

TOPICAL REVIEW

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## TOPICAL REVIEW

# Non-invasive transcranial electrical brain stimulation guided by functional near-infrared spectroscopy for targeted neuromodulation: a review

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E-mail: [kshong@pusan.ac.kr](mailto:kshong@pusan.ac.kr)**Keywords:** functional-near infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS), neuromodulation, electrical stimulation, hemodynamic response, transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS), transcranial alternating current stimulation (tACS)

## Abstract

One of the primary goals in cognitive neuroscience is to understand the neural mechanisms on which cognition is based. Researchers are trying to find how cognitive mechanisms are related to oscillations generated due to brain activity. The research focused on this topic has been considerably aided by developing non-invasive brain stimulation techniques. The dynamics of brain networks and the resultant behavior can be affected by non-invasive brain stimulation techniques, which make their use a focus of interest in many experiments and clinical fields. One essential non-invasive brain stimulation technique is transcranial electrical stimulation (tES), subdivided into transcranial direct and alternating current stimulation. tES has recently become more well-known because of the effective results achieved in treating chronic conditions. In addition, there has been exceptional progress in the interpretation and feasibility of tES techniques. Summarizing the beneficial effects of tES, this article provides an updated depiction of what has been accomplished to date, brief history, and the open questions that need to be addressed in the future. An essential issue in the field of tES is stimulation duration. This review briefly covers the stimulation durations that have been utilized in the field while monitoring the brain using functional-near infrared spectroscopy-based brain imaging.

## 1. Introduction

Non-invasive brain stimulation is one of the most explored topics of the current era and has recently become more well-known; the technique has been applied in clinical and experimental settings. The concept of brain stimulation has existed for quite a long time; however, its use in the field of neuroscience-based research is no older than a decade (Zaghi *et al* 2010, Patel *et al* 2020). Recently, non-invasive brain stimulation has been used in many studies, including both patients and healthy subjects. In this field, there are several different approaches. Among these techniques, the most commonly used techniques are transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) and transcranial electrical stimulation (tES) (Yang *et al* 2021). tES is further categorized into

transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) and transcranial alternating current stimulation (tACS).

In the case of TMS, the human brain is exposed to a strong magnetic field for a concise time interval (usually less than a millisecond). A current is generated in cortical neurons due to the sudden exposure to this strong magnetic field (Hallett 2000). In the case of tES, a small electrical current (1 mA to 2 mA) is applied to the subject's scalp (Nitsche and Paulus 2000, Yaqub *et al* 2018, 2021). The membrane potential or specific frequencies changes as soon as a portion of the applied current reaches the brain (Antal and Herrmann 2016, Vogeti *et al* 2022). tES has recently gained popularity upon its safety in most individuals, because most people can tolerate the stimulation (Woods *et al* 2016, Clark *et al* 2020, McKendrick *et al* 2020). Its portability and

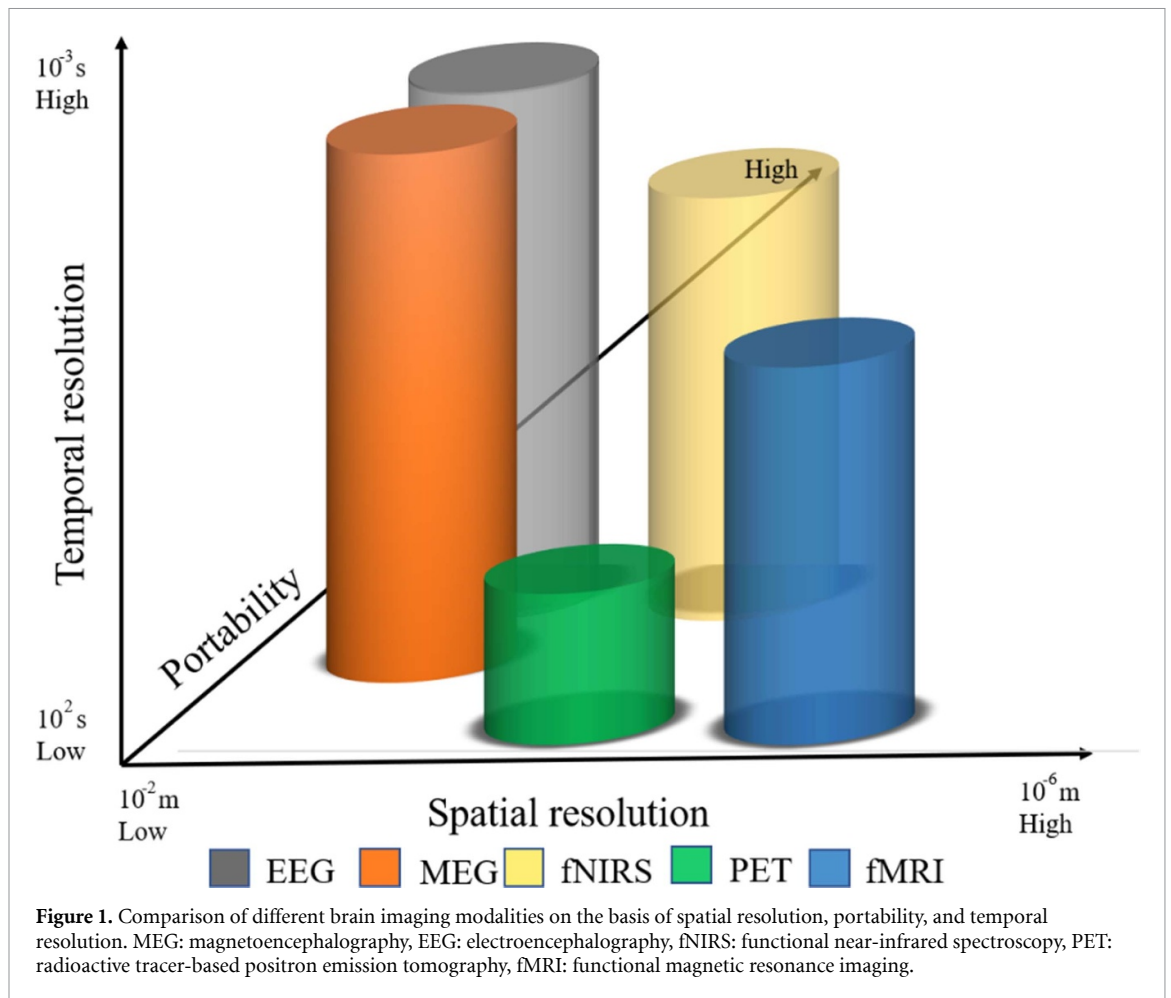
relative inexpensiveness give tES another advantage over other brain stimulation techniques. The utilization of tES ranges from studying the process of change in the organization of neurons in the normal brain (Fröhlich *et al* 2015, Kuo and Nitsche 2015, Prehn and Flöel 2015, Berger *et al* 2018) to studying the neuroplasticity induced by stimulation (Karabanov *et al* 2015, Wessel *et al* 2015, Wang *et al* 2021). Despite advances made in tES-based non-invasive brain stimulation, several challenges remain unaddressed. The most critical challenge is understanding how to target tES in a specific brain area so that it can efficiently interact with neurons and enhance neuronal processes. This enhancement can be monitored later by measuring brain functions during memory, motor control, perception, and/or attention tasks. Another main limitation is the lack of studies that suggest the temporal aspect and brain area specificity, that is, how long the stimulation period should be and which brain area is most suitable for stimulation.

