

# 1 Within-subject Consistency of Paired Associative Stimulation as 2 Assessed by Linear Mixed Models

3 Myrthe Julia Ottenhoff<sup>1,2</sup>, Lana Fani<sup>1,2</sup>, Nicole Stephanie Erler<sup>3</sup>, Jesminne  
4 Castricum<sup>1,2,4</sup>, Imara Fedora Obdam<sup>4</sup>, Thijs van der Vaart<sup>1,2,5</sup>, Steven Aaron  
5 Kushner<sup>2,4</sup>, Marie-Claire Yvette de Wit<sup>2,5</sup>, Ype Elgersma<sup>1,2\*#</sup>, Joke H.M. Tulen<sup>2,4\*#</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup> Department of Neuroscience, Erasmus MC University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The  
7 Netherlands

8 <sup>2</sup> ENCORE Expertise Center for Neurodevelopmental Disorders, Erasmus MC University  
9 Medical Center – Sophia Children’s Hospital, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

10 <sup>3</sup> Department of Biostatistics, Erasmus MC University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The  
11 Netherlands

12 <sup>4</sup> Department of Psychiatry, Erasmus MC University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The  
13 Netherlands

14 <sup>5</sup> Department of Neurology, Erasmus MC University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The  
15 Netherlands

16 **\* Correspondence:**

17 Prof. Ype Elgersma

18 [y.elgersma@erasmusmc.nl](mailto:y.elgersma@erasmusmc.nl)

19 Dr. Joke Tulen

20 [j.h.m.tulen@erasmusmc.nl](mailto:j.h.m.tulen@erasmusmc.nl)

21 <sup>#</sup> these authors are shared senior authors.

22 **Keywords:** transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS); paired associative stimulation  
23 (PAS); reproducibility; intra-individual variability; linear mixed models; long-term  
24 potentiation (LTP); spike-timing dependent plasticity (STDP).

25

## 26 Abstract

27 Paired associative stimulation (PAS) is a frequently used TMS paradigm that induces long-  
28 term potentiation in the human cortex. However, little is known about the within-subject  
29 consistency of PAS-induced effects. We determined PAS-induced effects and their  
30 consistency in healthy volunteers between two PAS sessions. Additionally, we assessed the  
31 benefit of applying linear mixed models (LMMs) to PAS data. Thirty-eight healthy volunteers  
32 underwent two identical PAS sessions with a >1 week interval. During each session, motor  
33 evoked potentials (MEPs) were assessed once before PAS induction and 3 times after at 30  
34 min intervals. We did not detect any significant potentiation of MEP size after PAS induction.  
35 However, MEP size during PAS induction showed significant potentiation over time in both  
36 sessions ( $LR(1)=13.36$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). Nevertheless, there was poor within-subject consistency of  
37 PAS-induced effects both during ( $ICC=0.15$ ) and after induction ( $ICC=0.04-0.09$ ).  
38 Additionally, statistical model selection procedures demonstrate that a LMM with an  
39 unstructured covariance matrix better estimated PAS-induced effects than one with a  
40 conventional compound symmetry matrix ( $LR(34)=214.73$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). While our results are  
41 supportive of a high intra-individual variability of PAS-induced effects, the generalizability of  
42 our results is unclear, as we were only partially successful in replicating results from previous  
43 PAS studies typically showing potentiation of MEPs during and after PAS induction. We do,  
44 however, demonstrate that linear mixed models can improve the reliability of PAS-induced  
45 effects estimation.

46

47 **1 Introduction**

48 Synaptic plasticity is a fundamental process in our central nervous system, as it is essential for  
49 learning and memory (Caroni et al., 2012; Caroni et al., 2014). In addition, plasticity deficits  
50 are important in the etiology of many neurocognitive disorders (Klyubin et al., 2014;  
51 Srivastava and Schwartz, 2014). Synaptic plasticity is conventionally measured with invasive  
52 intraparenchymal electrophysiological techniques, which cannot readily be performed in  
53 human subjects. The development of transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) paradigms,  
54 such as paired associative stimulation (PAS) (Stefan et al., 2000), has enabled measuring  
55 plasticity-like effects in human subjects non-invasively, facilitating translation of findings  
56 from animal models to humans.

