   71.   Keshavan MS, Diwadkar VA, DeBellis M, Dick E, Kotwal R, Rosenberg DR, et al.
605   Development of the corpus callosum in childhood, adolescence and early adulthood.
606   Life Sciences [Internet]. 2002 Mar;70(16):1909–22. Available from:
607   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0024320502014923

608   72.   Garvey MA, Mall V. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in children. Clinical
609   Neurophysiology [Internet]. 2008 May;119(5):973–84. Available from:
610   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1388245707007353

611   73.   Ciechanski P, Zewdie E, Kirton A. Developmental profile of motor cortex transcallosal
612   inhibition in children and adolescents. Journal of Neurophysiology [Internet]. 2017 Jul
613   1;118(1):140–8. Available from:
614   https://www.physiology.org/doi/10.1152/jn.00076.2017

615   74.   Hasegawa T, Yamada K, Morimoto M, Morioka S, Tozawa T, Isoda K, et al.
616   Development of Corpus Callosum in Preterm Infants Is Affected by the Prematurity: In
617   Vivo Assessment of Diffusion Tensor Imaging at Term-Equivalent Age. Pediatric
618   Research [Internet]. 2011 Mar;69(3):249–54. Available from:
619   http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1203/PDR.0b013e3182084e54

620   75.   Huttenlocher PR, Dabholkar AS. Regional differences in synaptogenesis in human
621   cerebral cortex. The Journal of Comparative Neurology [Internet]. 1997 Oct
622   20;387(2):167–78. Available from:
623   https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/(SICI)1096-
624   9861(19971020)387:2<167::AID-CNE1>3.0.CO;2-Z

625   76.   Lebenberg J, Mangin JF, Thirion B, Poupon C, Hertz-Pannier L, Leroy F, et al.
626   Mapping the asynchrony of cortical maturation in the infant brain: A MRI multi-
627   parametric clustering approach. NeuroImage. 2019 Jan 15;185:641–53.

628   77.   Paus T, Collins DL, Evans AC, Leonard G, Pike B, Zijdenbos A. Maturation of white
629   matter in the human brain: a review of magnetic resonance studies. Brain Research
630   Bulletin [Internet]. 2001 Feb;54(3):255–66. Available from:
631   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0361923000004342

632   78.   Woodward LJ, Clark CAC, Pritchard VE, Anderson PJ, Inder TE. Neonatal White
633   Matter Abnormalities Predict Global Executive Function Impairment in Children Born
634   Very Preterm. Developmental Neuropsychology [Internet]. 2011 Jan 25;36(1):22–41.
635   Available from: http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/87565641.2011.540530

636   79.   Otero GA, Harmony T, Pliego-Rivero FB, Ricardo-Garcell J, Bosch-Bayard J, Porcayo-
637   Mercado R, et al. QEEG norms for the first year of life. Early Human Development
638   [Internet]. 2011 Oct;87(10):691–703. Available from:
639   https://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0378378211002003

640   80.   Roca-Stappung M, Moguel-González M, Fernández T, Harmony T, Mendoza-Montoya
641   O, Marroquín JL, et al. Characterization of the Sensorimotor Rhythm in 4-Month-Old
642   Infants Born at Term and Premature. Applied Psychophysiology Biofeedback. 2017
643   Dec 1;42(4):257–67.

10   Supplementary Material

Supplementary Material should be uploaded separately on submission, if there are Supplementary Figures, please include the caption in the same file as the figure. Supplementary Material templates can be found in the Frontiers Word Templates file.

Please seehe Supplementary Material section of the Author guidelines for details on the different file types accepted.

11   Data Availability Statement

The datasets [GENERATED/ANALYZED] for this study can be found in the [NAME OF REPOSITORY] [LINK]. Please see the Data Availability section of the Author guidelines for more details.

Table 1. Demographic information for full-term and preterm infants.

Age Group	N	Sex (females)	EEGs	GA (wks)
Full-term	71	29	82	40 (38-41)
Moderate/late preterm	54	25	112	35 (32-37)
Very preterm	56	27	103	29 (27-31)

Fig 1: Histogram by age groups showing some small gaps in EEG data recordings during the first year.

Fig 2: *Global connectivity patterns in the three groups of infants: full term, moderate/late preterm, and very preterm.*

Fig 3: Local connectivity patterns in the three groups of infants (full term, moderate/late preterm, and very preterm) at frontal cortical regions.

Fig 4: Local connectivity patterns in the three groups of infants (full term, moderate/late preterm, and very preterm) at sensorimotor cortical regions.

Fig 5: *Local connectivity patterns in the three groups of infants (full term, moderate/late preterm, and very preterm) at parietal cortical regions.*

Fig 6: Local connectivity patterns in the three groups of infants (full term, moderate/late preterm, and very preterm) at temporal cortical regions.

***Fig 7:** Local connectivity patterns in the three groups of infants (full term, moderate/late preterm, and very preterm) at sensorimotor occipital regions.*