A set of neuroimaging modalities exists that help detect and monitor brain impairments. These neuroimaging technologies can be divided into invasive, partially invasive, and non-invasive techniques. Non-invasive brain imaging techniques are preferred over the other two types because they do not include any of the risks of surgery, making them safer to use. Commonly used methods to acquire brain signals noninvasively include electroencephalography (EEG), functional near-infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS), functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), magnetoencephalography, radioactive tracer-based positron emission tomography (PET), and gamma emission-based single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) (Nicolas-Alonso and Gomez-Gil 2012, Ikeda *et al* 2020, Legrand *et al* 2020, Tian *et al* 2020, Khan *et al* 2022). These technologies have led to tremendous advancements in the field of non-invasive neuroimaging. These modalities can be compared based on their price, portability, and resolution (temporal and spatial). To this end, fMRI, PET, and SPECT have the best spatial resolution; however, these techniques are restricted to the lab environment because of the size of the equipment and lack of mobility. Moreover, these modalities are very prone to motion artifacts, and in the case of PET and SPECT, there is a risk associated with the use of radioactive material. In addition, these modalities have very low temporal resolutions. Although EEG outperforms all the imaging approaches mentioned above, with better temporal resolution but poor spatial resolution. One of the major drawbacks of most techniques discussed above is that none of them can be used alongside electrical stimulation because these technologies are prone to electric and magnetic field disruption. Based on the recent review, functional MR imaging is being used to benefit tDCS studies in three different ways: study design, outcome

evaluation at the neural network level, and serving as potential bio-markers for responsiveness to tDCS (Esmailpour *et al* 2020).

On the other hand, during the last decade, fNIRS has proven to be a reliable method for monitoring the brain during neurostimulation. Human blood is composed of several different elements, among which oxygenated hemoglobin (HbO) and deoxygenated hemoglobin (HbR) are most sensitive to light, in the wavelength between 650 nm and 1000 nm. When some neuronal activity occurs in the brain, the local concentrations of HbO and HbR change due to neurovascular coupling. Therefore, light in the spectrum above is utilized to measure temporal changes in the local concentrations of HbO and HbR (Zafar and Hong 2020). Light is shone through several layers of the scalp and skull until it finally reaches the brain. Some of the incident light is absorbed by the brain, while some are scattered. This scattered light is then detected with the help of appropriately placed detectors on the scalp. Traditional fNIRS systems utilize two different wavelengths to detect blood chromophores; however, more than two wavelengths have also been proposed. Several studies have utilized fNIRS for brain imaging in which almost all brain areas have been investigated. A recent study has also shown that functional connectivity of the brain due to acupuncture can be monitored using fNIRS (Ghafoor *et al* 2019). Along with monitoring for healthcare, fNIRS has proven to be a viable tool in developing brain-computer interfaces to help physically disabled people (Hong and Yaqub 2019, Hong *et al* 2020, Khan *et al* 2020, Khan and Hong 2021, Zafar and Hong 2018). The field of brain computer interface has recently gained popularity with the advent of latest sophisticated classification techniques like neural networks (Bennett *et al* 2021, Oh and Jo 2021, Petrosyan *et al* 2021, Sattar *et al* 2021, Xie *et al* 2021). A pictorial depiction of the comparison of the non-invasive imaging modalities is shown in figure 1.

We adopted a search strategy to unveil almost all research conducted in the fNIRS-tES protocol. The electronic search was performed in the Web of Science using logical combinations of the following keywords: ('tDCS' OR 'transcranial direct current stimulation' AND 'fNIRS' OR 'functional NIRS' OR 'functional near-infrared spectroscopy' AND 'tACS' OR 'transcranial alternating current stimulation'). The research database was searched from inception to 1 February 2022, with restrictions on studies in English. Original studies of functional NIRS in combination with tDCS and tACS were included in this review. Since the pioneer and ongoing work on tDCS and tACS in combination with fMRI, EEG, or behaviorally has been exclusively researched, it was difficult to avoid some crucial studies within the explanation of tES or where necessary. This study focuses on the brief review of tES leading to the techniques



and biophysics, followed by a primary focus of the overview of studies conducted with the fNIRS-tES protocol. Finally, the shortfalls in the field and future directions are discussed.