57 PAS is typically applied by pairing median nerve stimulation (MNS) with magnetic  
58 stimulation of the contralateral hand area of the primary motor cortex (M1). Consistent with  
59 the fundamental properties of spike-timing dependent plasticity (STDP) [7], when MNS  
60 precedes magnetic stimulations by 25ms, PAS stimulation induces a long-term increase in  
61 excitability of the M1 hand area, observed as an increase of motor-evoked potentials (MEPs)  
62 in the contralateral hand. In contrast, if the MNS precedes the magnetic stimulation by 10ms,  
63 the result is a long-term depression effect (Wolters et al., 2003). The resemblance to STDP is  
64 further strengthened by evidence that PAS-induced effects are dependent on the function of  
65 the *N*-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptor, known to be essential for long-term synaptic  
66 plasticity (Stefan et al., 2002).

67 Because of the similarity of PAS results to STDP experiments in rodents, PAS has emerged  
68 as a potentially very useful proxy for studying long-term synaptic plasticity in human  
69 subjects. However, PAS produces highly variable results between subjects (López-Alonso et  
70 al., 2014; Lahr et al., 2016; Wischnewski and Schutter, 2016), which is often attributed to the  
71 challenge of achieving similar levels of standardization as for animal experiments:  
72 environmental factors, lifestyle, experimental conditions and even genetic determinants have  
73 been suggested to influence the magnitude of the PAS-induced plasticity (Müller-Dahlhaus et  
74 al., 2008; Ridding and Ziemann, 2010; Wischnewski and Schutter, 2016). However, such  
75 factors only explain between-subject variability, whereas to our knowledge only one study  
76 examined the within-subject consistency (Fratello et al., 2006). More knowledge on this  
77 consistency is obviously important for studies that aim to follow human brain plasticity  
78 longitudinally.

79 Besides inter- and intra-individual variability, PAS studies show variable effect sizes between  
80 laboratories as well (Lahr et al., 2016; Wischnewski and Schutter, 2016). In addition to  
81 optimizing experimental procedures, some types of variability might be possible to account  
82 for by appropriate statistical modeling. PAS measurements generate relatively complex data,  
83 combining both repeated measures as well as a hierarchical data structure (i.e. multiple MEP  
84 size assessments per time point). In the last decades, linear mixed models (LMMs) have  
85 emerged as a statistical method that is specifically suited to handle such a data structure,  
86 reducing the chance of both false-positive and false-negative results (Aarts et al., 2014; Aarts  
87 et al., 2015). Additionally, LMMs are excellent for estimating reproducibility measures in the  
88 form of intra-class correlations. To date, however, LMMs remain to be sparingly applied to  
89 TMS data (Cash et al., 2015; Pedapati et al., 2015) and PAS-TMS data in particular (Cash et  
90 al., 2017).

91 In this study, we therefore assess the within-subject consistency of PAS-induced effects in  
92 healthy volunteers using two identical PAS sessions with an interval of at least 1 week, using  
93 LMMs.

94 **2 Materials and Methods**

95 **2.1 Subjects**

96 Thirty-eight out of 61 subjects were included in this study (reasons for exclusion are  
97 summarized in Table S1), who were recruited by advertising in the local community and on a  
98 Dutch research subject-recruitment website. Subjects were included if aged 18-40, right-  
99 handed according to the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory (Oldfield, 1971), in good health,  
100 medication free (excluding contraceptives) and able and willing to give written informed  
101 consent. Subjects were excluded if they were women lactating or pregnant, had a history of  
102 psychiatric illness and/or treatment, had a history of neurological illness or did not meet the  
103 international safety guidelines considering TMS (Rossi et al., 2009; Rossi et al., 2011). All  
104 subjects underwent the Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence (WASI) (Wechsler, 1999)  
105 to determine their intelligence quotient (IQ) (Axelrod, 2002) for descriptive purposes. This  
106 study was approved by the Medical Ethical Review Board of the Erasmus MC Rotterdam,  
107 requiring study procedures to comply with the latest version of the Declaration of Helsinki.

108 **2.2 Electromyography**

109 Muscle activity was recorded from the left abductor pollicis brevis (ABP) muscle with  
110 electromyography (EMG), using Ag-AgCl electrodes in a belly-tendon montage. EMG  
111 signals were amplified using a universal amplifier (ANT Neuro, Enschede, The Netherlands)  
112 and digitalized at 5kHz for later offline analysis using Visor2 XT software (ANT Neuro,  
113 Enschede, The Netherlands). During measurements, a continuous EMG signal and trigger  
114 related EMG epochs were plotted at real time for online analysis, while applying a 50Hz  
115 notch filter and a 20-2000Hz bandpass filter.

