

24

Abstract

25 *Background:* Human visual cortical area hMT+, like its homologue MT in the macaque monkey, has
26 been shown to be particularly selective to visual motion. After damage to the primary visual cortex
27 (V1), patients often exhibit preserved ability to detect moving stimuli, which is associated with
28 neural activity in area hMT+. As an anatomical substrate underlying residual function in the absence
29 of V1, promoting functional plasticity in hMT+ could potentially boost visual performance despite
30 cortical damage.

31 *Objective:* To establish in healthy participants whether it is possible to use transcranial direct current
32 stimulation (tDCS) over hMT+ to potentiate learning of visual motion direction discrimination.

33 *Methods:* Participants were trained daily for five days on a visual motion direction discrimination
34 task. Task difficulty was increased as performance improved, by decreasing the proportion of
35 coherently moving dots, such that participants were always performing at psychophysical threshold.
36 tDCS, either anodal or sham, was applied daily during the 20-minute training session. Task
37 performance was assessed at baseline and at the end of the training period.

38 *Results:* All participants showed improved task performance both during and after training. Contrary
39 to our hypothesis, anodal tDCS did not further improve performance compared to sham stimulation.
40 Bayesian statistics indicated significant evidence in favour of the null hypothesis.

41 *Conclusion:* Anodal tDCS to hMT+ does not enhance visual motion direction discrimination learning
42 in the young healthy visual system.

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46 **Introduction**

47 The principal pathway conveying visual information from the eye to the brain projects via the
48 primary visual cortex (V1), the largest cortical visual area. The critical role of this area in vision is
49 reflected in the fact that any damage to this region can lead to cortical blindness. However, even after
50 damage to V1, many patients continue to show cortical brain activity in the human motion area
51 hMT+ [1-4] and some are adept at detecting moving stimuli, a capacity known as blindsight [5].
52 Hence area hMT+ is a potential intervention target for rehabilitation regimes that aim to improve
53 visual function after V1 damage [6, 7].

54 In the healthy visual system, the specialised role of hMT+ in humans and MT in the non-human
55 primate has been demonstrated using multiple techniques, including electrophysiology[8-10], lesion
56 studies [11-13], fMRI [14] and electrical stimulation [15]. Given this role it could be hypothesized
57 that perceptual training on motion discrimination should result in functional changes within MT.
58 However, this does not appear to be the case, at least in the macaque. Law & Gold [16-18] have
59 shown that learning a motion task does not change neuronal properties in MT, but rather this occurs
60 at the level of the sensory-motor decision, in lateral intraparietal area (LIP). Nevertheless, Lui &
61 Pack [19] demonstrated that while training on a motion discrimination task did not change the
62 sensitivity of individual MT neurons, after training there was an increased effect of MT
63 microstimulation on biasing motion direction decisions.

64 In humans, learning a visual motion discrimination task over 5 days causes an increase in neural
65 activity in MST, part of the human motion complex, which correlates with the amount of learning
66 [20], suggesting a functional role for MST in the improved performance. Since this region often
67 remains active in patients who have suffered damage to V1, it may be that visual discrimination
68 training could strengthen subcortical connections to visual motion areas and increase residual visual
69 function. While boosting performance with training is beneficial, addition of an adjunct intervention
70 to increase plasticity, such as pharmacological enhancement of acetylcholine levels [21], can further
71 potentiate the effect.

72 Here we tested whether a different neuroplasticity intervention, non-invasive brain stimulation of
73 hMT+, when applied during training could also increase learning. We chose to stimulate using
74 excitatory (anodal) transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) and compare this to sham. Anodal

75 tDCS increases visual cortical excitability [22, 23] and has been reported to enhance visual
76 functioning [24-27]. In the motor system, anodal tDCS applied to primary motor cortex during
77 training has been shown to enhance acquisition and consolidation of motor learning [28, 29]. The
78 current study tested whether anodal tDCS of hMT+ would augment learning of visual motion
79 direction discrimination.