## 2. Non-invasive tES

The use of electrical brain stimulation in both science and medicine stretches back to the late 19th century. The early applications of high-intensity tES (Lang *et al* 1969, Toleikis *et al* 1974) provided the basis for subsequent studies, suggesting that the application of weak currents to the scalp may also induce behavioral effects, but without side effects or conscious awareness of stimulation (Nitsche and Paulus 2001). The low cost, portability, and potential home applications of tES have led to a proliferation of human trials relative to other non-invasive neuromodulatory techniques, such as TMS and ultrasound stimulation (Liu *et al* 2012, Kasschau *et al* 2016). tDCS and tACS are the two most widely described transcranial electrical current stimulation methods in the literature (Polania *et al* 2018). Transcranial random noise stimulation (tRNS) is also an electrical stimulation type but rarely applied, compared to tDCS and tACS, specifically with fNIRS. Different neurophysiological

responses may emerge due to the change in electrical characteristics. The effects of tDCS/tACS on the brain guided by fNIRS in combined tES-fNIRS protocols are the subject of this review.

### 2.1. tDCS

tDCS is a type of non-invasive brain stimulation that has been employed in a variety of populations (Cappon *et al* 2016b, Berryhill and Martin 2018, Yaqub *et al* 2018, Figeys *et al* 2021). It delivers direct electrical currents between two electrodes (anode and cathode), modulating the neuron's excitability by changing the potential of the resting neuronal membrane. The change in excitability direction after tDCS depends mainly on electrode mounting. In contrast, many studies have recently discovered that stimulation parameters (such as duration, intensity, frequency, the position of the electrode, and control settings) in addition to tDCS polarity can modulate the outcome of the tDCS effect (Horvath *et al* 2015, Jamil *et al* 2017). tDCS has been proven to have beneficial effects in several neurological disorders, such as stroke (Fregni *et al* 2005, Hummel *et al* 2005, Cattagni *et al* 2019, Doost *et al* 2019, Feil *et al* 2019, Kindred *et al* 2019, Mazzoleni *et al* 2019), refractory epilepsy (Meiron *et al* 2019, Yang

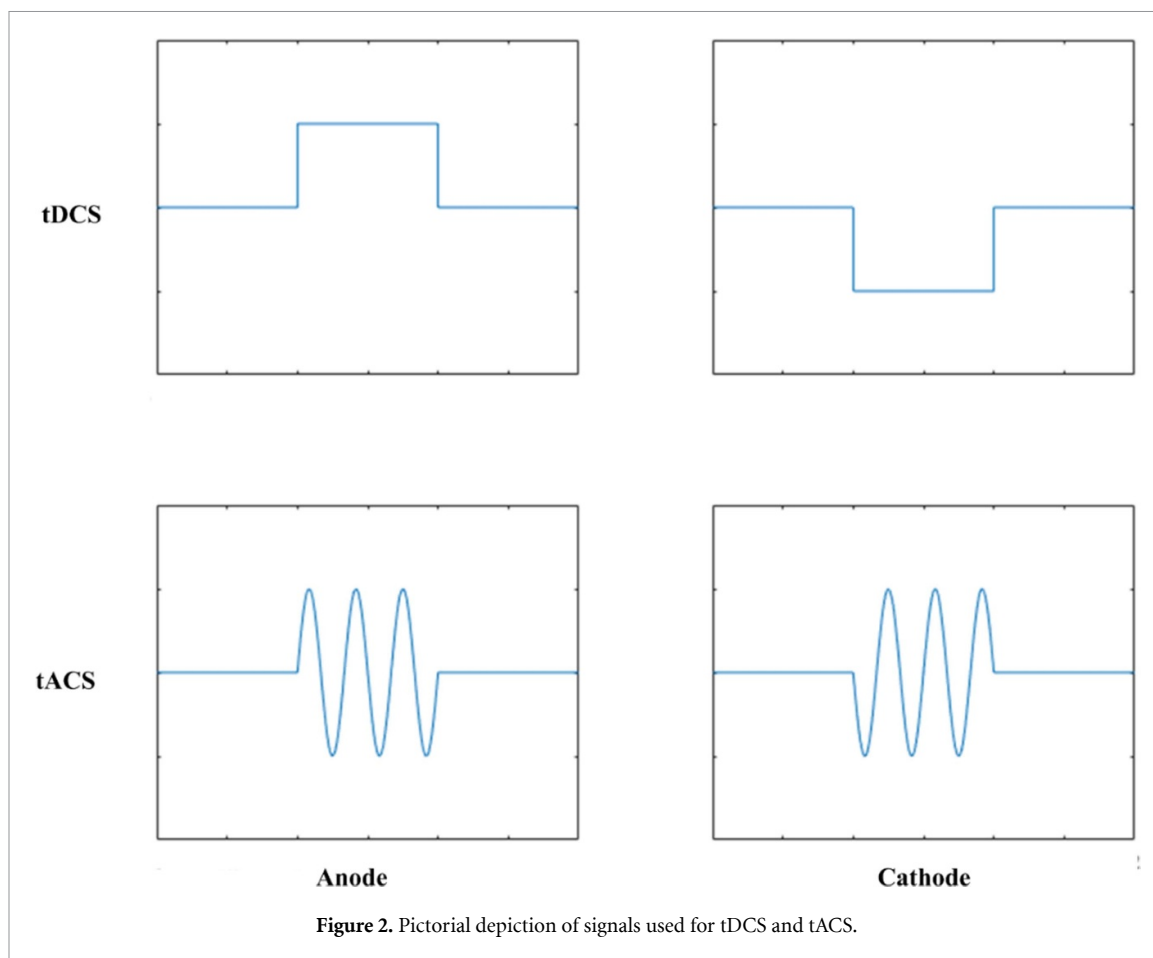


Figure 2. Pictorial depiction of signals used for tDCS and tACS.