116 **2.3 Transcranial magnetic stimulation**

117 Subjects were invited in the afternoon between 12 and 5.30 PM (Sale et al., 2007), were asked  
118 to not perform intense physical activities 24 hours prior to the measurement and to not smoke  
119 nicotine cigarettes or drink coffee on the day of the measurement. They were seated in a  
120 comfortable chair with their left arm resting on a pillow and were told to maximally relax  
121 their left hand during the measurement. Magnetic stimulations were applied using a figure-of-  
122 eight coil with an inner diameter of 27mm and outer diameter of 97mm, connected to a  
123 MagPro X100 with MagOption TMS device (MagVenture, Farum, Denmark). The coil was  
124 held tangentially to the left primary cortex and diverging 45° from midline. The electric field  
125 subsequently created in the cortex had a posterior to anterior direction.

126 To find the optimal position of the coil in order to maximally activate the ABP (the hotspot),  
127 TMS stimulations were randomly placed around a predefined reference point, defined as the  
128 location at 10% of the ear-to-ear span lateral to Cz over the right hemisphere. Data on coil  
129 location and position at every stimulation was collected using a neuronavigation system  
130 (ANT Neuro, Enschede, The Netherlands), allowing a precise definition of the angle and  
131 distance errors of every stimulation relative to the hotspot. All TMS procedures hereafter  
132 described are performed at the hotspot.

133 The resting motor threshold (RMT) was determined using a maximum-likelihood threshold  
134 hunting procedure (Awiszus, 2003). For this procedure, a MEP was defined as a signal with a  
135 peak-to-peak amplitude of  $\geq 50\mu\text{V}$ . Subsequently, the stimulation intensity 1mV (SI1mV) was  
136 determined, which was the stimulation intensity of all subsequent stimulations. The SI1mV  
137 was defined as the percentage of maximal stimulation output (%MSO) of the TMS device that  
138 resulted in a mean MEP of 0.8 - 1.2 mV. For this purpose, trains of 10 magnetic stimulations  
139 at 0.1Hz at a chosen %MSO were performed until the criterion was met.

140 **2.4 Paired associative stimulation**

141 Subjects underwent two identical paired associative stimulation (PAS) sessions at >1 week  
142 apart. Baseline cortical excitability was assessed by applying a train of 20 magnetic  
143 stimulations at the SI1mV at 0.1Hz. Subsequently, PAS induction was performed by applying  
144 200 paired stimulations of electric MNS preceding TMS by 25ms at 0.25Hz. After this  
145 plasticity induction phase, the cortical excitability measurement at baseline was repeated at  
146 three time points: immediately (Post 1), 30 minutes (Post 2), and 60 minutes (Post 3) (Figure  
147 1A). MNS during the PAS-induction was applied at three times the sensory threshold using a  
148 bipolar bar electrode connected to a constant current stimulator (Digitimer Ltd., Letchworth  
149 Garden City, UK). If MNS surpassed the pain threshold, it was lowered to a painless but  
150 clearly noticeable level. The subject's attention level was standardized by applying four  
151 randomly timed electric stimuli during PAS induction to the middle phalanx of the left thumb,  
152 and instructing participants upfront of PAS induction to focus their attention on their left  
153 thumb and report this number after PAS induction (Stefan et al., 2004). These stimulations  
154 were administered at two times the sensory threshold using a double ring electrode connected  
155 to a constant current stimulator (Micromed S.p.A, Mogliano Veneto, Italy).

156 **2.5 Data analysis**

157 The EMG signal for every magnetic stimulation applied was stored for offline analysis as  
158 epochs of -300ms to +300ms surrounding the TMS trigger. Using software programmed in  
159 LabVIEW (National Instruments, Austin, TX, US) pre-MEP noise, the maximal peak-to-peak  
160 amplitude and MEP onset were determined using a six-step data processing procedure:

- 161 1. Signals were linearly detrended.
- 162 2. The average amplitude value of the -300ms to -20ms before the TMS trigger was  
163 subtracted to create a zero-baseline.
- 164 3. To prevent ringing after filtering, the stimulation artefact was removed between -2ms  
165 to +4ms surrounding the TMS trigger, which was linearly interpolated. For PAS  
166 induction signals, the stimulation artefact of the MNS was removed similarly.
- 167 4. Filtering using both a 20-2000Hz bandpass filter and a 50Hz-notch filter.
- 168 5. Pre-stimulus noise quantification on a -25ms to +15ms time window surrounding the  
169 TMS trigger. After subtracting a 2<sup>nd</sup>-order polynomial fit, noise was defined as a  
170 peak-to-peak amplitude of  $> 50\mu\text{V}$  or an SD of  $> 15$ . Signals meeting these criteria  
171 were discarded for further statistical analysis.
- 172 6. MEP quantification, defined by the maximal peak-to-peak within a 20-48ms time  
173 window following the TMS trigger.