80 **Materials and Methods**

81 Participants

82 24 participants (13 female and 11 male; M=24.7 years; SD=5.8 years) were randomly assigned to an
83 anodal (n=13) or sham (n=11) stimulation group. Before study completion, three participants
84 withdrew from the study, two from the anodal group and one from the sham group. Owing to
85 incomplete data, these participants were excluded from all analyses.

86 The study was approved by the local InterDivisional Research Ethics Committee (IDREC) at the
87 University of Oxford (reference MSD-IDREC-C2-2014-025) and all participants gave written,
88 informed consent. Research was carried out in accordance with the Code of Ethics of the World
89 Medical Association (Declaration of Helsinki). All participants underwent safety screening to
90 exclude contraindications to brain stimulation prior to each test session.

91 Visual task

92 Participants completed a motion perception task where the instructions were to discriminate the
93 direction of coherently-moving dots presented amongst randomly-moving distractor dots. Moving
94 dots (n=143) were presented within a circular area 11° in diameter, offset 10° to the left or right of
95 fixation. Dots were high contrast white dots on a black background. The luminance and chromaticity
96 measures (SpectraScan PR-650) were white: 96.8cd/m² (x=0.289, y=0.312), and black: 0.92cd/m²
97 (x=0.236, y=0.247). Each trial consisted of a 500ms stimulus window, a pause for the participant
98 response, and a 200ms feedback window (Figure 1A). The next trial began automatically following
99 the feedback window. The response window remained on-screen until the participant responded.
100 During all sessions participants were offered an optional screen break every 20 trials to reduce
101 fatigue.

102 All participants completed ten training sessions of the motion discrimination task. The training
103 sessions were completed two per day, for five consecutive days (2 training sessions of 400 trials per
104 day, each session lasting around 10 minutes) with a break of 1-2 minutes between training sessions
105 carried out on the same day. Learning effect was quantified from the assessment sessions on day 1
106 and day 5, which acted as the dependent variable (400 trials per assessment, each session lasting
107 around 20 minutes). In these assessment sessions, stimuli were presented to the left or right visual
108 hemifield in a pseudorandomly interleaved manner, with 200 trials per hemifield. For the training
109 sessions, the stimulus was delivered to the right visual hemifield only, to allow the left hemifield to
110 act as a control (i.e. contrast trained > untrained hemifield).

111 Task difficulty was adaptively modulated by altering the ratio of coherently-moving dots to
112 randomly-moving dots, using a two up one down staircase procedure[30]. New staircases were
113 initiated for every assessment and training session. For the assessment sessions, independent
114 staircases were applied for the two visual hemifields. Motion direction discrimination thresholds for
115 every session were calculated by taking the mean of the coherence on each reversal trial (the task
116 changed from increasing in difficulty to decreasing, or vice versa). The first 10 reversals were
117 discarded. The average provided a threshold at which the participant is predicted statistically to be
118 correct 80% of the time.

119 Brain stimulation

120 Participants received five sessions (20 minutes each) of tDCS delivered over left hMT+ (HDCKit,
121 Magstim), one each day, concurrent with the 20-minute training period. For sham stimulation the
122 current was ramped up to 1mA over 10 seconds and then switched off. For anodal stimulation, the
123 current was ramped up over a duration of 10 seconds and remained at 1mA for 20 minutes. Direct
124 current was delivered through electrodes inside rectangular saline-soaked sponges. The cathode
125 (8.5cm x 6cm) was placed at the vertex and the anode (5cm x 5cm) was placed 3cm above theinion
126 along the nasion-inion line and 6cm left of the midline in the sagittal plane (Figure 1). The latter
127 scalp coordinates were derived from prior research with transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS),
128 which showed effects of stimulation at this location on visual motion processing [31, 32]. The
129 electrode montage used here has been used in previous tDCS research to stimulate left hMT+ [26].

130 The experimenter who conducted the training and stimulation was blinded as to whether the
131 participant was receiving sham or anodal stimulation. This was done using an automatic blinding

132 mode on the tDCS stimulation device. Unblinding was performed once data collection was
133 completed, prior to analysis.

134 **Results**

135
136 There were no reported adverse effects of the tDCS, with the exception of sensations of itching and
137 tingling in both sham and anodal groups, with no difference between the groups.