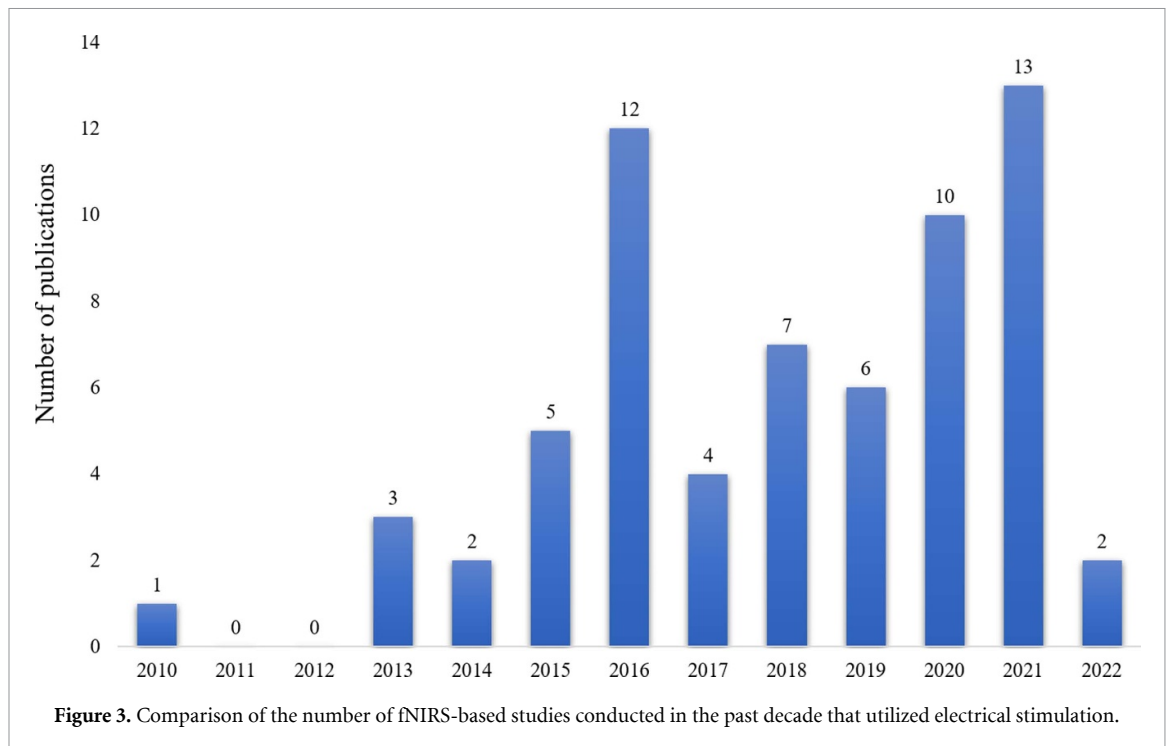
*et al* 2019), and chronic depression (Fricová *et al* 2019, Iannone *et al* 2019). Other disorders treated using tDCS include drug cravings (Eskandari *et al* 2019, Martinotti *et al* 2019, Alizadehgoradel *et al* 2020, Holla *et al* 2020, Malandain *et al* 2020, Verveer *et al* 2020, Alizadehgoradel *et al* 2021, Dubuson *et al* 2021, Gaudreault *et al* 2021, Perri and Perrotta 2021, Xu *et al* 2021c, Pedron *et al* 2022), fibromyalgia (Andrade *et al* 2018, Santos *et al* 2018, Yoo *et al* 2018, Kang *et al* 2020, Arroyo-Fernández *et al* 2021, Fregni *et al* 2021, Matias *et al* 2022), gambling disorder (Salatino *et al* 2021), and traumatic spinal cord injury (Chari *et al* 2017, Cortes *et al* 2017, Hofer and Schwab 2019, Kumru *et al* 2020).

## 2.2. tACS

In 2008, the effects of tACS were first described frequency-dependent way (Antal *et al* 2008). Feurra *et al* (2011) investigated the effect of tACS on evoked potentials and discovered that 20 Hz tACS had a modulatory effect. These findings imply that tACS has frequency-dependent effects and that the processes are distinct from tDCS. The existence of frequency-dependent effects suggests that tACS may entrain cortical oscillations. The phase and frequency of brain oscillations are altered to follow the external stimulus when a brain oscillation is entrained (Helfrich *et al* 2014, Vosskuhl *et al* 2015).

The frequency range surrounding a neural oscillator's inherent frequency determines whether it follows the externally produced tACS frequency. Plastic-related changes in oscillatory brain activity can endure for a long period following stimulation. The resting-state observations following tACS were used in additional and essential physiological studies (Ghafoor *et al* 2022). Moreover, tACS can influence neural oscillations in the brain during mental tasks. The tACS application allows contact with brain oscillations, allowing for modification of the latter via a 0.5–2 mA level electric current adjusted to the rhythms of endogenous oscillations via the scalp. The effects of tACS on working memory capacity, perception, multitasking, motor control, and learning have been studied extensively (Chander *et al* 2016, Kasten and Herrmann 2017). In tACS, AC signals need not be sinusoidal but can be rectangular or even have more complex forms (Herrmann *et al* 2013). Examples of an AC signal used in tACS and a DC signal used in tDCS are shown in figure 2.

Although the tRNS (Chenot *et al* 2022) is another significant non-invasive stimulating approach, the authors tried to circumvent it because this review focuses on combined protocol with fNIRS, and no study of combined fNIRS and tRNS is available in the literature.