174 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

175 Statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.3.3 (R Development Core Team, 2018),  
176 supplemented with the nlme package (Pinheiro J, 2017). LMMs were used to estimate PAS-

177 induced changes of MEP size, their correlations with baseline MEP size, and intraclass  
178 correlations (ICCs). For these LMMs, the dependent variable was MEP size, which was log2-  
179 transformed to better fit the assumption of normally distributed residuals. In addition, these  
180 LMMs were adjusted for log2-transformed angle and distance error.

181 We built Model 1 to estimate PAS-induced effects on MEP size *after induction* (Post 1, Post 2  
182 and Post 3) within each session. This LMM included time point (categorical), session, and  
183 their interaction. The random effects included subject specific random effects for each time  
184 point in each session separately. An unstructured covariance matrix for the random effects  
185 was used (Model 1a) and was tested against the more restrictive compound symmetry  
186 structure (Model 1b).

187 Model 2 was built to estimate PAS-induced effects *during PAS induction*. This LMM  
188 included stimulus number (continuous), session and their interaction. Stimulus number was  
189 regarded as continuous time variable, as stimulations were equally spaced by 4 seconds in all  
190 PAS experiments. The model included subject specific random effects for stimulus number  
191 and session interaction and session. The eventual model was selected in three steps. First, we  
192 started out with a model using both natural cubic splines for stimulus number with three  
193 degrees of freedom and an unstructured covariance matrix (Model 2a). Second, to investigate  
194 the correlation structure, we tested Model 2a against a model with a compound symmetry  
195 structure (Model 2b). Last, to test whether the relation between MEP size and stimulus  
196 number was non-linear, Model 2a was tested against a model with a linear fit (Model 2c).

197 As a measure of within-subject consistency we calculated ICCs from LMMs that included  
198 session as an additional nesting level in the random effects. For the ICC of PAS-induced  
199 effects after induction, fixed effects and subject specific random effects of time point  
200 (categorical) were used (Model 3). For estimating the ICC of PAS-induced effects during  
201 PAS-induction over time, fixed effects as well as subject specific slopes for stimulus number  
202 (continuous time variable) were included (Model 4). Since the models used to calculate ICCs  
203 contained random effects for the respective time variables, the variation partition method was  
204 used (Goldstein et al., 2002). 95% confidence intervals (95%CIs) for each ICC were  
205 estimated using 500 bootstrap samples.

206 Likelihood-ratio tests were used to compare model fits and main effects of fixed effects.  
207 Descriptive statistics were performed using paired t-tests for normally distributed data,  
208 Wilcoxon Signed Rank tests for non-normal continuous data, a Chi-square test for categorical  
209 data or LMMs for data at the individual MEP level.

210

### 211 3 Results

#### 212 3.1 Session characteristics

213 Thirty-eight individuals (22 women; median age 23, range 19-38; mean IQ 107 $\pm$ 10SD)  
214 underwent two PAS sessions, which were spaced at least 1 week apart (median days between  
215 sessions was 14, IQR: 4). As displayed in Table 1, median starting time was significantly  
216 earlier in session 1 than in session 2, whereas both sessions did not differ in terms of baseline  
217 RMT, SI1mV, the level of attention during PAS induction or the angle and distance error  
218 relative to the hotspot.

219 To compare baseline MEP-size between session, we used the estimated means from Model  
220 1a, 0.54mV (95%CI [0.43, 0.68]) for session 1 and 0.61mV (95%CI [0.53, 0.71]) for session  
221 2, which were not significantly different ( $t(51650)=0.91$ ,  $p=0.36$ ). These model estimates are  
222 lower than expected, but it is important to note that the grand means are within the expected  
223 range: 0.91mV ( $\pm 0.44$  SD) for session 1 and 0.96mV ( $\pm 0.36$  SD) for session 2.