138 Data from ten participants in a previous study (5 female, 18-29 years) using the same protocol, but
139 without any stimulation, were included in the analysis for comparison [33]. For all assessment and
140 training sessions, performance was quantified by determining the motion direction discrimination
141 threshold, a measure used in previous studies to quantify changes in learning [20, 33].

142 For training sessions, thresholds were normalized within each participant relative to performance in
143 the initial training session (i.e. Day 1). Performance levels in the daily motion perception training
144 sessions were indistinguishable across the three groups (Figure 1B). While there was a significant
145 effect of training session ($F(9,252) = 16.3$; $p < 0.001$), indicating that participants learned the task,
146 there was no difference between the anodal, sham and no stimulation groups ($F(2, 28) = 1.5$; $p =$
147 0.23).

148 To aid interpretation of the null effect of tDCS, a Bayesian repeated measures ANOVA was also
149 performed, using the open-source software package JASP (<http://www.jasp-stats.org>) [34]. Bayesian
150 analyses permit a test of the relative strength of evidence for the null hypothesis (H_0 : no effect of
151 tDCS stimulation group) versus the alternative hypothesis (H_1 : change in behaviour as a result of
152 tDCS condition) [35]. The pattern of results was consistent across both frequentist and Bayesian
153 analyses. The main effect of training was significant, reflected in a higher Bayes factor for the
154 alternative hypothesis (H_1 : training changes behavioural performance) than the null hypothesis (H_0 :
155 no behavioural effect of training; $BF_{10} = 1.6 \times 10^{18}$). The Bayes factor for the effect of tDCS
156 stimulation condition (H_1) was less than one ($BF_{10} = 0.37$). In contrast, the reciprocal value ($BF_{01} =$
157 2.7) suggests that the null hypothesis (that there is no effect of tDCS condition) is 2.7 times more
158 likely than the alternative hypothesis.

159 For assessment sessions, a learning index was calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Learning Index} = \frac{(T_1 - T_2)}{(T_1 + T_2)}$$

160 where T_1 refers to the threshold before training, and T_2 refers to the threshold after training was
161 completed.

162 There was no significant difference in the learning index between anodal, sham and no stimulation
163 groups (Figure 1C) either for the trained hemifield (one-way ANOVA: $F(2, 30)=1.754$, $p=0.192$) or
164 the untrained hemifield (one-way ANOVA: $F(2, 30)=2.283$, $p=0.121$). A one-way Bayesian ANOVA
165 was also performed on the learning index, and, consistent with the previous result, provided evidence
166 in favour of the null hypothesis ($BF_{10} = 0.63$; $BF_{01} = 1.59$).

167 Next we tested if anodal tDCS would enhance consolidation of visual learning across consecutive
168 days. Offline consolidation refers to performance gains that occur after training during a rest interval.
169 In this task, offline consolidation would be reflected in a lower direction discrimination threshold the
170 day after training compared to the threshold achieved at the end of the previous day. Forgetting
171 would be reflected in a threshold increase. Maintenance of learning would be reflected in no change
172 across the interval between days. Figure 1B indicates there was no clear evidence of offline
173 consolidation across consecutive days. A one-way ANOVA on the mean difference in performance
174 between consecutive days indicated no effect of tDCS on consolidation ($F(2,30) = 1.52$, $p = 0.24$).
175 Similarly, the Bayesian ANOVA provided evidence in favour of the null hypothesis ($BF_{10} = 0.54$;
176 $BF_{01} = 1.85$).

177

178 **Discussion**

179 All participant groups included in this study showed significant improvement in direction
180 discrimination thresholds over the five-day training period, consistent with previous results [20, 33].
181 Furthermore, daily anodal tDCS to hMT+ during training had no effect on learning or offline
182 consolidation.

183 All groups showed improved thresholds, i.e. learned from training. Yet, despite using stimulation
184 parameters closely similar to previous tDCS studies of hMT+ [36], there was no difference in
185 performance between groups receiving anodal or sham tDCS. The improvement with training in both

186 these groups was comparable to previous data from participants that had not received stimulation
187 (Figure 1C). There are several potential reasons for the lack of a tDCS learning or consolidation
188 enhancement effect.