### 3. Combined fNIRS-tES studies

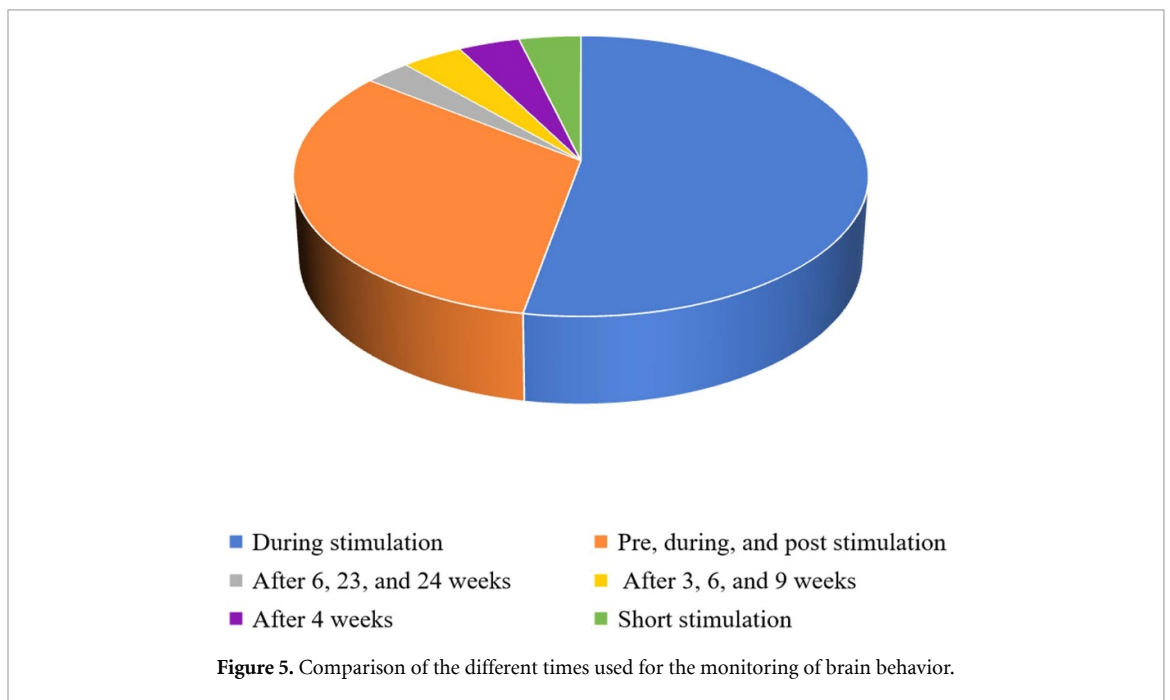
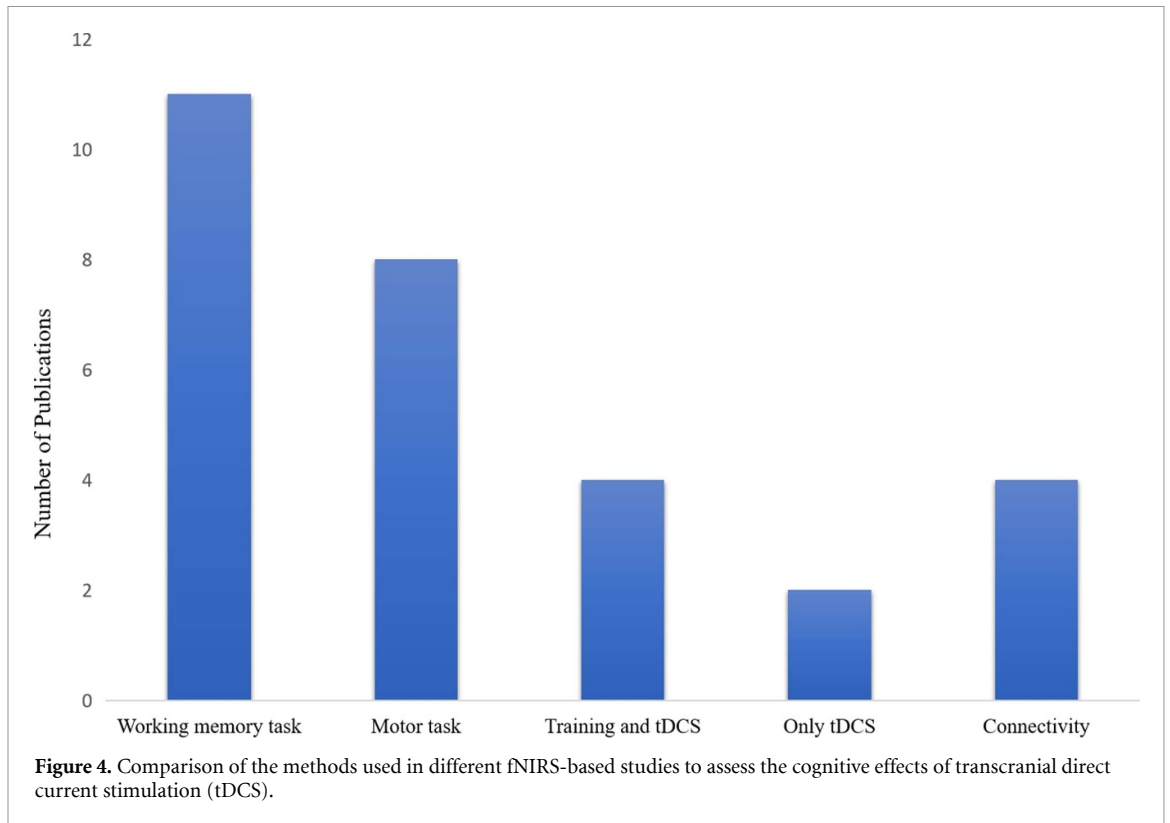
Different stimulation durations have been used in different brain areas in the field of tES. While utilizing fNIRS as a brain imaging modality, almost all brain areas have been monitored to determine the effect of tES. Although fNIRS is a relatively new technique, many studies using fNIRS have been conducted to determine the effectiveness of tES. Figure 3 shows the number of studies conducted yearly in the last decade. While conducting these studies, different brain areas were monitored, as mentioned earlier. Therefore, depending on the brain area, different analysis parameters were used to monitor the effectiveness of tES. Figure 4 illustrates the comparison of different parameters used in some of these studies that utilized tDCS for stimulation. During these experiments, fNIRS data were sampled at different instances. Some of these studies focused on the long-term effects of tES, while others focused on neuronal changes during stimulation. Figure 5 gives an overview of the studies that used different time instances to measure the hemodynamic response. The brain areas mainly under focus in fNIRS studies monitoring the effects of tES include the frontal, occipital, and parietal lobes. Different stimulation durations were used for each of these brain areas, as shown in figure 6.