224

### 225 **3.2 PAS-induced effects post induction**

226 We determined the PAS-induced effect on MEP size at each post-induction measurement in  
227 each session. After filtering out MEPs with a noisy baseline, 5212 out of 6080 MEPs recorded  
228 (divided over 75 sessions and 38 subjects) could be used for this analysis. We estimated PAS-  
229 induced effects with a model with an unstructured covariance matrix that provided a superior  
230 fit to a model with a compound symmetry matrix ( $LR(34)=214.73$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). MEP size  
231 changed significantly over time ( $LR(6)=16.23$ ;  $p=0.013$ ), which was mainly driven by a  
232 negative effect on MEP size in Post 3 in session 2 (Table 2), instead of a positive effect on  
233 MEP size as is typically seen in PAS experiments. Additionally, individual trajectories of  
234 MEP size after induction were highly variable (Figure 1B). PAS-induced effects did not differ  
235 between sessions, as the interaction between time point and session was not significant  
236 ( $LR(3)=1.93$ ;  $p=0.586$ ), which is also reflected by the similar time courses in Figure 1C.

237 The absence of significant PAS-induced potentiation is not consistent with most previous  
238 PAS reports (Wischniewski and Schutter, 2016). We, therefore, performed a subset analysis of  
239 sessions with a median baseline MEP size of  $\geq 0.5$  mV, as the observed low estimated baseline  
240 means could mean that the stimulation intensity during PAS induction was too low to induce  
241 robust potentiation. The  $\geq 0.5$ mV subset contained 49 PAS sessions divided over 31 subjects  
242 (17 subjects retaining both sessions). Additionally, we explored a subset with  $<2$  errors in the  
243 attention task, which contained 34 sessions divided over 28 subjects (5 subjects retaining both  
244 sessions), as subjects that had more errors could have poorer attention control leading to  
245 lower PAS-induced effects (Stefan et al., 2004). Both subsets showed similar PAS-induced  
246 effects compared to the full sample (Supplementary Figure S1 and Supplementary Table S2).

### 247 **3.3 Potentiation during PAS induction**

248 Next to the PAS-induced effects after induction, we determined the PAS-induced effect  
249 during induction. For this analysis, 9360 out of 15200 recorded MEPs were available due to  
250 filtering out MEPs with a noisy baseline, divided over 59 sessions within 34 subjects.  
251 Viewing the individual trajectories of MEP size development again indicates that there was  
252 high inter-individual variability (Figure 2C), which is reflected by the superior fit of the  
253 model with an unstructured covariance matrix to one with a compound symmetry covariance  
254 matrix ( $LR(8)=525.31$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The development of MEP size over time appeared to be  
255 linear (Figure 2D), supported by the fact that a model with a cubic fit was not superior to one  
256 with a linear fit ( $LR(4)=2.69$ ,  $p=0.612$ ).

257 Using the selected model with the unstructured covariance matrix and linear fit, we found that  
258 the estimated mean of MEP size at the start of PAS induction in session 1 (0.43 mV, 95%CI  
259 [0.27, 0.59]) did not differ from that in session 2 (0.44 mV, 95%CI [0.29, 0.66])  
260 ( $LR(2)=0.967$ ,  $p=0.617$ ). There was a main effect of time ( $LR(1)=13.36$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), as a result  
261 of a significant positive increase of MEP size over time in both session 1 (+132%, 95%CI

262 [+51%, +258%]) and session 2 (+79%, 95%CI [+19%, +169%]). However, there was no  
263 evidence of this time effect being different between sessions ( $LR(1)=0.87$ ,  $p=0.35$ ), reflected  
264 by the similar slope of the MEP size development in Figure 2D. There was a moderate  
265 negative correlation between MEP size at the start of PAS induction and the change in MEP  
266 size over time for session 1 ( $r=-0.51$ ) and a weak negative correlation for session 2 ( $r=-0.41$ ).

267 **3.4 Consistency of PAS-induced effects**

268 The within subject consistency of PAS-induced effects between the two sessions was poor:  
269  $ICC_{POST1}=0.09$  (95%CI [0.01, 0.24]),  $ICC_{POST2}=0.04$  (95%CI [<0.01, 0.17]) and  
270  $ICC_{POST3}=0.04$  (95%CI [<0.01, 0.14]) (Fig 3). Furthermore, the PAS-induced effects during  
271 induction showed a similarly poor within-subject consistency ( $ICC=0.15$ ; 95%CI [0.05, 0.35])  
272 (Fig 3), despite their significant potentiation at group level. The ICC of baseline MEP size  
273 before induction was poor ( $ICC=0.02$ ; 95%CI [<0.01, 0.07]), as well as at the start of PAS  
274 induction ( $ICC=0.24$ ; 95%CI [0.04, 0.42]). In contrast, the SI1mV did have a good within-  
275 subject consistency ( $ICC=0.88$ ; 95%CI [0.83, 0.96]), as did the RMT at different time points  
276 ( $ICC_{BASELINE}=0.85$ , 95%CI [0.77, 0.92];  $ICC_{POST1}=0.83$ , 95%CI [0.79, 0.90];  $ICC_{POST2}=0.85$ ,  
277 95%CI = [0.79, 0.92];  $ICC_{POST3}=0.85$ , 95%CI [0.78, 0.92]).