189 Firstly, hMT+ was not identified in each participant individually using fMRI, so it is possible that the
190 anodal electrode did not effectively stimulate the target area. However, this seems unlikely. Area
191 hMT+ has been shown to vary only by approximately 2.7cm in the left hemisphere [37] and to be, on
192 average, 0.3cm³ in size [38]. The tDCS electrode dimensions exceed this (hMT+ anode: 5cm x 5cm),
193 so it is likely that the stimulation at least partially covered hMT+. A related point is that the
194 stimulation is applied at the scalp, and the achieved current dose within cortex is likely to vary across
195 participants. The location of hMT+ is also variable across individuals, and can be either on a gyrus,
196 in the sulcus, or both [39, 40]. How variations in individual anatomy interact with induced electrical
197 current dose is currently under active investigation [41]. Nevertheless, inter-participant variance was
198 in a similar range for the anodal and sham groups, suggesting this is unlikely to be a key factor in the
199 null result.

200 Secondly, only the effects of anodal stimulation on a motion direction perception task were
201 considered in this study. It may be interesting to investigate whether cathodal stimulation of hMT+
202 alters motion perception in this type of extended training protocol. Battaglini et al. [42] found that
203 both anodal and cathodal stimulation improved performance on a visual motion discrimination task,
204 although the authors suggest the improvement was due to different mechanisms. We chose to
205 stimulate with anodal tDCS as this polarity of stimulation has most reliably been associated with
206 learning gains, at least in the motor system.

207 A third point relates to the number of participants in the study. Variability in tDCS effects have led to
208 calls for greatly increased sample sizes [43]. One important, relatively neglected point in this
209 discussion is that the end goal of much neuromodulation research is therapeutic. Here our motive for
210 investigating tDCS was to advance the long-term goal of improving visual function in individual
211 patients. For this to be practical, tDCS effects need to be measurable reliably in small samples, such
212 as the single-case and small group designs that reflect the real-world challenges of clinical
213 neuropsychology research and practice [44]. A small, but statistically significant effect that requires
214 large populations to detect is unlikely to have measurable benefit at an individual level.

215 Finally, multiple studies have shown that visual perceptual learning improves visual performance.
216 We found no evidence that concurrent anodal tDCS to hMT+ accelerated perceptual learning or
217 enhanced consolidation over a 5-day training period. It is possible that the training itself induced a
218 ceiling effect in these young participants with a healthy visual system.

219 Although tDCS in these healthy participants did not improve visual motion discrimination, this does
220 not rule out the possibility of a beneficial effect of the same intervention in a patient group. In
221 healthy, sighted participants the main thalamocortical projection from the retina to V1 is intact. In
222 contrast, patients with damage to the primary visual cortex must rely on other connections to convey
223 retinal information to the visual cortex. Since these alternative connections are unlikely to be as
224 strong as the V1 pathway, it may be that training this pathway concurrent with electrical stimulation
225 in patients would have a measurable effect.

226

227

228 **Conclusion**

229 In conclusion, anodal stimulation of hMT+ in healthy participants during motion perception training
230 did not improve performance compared to sham stimulation. This suggests that online, anodal
231 stimulation of hMT+ (at least with the montage, current strength, duration, and participant sample
232 tested here) may not be an effective way to modulate motion perception learning.

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234

235 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

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

238 **Author Contributions**

239 Conception and design of the work (SL, CK, HB, JO'S), data collection (SL, JO'S), data analysis and
240 interpretation (SL, HB), drafting the article (SL, HB, JO'S), critical revision of the article (SL, HB,
241 JO'S), final approval of the version to be published (SL, CK, HB, JO'S).

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251 **Figure Legend**

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253 **Figure 1: A: Motion direction discrimination task.** Participants determined the direction of
254 coherent motion of moving dots. Each trial consisted of 500ms stimulus period, followed by an
255 untimed user response window. Following participant response, feedback was provided (red or green
256 fixation cross) for 200ms, and then the next trial start immediately. **B: Comparison of performance**
257 **of anodal, sham and no tDCS stimulation groups across the ten training sessions.** There was no
258 significant difference between normalised discrimination thresholds at the final training session,
259 indicating a similar amount of learning occurred in all three groups. **C: Comparison of learning**
260 **index computed from the assessment on day 1 and day 5 of anodal, sham and no tDCS**
261 **stimulation groups across trained and untrained visual hemifields.** There was no significant
262 difference in the learning index across groups, neither in the trained nor untrained hemifields. Error
263 bars show \pm SEM.