#### 3.1. Studies on frontal region

Studies of the prefrontal cortex (PFC) utilizing fNIRS began with a study investigating the effect of tDCS of the PFC (Merzagora *et al* 2010). In this study, active stimulation was given to 12 subjects and sham stimulation to 10 subjects for 10 min. The study results

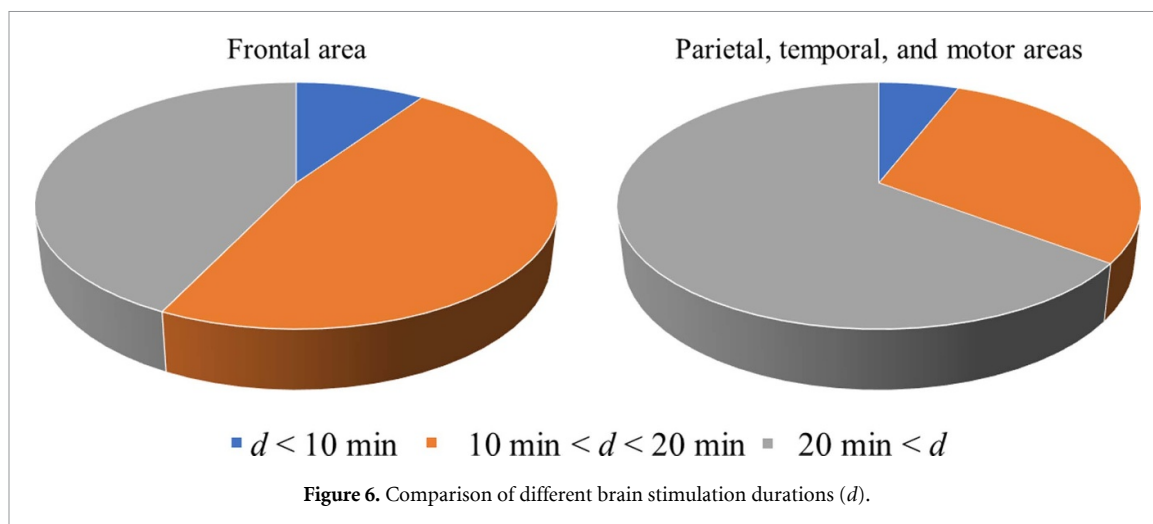
showed that, in comparison to sham stimulation, anodal stimulation increased the amount of activation in the PFC. To investigate the effects of tDCS, a study in 2015 utilized a working memory task to assess brain activation (Jones *et al* 2015). The participants' PFC was stimulated at an intensity of 1.5 mA. The study results indicate that tDCS can enhance the cognitive abilities of a person. Jones *et al* stimulated the left PFC of 24 healthy subjects to determine the effect of tDCS on performance in working memory tasks. The stimulation was performed for 10 min at an intensity of 1.5 mA. The study concluded that stimulation improved working memory performance. A study conducted to investigate the effects of tDCS on drug-craving revealed that tDCS offers a promising solution for the treatment of relapse prevention (Kroczeck *et al* 2016). Stephens *et al* (2016) demonstrated the effectiveness of tDCS for maintaining cognitive abilities for a long time as we grow older. While investigating the effects of tDCS on the dorsolateral PFC and frontotemporal cortex, it was found that application of tDCS had no significant effect on the amount of activation in the dorsolateral PFC when performing verbal frequency tasks (Herrmann *et al* 2017). In the same year, a study revealed that although tDCS affects the activation of the brain in response to a contraction task, it has no significant effect on the fatigue indices (Radel *et al* 2017). A recent study by Clark and colleagues demonstrated that 18 sessions of tDCS along with walking rehabilitation are sufficient and safe for older adults. Table 1 summarizes the studies in the field of fNIRS that utilized tDCS/tACS.

Neuromodulation with tES has the potential to help people recover a variety of brain functions



that have been lost or compromised. Recently, *Yaqub et al (2021)* aimed to provide the feasibility of the proposed closed-loop strategy using the feedback from targeted functional networks in the prefrontal cortex. Moreover, the authors discussed recommended parameters feasible for deploying in the feedback loop. Moreover, due to the differences in stimulation parameters among studies, such as duration, frequency, intensity, and electrode montage, and limited information of the underlying neurophysiological

mechanisms, the exact mechanism of tES-induced after-effects remains uncertain. Furthermore, due to electrical abnormalities, the accuracy of EEG data is compromised during tES. Besides, hemodynamic alterations during stimulation, particularly during tACS, are poorly understood. Hybrid fNIRS-EEG-tES can be used with either tDCS or tACS with no electro-optic intervention to evaluate the hemodynamic response during electrical stimulation. A recent combined fNIRS-tES study was conducted,



which comprehensively investigates the effects of tDCS and tACS on the PFC using fNIRS and EEG simultaneously (Ghafoor *et al* 2022). Another aspect of this study was checking the placement of high-definition montage to target both left/right PFCs simultaneously. Using fNIRS-EEG-tES, they observed enhanced prefrontal activity. In this resting state study, tDCS and tACS caused significant improvements in mean hemodynamic responses during and after stimulation periods. When tACS was compared to tDCS in between-group analyses, the mean hemodynamic responses induced by tACS were a bit lower. They used tDCS and tACS to illustrate the viability of a high-density setup in boosting hemodynamics in both sides of PFCs simultaneously. Furthermore, after tACS stimulation, there was a rise in alpha band power and a decrease in beta band power. Even though tDCS is not frequency-specific, it considerably impacted most EEG band powers.