278

279 **4 Discussion**

280 We performed two identical PAS sessions in one group of healthy volunteers, resulting in  
281 pronounced potentiation over time during PAS induction, which was not consistent within  
282 subjects. PAS-effects after induction did not show the expected potentiation, and these effects  
283 were not consistent within subjects either. Additionally, we demonstrated that a linear mixed  
284 model with an unstructured covariance matrix provides the best model fit for our PAS data.

285 **4.1 PAS-induced effects during and after induction**

286 We found a significant increase of MEP size during PAS induction that shows striking  
287 resemblance to the increase in excitatory post synaptic potentials seen in STDP experiments  
288 in rodents (Froemke et al., 2010) and is consistent with previous human PAS studies (Dutra et  
289 al., 2016; Cash et al., 2017). From the animal studies, we know that the potentiation during  
290 plasticity induction correlates with the potentiation after induction. However, whether this  
291 increase in MEP size is a true proxy for NMDA-dependent LTP remains to be confirmed by  
292 sham-stimulation controlled studies and/or placebo-controlled NMDA-receptor antagonist  
293 intervention studies. It is noteworthy, however, that in our study MEP size at the start of PAS  
294 induction showed a negative correlation with PAS-induced effects during PAS induction.  
295 Namely, MNS during paired stimulations has a known acute inhibitory effect on MEP size,  
296 also known as short-latency afferent inhibition (Tokimura et al., 2000; Turco et al., 2018),  
297 lower MEP size at the start of induction could indicate more successful paired stimulations  
298 and, therefore, be related to a more prominent PAS-induced potentiation.

299 However, the significant potentiation during induction did not warrant significant potentiation  
300 after induction, which is not in line with most PAS studies (for review see (Wischnewski and  
301 Schutter, 2016)). This urged us to explore what factors could be responsible. First, our  
302 baseline MEP size appeared lower than the baseline in most PAS studies. It is, however,  
303 important to note that our grand means were within the expected range of MEP size and it is

304 therefore unclear how our study compares to most PAS studies. Namely, many PAS studies  
305 solely report grand means without fully reporting whether both summarized and individual  
306 data are normally distributed. Nevertheless, due to this uncertainty, we have to consider that  
307 the low baselines observed here indicate that our stimulation intensity was possibly lower  
308 compared to most PAS studies, as several studies show that there is a positive correlation  
309 between this intensity and the PAS-induced effect (Meunier et al., 2012; Cash et al., 2017).  
310 Second, subjects that made more errors during the attention control task, could have had a  
311 negative effect on PAS-induced effects (Stefan et al., 2004). However, subsets of subjects  
312 with either a high baseline or few errors in the attention task did not show more PAS-induced  
313 potentiation, indicating that these factors are unlikely the cause of the absence of the  
314 potentiation of MEP size in our study.

315 Additionally, it is debatable whether our MNS was optimally performed, as some studies find  
316 a much stronger reduction of MEP size (Cash et al., 2015), while others suggest a reduction of  
317 similar degree (Elahi et al., 2012; Cash et al., 2017). This could be related to our use of a  
318 static 25ms MNS-TMS inter-stimulus interval opposed to adjusting this interval to the  
319 individual N20 peak timing (Ziemann et al., 2004). Another factor that could have contributed  
320 to the absence of PAS-induced potentiation is the known compromising effect of sleepiness  
321 on MEP size (Manganotti et al., 2004). As PAS is a lengthy experiment and subjects were not  
322 allowed to perform any type of physical activity or specific types of mental activity between  
323 post-induction time points, it is plausible that subjects became increasingly sleepy, masking  
324 potentiation effects. Unfortunately, although subjects were monitored to not fall asleep, we  
325 cannot support this speculation with actual measures of sleepiness, as there were not assessed.