264

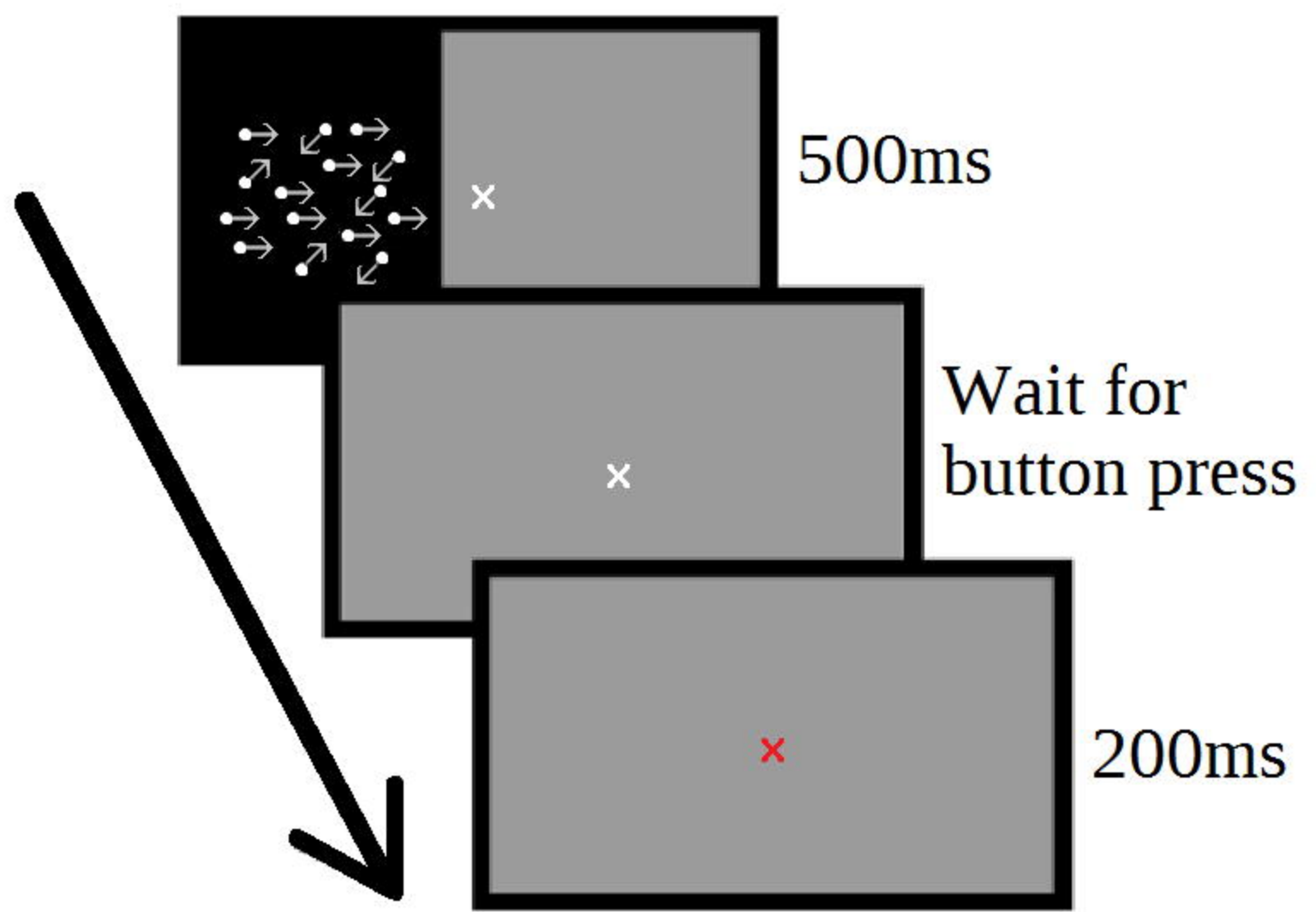
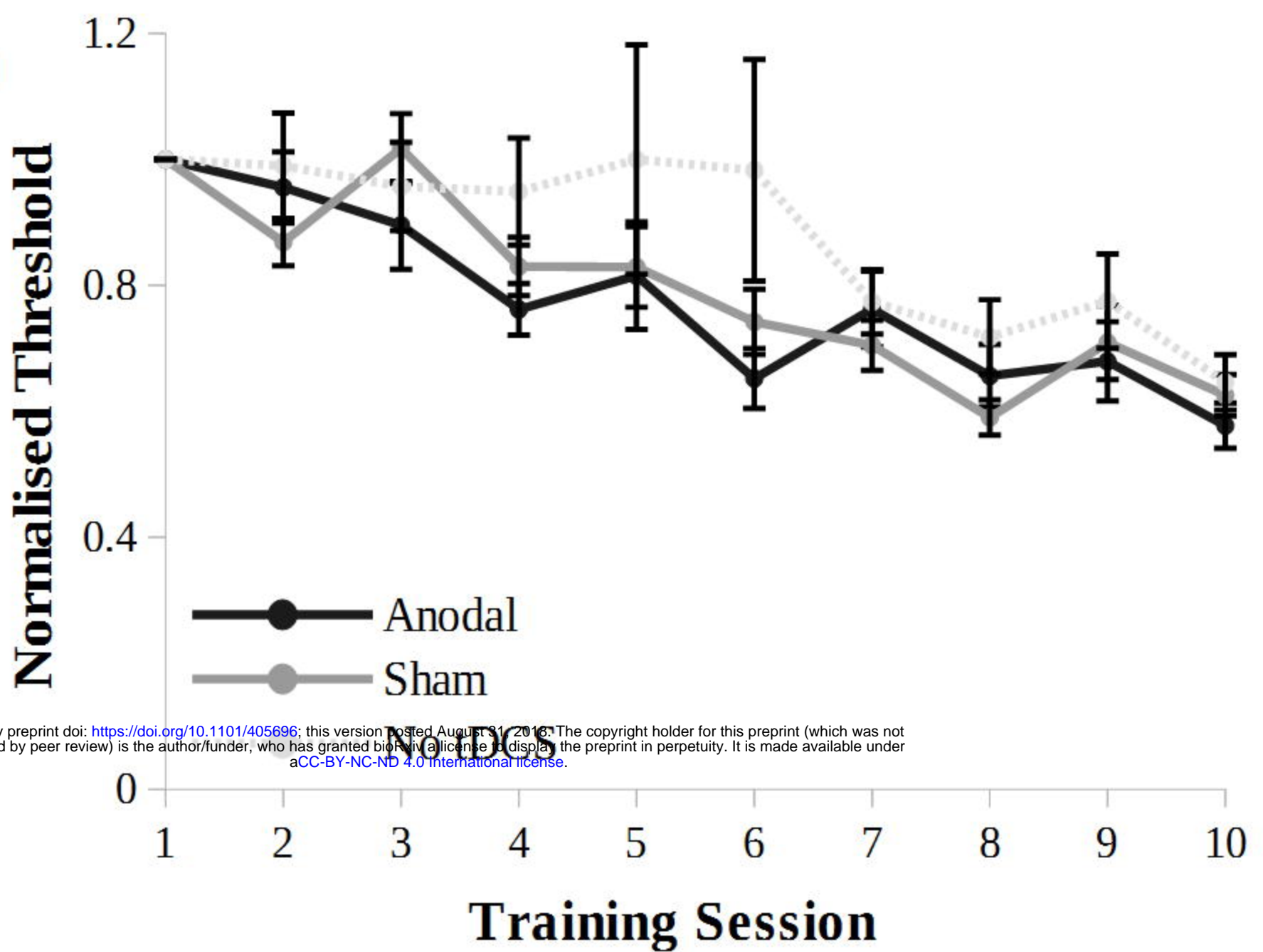
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