Researchers investigated the neural correlates of stimulation-induced modulation of the ability to learn the value of future outcomes and the sequential choices necessary to achieve them (i.e. sequential decision-making) (Schommartz *et al* 2021). They revealed three findings: (a) an increased dorsolateral PFC hemodynamic response during the acquisition of sequential state transitions, (b) a tDCS-induced increase in the dorsolateral PFC hemodynamic response, but without accompanying performance-enhancing effects at the behavioral level and, and (c) a greater tDCS-induced upregulation of hemodynamic responses in the delayed reward condition.

Another study was conducted on language processing having two aims: (a) whether fNIRS could be used to detect changes in hemodynamic response in young adults with developmental language disorder after anodal high definition (HD) tDCS enhanced phonological working memory training and (b) and could be used to identify atypical hemodynamic responses in these same adults with developmental language disorder during active spoken

word processing (Berglund-Barraza *et al* 2020). They concluded that individual variations in the relationship between behavior and neural patterns in a single person with a developmental language disorder might be established using fNIRS to track individual differences in changes in brain activity following working memory training. Another study was conducted on language processing having two aims: (a) whether fNIRS could be used to detect changes in hemodynamic response in young adults with developmental language disorder after anodal HD-tDCS enhanced phonological working memory training and (b) and could be used to identify atypical hemodynamic responses in these same adults with developmental language disorder during active spoken word processing (Berglund-Barraza *et al* 2020). They concluded that individual variations in the relationship between behavior and neural patterns in single person with developmental language disorder may be established using fNIRS and track individual differences in changes in brain activity following working memory training. Another pioneering tDCS research examines the influence of multiple active HD-tDCS interventions on executive functions (Lu *et al* 2021). The main results showed that nine anodal HD-tDCS sessions could improve different aspects of executive functions. They demonstrated that the enhancement of cognitive flexibility in the anodal group was significantly better than that in the sham group. Moreover, a Stroop effect-related decrease in HbO concentration in the dorsolateral PFC was observed in the anodal group but not the sham group.

### 3.2. Studies on parietal, temporal, and motor areas

Work on motor area of the brain started in 2013 (Muthalib *et al* 2013). In this study, the motor cortex in 15 healthy subjects was stimulated for 10 min and the amount of activation due to stimulation was observed in the PFC. The results of the study showed that there was no modulation due to tDCS in the muscle force production that was being monitored



Table 1. fNIRS-based studies conducted on the frontal area while stimulation with tDCS/tACS.

Authors (year of publication)	Subjects under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	tDCS/tACS stimulation area	fNIRS measurement area	Cognitive task	Reported signals	Granular findings
Ghafoor <i>et al</i> (2022)	Healthy	15 (1 session of tACS (10 Hz) and 1 session of tDCS)	12 min	1 mA	Anode: FpZ and 4 cathodes in square (4 and 6 cm) around anode	Left and right prefrontal cortices	Nil	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR EEG band power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Post stimulation increase in HbO for both tDCS and tACS.</li> <li>• Increase in HbO was dominant in channels near anode.</li> </ul>
Yaqub <i>et al</i> (2021)	Healthy	15	10 min	1 mA	Anode: Fp2, and 4 cathodes in square around anode	Left and right prefrontal cortices		Connectivity, graph theoretical assessment, and proposed the closed loop strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Prefrontal functional connectivity enhancement throughout stimulation.</li> </ul>
Lu <i>et al</i> (2021)	Healthy	43	20 min (9 sessions)	1.5 mA	Dorsolateral PFC (DLPFC)	Bilateral dorsolateral PFC	Working memory task	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Repeated HD-tDCS results in cognitive flexibility enhancement.</li> <li>• Decrease of HbO related to Stroop effect DLPFC</li> </ul>
Schommartz <i>et al</i> (2021)	Healthy	31	20 min	2 mA	Dorsolateral PFC Anode: F4 Cathode: F3	Left and right dorsolateral PFC	Three-state Markov decision task	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enhancement of hemodynamic on DLPFC in result of tDCS.</li> </ul>
Berglund-Barraza <i>et al</i> (2020)	Adults with developmental language disorder	2	20 min	1 mA	Anode: Fz Cathode: four (FpZ, F7, F8, and Cz)	Brodmann's areas 10 and 46	Working memory task	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The HbO response moved within normal limits after training.</li> </ul>
Clark <i>et al</i> (2020)	Healthy	18	20 min	2 mA	Anode: F4 and cathode: F3	Prefrontal cortex	Walking	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Eighteen sessions of walking rehabilitation combined with tDCS is a feasible and safe intervention for older adults.</li> </ul>