## 326 **4.2 Consistency of PAS-induced effects**

327 The low ICCs found in this study seem to suggest that PAS-induced effects have a high intra-  
328 individual variability. One could, however, argue that the lack of significant post-induction  
329 potentiation compromises the validity of the consistency levels in this study. We did,  
330 however, show significant potentiation during induction, which showed similar low  
331 consistency consistent with (Fratello et al., 2006). They found equally poor intra-individual  
332 consistency of PAS-induced effects over two identical PAS sessions in a group of healthy  
333 volunteers (n=18), despite significant potentiation of post-induction MEPs at group level in  
334 each session. We, therefore, consider it not a given that the low ICCs are a consequence of the  
335 absence of a significant post-induction potentiation of MEP size.

336 Additionally, one could question whether our reported consistency would have been higher if  
337 we had eliminated MEPs classified as statistical outliers. As we took effort to eliminate MEPs  
338 based on confounding experimental conditions in the first place (pre-stimulus noise) and  
339 corrected for coil position errors, we regarded statistical outliers that remained in the dataset  
340 to be likely valid MEP measurements. Consequently, we view that retaining statistical outliers  
341 in our data set is important to reliably report ICCs.

## 342 **4.3 Linear mixed models for PAS data**

343 Our results provide insight in the potential advantage of LMMs for analyzing PAS data over  
344 conventional analysis methods. Most importantly, we show that using an unstructured  
345 covariance matrix provides a better model fit to our data than a compound symmetry matrix,  
346 for both estimating the PAS-induction effects during and after induction. This does not justify  
347 generalization of these findings for PAS data in general, but it does demonstrate that the

348 estimation of PAS-effects benefits from the flexibility of the LMM in designing the  
349 covariance matrix. It is reasonable to suspect that PAS data with a complex multi-level and  
350 longitudinal structure inherits particular correlations between time points. Therefore, instead  
351 of ignoring the possibility of these correlations by using an analysis method that is restricted  
352 to the use of only the compound symmetry matrix (e.g. the RM-ANOVA), consistent  
353 implementation of LMMs for analyzing PAS data could improve reliability of results reported  
354 in PAS studies.

355 Another advantage of LMMs is that it does not require to summarize data per individual and  
356 time point (e.g. by averaging), but instead accounts for this data nesting by specifying random  
357 intercepts per nest. Data aggregation is problematic as it implies loss of information and, thus,  
358 statistical power. Additionally, if an incorrect data aggregation method is used, such as  
359 averaging while some data nests are left-skewed, PAS-induced effects could be  
360 overestimated.

#### 361 **4.4 Conclusion**

362 While our results are supportive of a high intra-individual variability of PAS-induced effects,  
363 the generalizability of our results is unclear, as we were only partially successful in  
364 replicating results from previous PAS studies: we replicated the potentiation during the course  
365 of PAS induction, though this did not ensure significant potentiation after induction.  
366 Therefore, we cannot conclude to what extent PAS is a suitable outcome of human brain  
367 plasticity in longitudinal studies. It is worth emphasizing that our results demonstrate the  
368 benefit of linear mixed models for PAS data, as these models can reliably estimate PAS-  
369 induced effects despite the complex data structure and the various correlations between time  
370 points possible.

371

#### 372 **Acknowledgements**

373 We thank Dr. D. Rizopoulos for his helpful statistical advice, Dr. H.J. Boele for helping with  
374 developing the signal analysis software, Dr. H.G. van Steenis for technical support, and T.  
375 van Essen and D. Mani for their help preparing the data for signal analysis. This manuscript  
376 has been released as a Pre-Print at BioRxiv (Ottenhoff et al., 2018).

#### 377 **Author Contributions**

378 MO, LF, TV, SK, MW, YE and JT designed the study. MO, LF, IO and JC collected the data.  
379 MO and NE designed and performed the statistical analyses. MO drafted the manuscript. All  
380 authors interpreted the results, critically revised the manuscript for important intellectual  
381 content, and approved the final version of the manuscript.

#### 382 **Data Availability Statement**

383 The full dataset and linear mixed model syntax are available as Supplementary Data S1 (data  
384 set) and Supplementary Data S2 (syntax).

#### 385 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

386 None of the authors report a conflict of interest.

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503

504 **Figure Legends**

505

506 **Figure 1. PAS-induced effects per session.**

507 Subjects underwent two identical PAS sessions spaced >1 week apart. (A) Schematic of one  
508 PAS session, in which the PAS induction is preceded by a baseline measurement consisting of  
509 20 TMS stimulations, followed by a PAS induction phase consisting of 200 MNS-TMS  
510 paired stimulations, and 3 repeats of the baseline measurement at 30 min intervals. (B) The  
511 change in MEP size per session, where red line plots are individual medians of MEP size per  
512 time point in session 1 and blue line plots are those of session 2. The black line plots are  
513 means of individual median MEP size. (C) The change in MEP size over time for both  
514 sessions plotted together, where the connected dots represent means of individual medians  
515 and bars represent their standard error. Medians and means of individual medians were  
516 chosen as the best representative summary measure in B and C, as MEP size was not  
517 normally distributed in every data nest. (D) Linear regression lines through all MEPs during  
518 PAS induction per session (black lines) plotted over the linear regression lines through MEPs  
519 per individual (colored lines: red lines belong to session 1 and blue lines to session 2). (E)  
520 The change of MEP size over time during the PAS induction, with every dot representing the  
521 mean MEP size over all participants for that stimulation number. Lines are fitted linear  
522 regression lines per session. Note that in D and E the y-axis is log2-spaced.

523

524 **Figure 2. Intra-individual correlation of PAS-induced effects.**

525 Scatterplots of individual PAS-induced effects (grey dots) per measurement time point (Post  
526 1-3 and Induction) of session 1 against those of session 2. These individual PAS-induced  
527 effects are the individual random slopes calculated by the models that were used to calculate  
528 the ICCs of PAS-induced effects reported in the Results section. Dashed lines represent the  
529 best linear fit. Note that the axes are log2-spaced.

530 **Tables**

**Table 1. Session characteristics and comparisons.**

Characteristic	Session 1	Session 2	Statistic	P-value
RMT at baseline, mean ( $\pm$ SD), %MSO	48.5 ( $\pm$ 10.3)	48.3 ( $\pm$ 9.1)	t(37) = 0.17	0.87
SI1mV, %MSO	61.4 ( $\pm$ 14.4)	60.1 ( $\pm$ 14.7)	t(37) = 1.10	0.28
Start time, median (IQR), hh:mm	12:44 (12:28-13:08)	15:23 (15:00-15:41)	Z = 719	<0.0001
MNS stimulation				
Intensity, median (IQR), mA	1.27 (0.99-1.73)	1.41 (1.15-1.70)	t(37) = 1.23 <sup>a</sup>	0.23
Intensity, median (range), % of ST	300 (209-300)	300 (219-300)	U = 221	0.82
Intensity lowered, n (%)	9 (24)	8 (21)	X <sup>2</sup> (1) = 0.08	0.78
Attention - number of errors, median (IQR)	3 (0-9)	1 (0-4)	U = 795	0.09
Angle error, estimated mean [95%CI] <sup>c</sup> , degrees			LR(5) = 5.26 <sup>b</sup>	0.39
Baseline	2.69 [1.75, 4.16]	1.67 [1.11, 2.51]		
Induction	2.95 [1.99, 4.35]	2.11 [1.47, 3.01]		
Post1	2.07 [1.39, 3.08]	1.86 [1.12, 3.08]		
Post2	2.23 [1.41, 3.54]	1.29 [0.89, 1.87]		
Post3	1.83 [1.15, 2.91]	1.09 [0.81, 1.46]		
Distance error, estimated mean [95%CI] <sup>c</sup> , mm			LR(5) = 3.85 <sup>b</sup>	0.57
Baseline	1.01 [0.84, 1.23]	0.87 [0.68, 1.12]		
Induction	1.11 [0.95, 1.29]	0.91 [0.79, 1.04]		
Post1	1.10 [0.97, 1.26]	0.91 [0.79, 1.06]		
Post2	1.20 [0.96, 1.50]	1.30 [1.02, 1.65]		
Post3	1.31 [1.02, 1.68]	1.34 [1.03, 1.74]		

<sup>a</sup> Paired t-test performed on square root transformed variable.

<sup>b</sup> Main effect of session estimated by comparing LMMs using a likelihood-ratio test

<sup>c</sup> Estimated using a LMM with the log2 transformed error as dependent variable and time point, session and their interaction as fixed effects.

**Table 2. Fixed effects of PAS induction on MEP size per post-induction time point and session estimated by linear mixed effect modelling.**

Variable	Session 1				Session 2			
	B, %	95%CI, %	t (5165)	P-value	B, %	95%CI, %	t (5165)	P-value
All sessions								
Post 1	+16.83	[-9.05, 50.07]	1.22	0.22	-3.99	[-26.58, 25.55]	-0.30	0.77
Post 2	-10.00	[-30.92, 17.24]	-0.78	0.43	-23.92	[-42.44, 0.55]	-1.92	0.05
Post 3	-14.84	[-35.65, 12.69]	-1.12	0.26	-31.65	[-47.92, -10.30]	-2.74	0.006