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Authors (year of publication)	Subjects under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	tDCS/tACS stimulation area	fNIRS measurement area	Cognitive task	Reported signals	Granular findings
McKendrick <i>et al</i> (2020)	Healthy	21 (tDCS for 11)	15 min	1 mA	Ventrolateral prefrontal cortex (Anode: F10 and Cathode: F2)	Broadmann's area 10, 46, 45, 44	Working memory task	Concentration changes in HbO, HbR, and oxygenation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tDCS can affect propensity of neurons.</li> <li>The nature of utilization of hemodynamics is altered by tDCS.</li> </ul>
Di Rosa <i>et al</i> (2019)	Healthy	21	30 min	1.5 mA	Anode: between F3 and F7 Cathode: contralateral shoulder	Frontal and parietal regions of interest		Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Working memory is enhanced by reward motivation-based anodal tDCS over left PFC.</li> <li>HbO in PFC is increased in older adults in result of aforementioned process.</li> </ul>
Li <i>et al</i> (2019)	Patient	26	20 min	2 mA	Dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (Anode: F3 and Cathode: F4)	Left and right prefrontal cortices			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tDCS may improve the processing of negative emotions in PSD patients.</li> <li>tDCS may enhance the aerobic metabolism in the PFC, thereby improving depressive symptoms.</li> </ul>
Harris <i>et al</i> (2018)	Patient	24	20 min	2 mA	M1 area	Left and right dorsolateral prefrontal cortices		Trial protocol	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tDCS can have a long-lasting effect on balance, functional and neurophysiological outcome, and neurocognitive outcome.</li> </ul>
Giovannella <i>et al</i> (2018)	Healthy	20	10 min	1 mA	Anode: AF7, and Cathode: PO8	AF7, AF8, FT7, FT8, PO7, PO8, TP7, TP8	Nil	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR; cerebral blood flow (CBF)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>CBF is a better indicator of hemodynamic changes under the stimulation electrode.</li> <li>CBF increases during and after stimulation in regions under stimulation.</li> </ul>

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Authors (year of publication)	Subjects under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	tDCS/tACS stimulation area	fNIRS measurement area	Cognitive task	Reported signals	Granular findings
Berger <i>et al</i> (2018)	Healthy	24 (2 session of tACS (10 Hz and 20 Hz))	20 min	1 mA	Parietal cortices (Anode: P3 and Cathode: P4)	Bilateral motor cortex	Bimanual coordination task	Concentration changes in HbO and EEG band power	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Decrease in HbO after tACS stimulation as compared to sham group.</li> <li>HbO changes in the parietal area are relevant to bimanual motor behavior.</li> </ul>
Yaqub <i>et al</i> (2018)	Healthy	15	10 min	1 mA	Anode: Fp2, and 4 cathodes in square	Left and right prefrontal cortices	Nil	Concentration changes in HbO and functional connectivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>HbO increased in result of tDCS.</li> <li>The increased level are maintained after tDCS.</li> </ul>
Cao <i>et al</i> (2018a)	Healthy	13	2 min 40 s and 8 min	0.5 mA and 1 mA	Bilateral frontal locations (Anode: FC5 and Cathode: Fp2)	Broca's and Wernicke's areas, frontopolar, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and premotor areas	Verbal frequency task	Functional connectivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>fNIRS can be utilized for mapping the direction of information flow induced by tDCS.</li> </ul>
Cao <i>et al</i> (2018b)	Healthy	13	2 min 40 s and 8 min	0.5 mA and 1 mA	Bilateral frontal locations (Anode: FC5 and Cathode: Fp2)		Verbal frequency task	Directed phase transfer entropy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Functional connectivity is significantly increased by anodal stimulation.</li> <li>tDCS induced significantly increased functional connectivity between Broca's area and its neighboring cortical regions</li> </ul>
Narita <i>et al</i> (2018)	Diseased	26	20 min	2 mA	Anode: F3 and Cathode on FP2	Bilaterally on prefrontal locations	Verbal frequency task	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tDCS may have the ability to treat psychotic symptoms.</li> <li>fNIRS provides biomarkers in utilization of tDCS in treatment of schizophrenia</li> </ul>

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Authors (year of publication)	Subjects under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	tDCS/tACS stimulation area	fNIRS measurement area	Cognitive task	Reported signals	Granular findings
Borrágán <i>et al</i> (2018)	Healthy	20	25 min	1.5 mA	Dorsolateral prefrontal region (Anode: F3 and Cathode: right arm)	Superior frontal cortices	Working memory TloadDback task	Cerebral oxygen exchange	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tDCS was not effective to counteract the behavioral effects of cognitive fatigue (CF).</li> <li>COE levels increased after CF task for sham group.</li> <li>In contrast, for tDCS group, CF induction significantly shifted interhemispheric oxygenation balance.</li> </ul>
Hermann <i>et al</i> (2017)	Healthy	61	26 min	1 mA	Dorsolateral prefrontal cortex	Bilateral prefrontal locations	Verbal frequency task	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Bilateral tDCS stimulation on DLPFC showed no effect on HbO during VFT.</li> <li>Increased HbR was observed in case of stimulation as compared to sham group.</li> </ul>
Ehlis <i>et al</i> (2016)	Healthy	46	20 min	1 mA	Anode: Between C3, F3 and Cathode: supraorbital region	Bilateral frontotemporal regions	Verbal frequency task	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Both preceding anodal and cathodal tDCS did not modulated VFT performance.</li> <li>Preconditioning with anodal tDCS increased brain activity during the VFT.</li> </ul>
Stephens and Berryhill (2016)	Healthy	90	15 min	2 mA	Right prefrontal cortex (Anode: F4 and Cathode: Cheek)	Bilateral prefrontal locations (F3 and F4)	Working memory task	fNIRS and genotyping results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2 mA of tDCS induced significantly greater far transfer gains after 1 month.</li> <li>WM training combined with tDCS is an effective intervention that improves cognitive performance</li> </ul>

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Authors (year of publication)	Subjects under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	tDCS/tACS stimulation area	fNIRS measurement area	Cognitive task	Reported signals	Granular findings
Kroczek <i>et al</i> (2016)	Diseased	25	19 min	2 mA	Bilaterally on prefrontal locations Anode: F3 and Cathode: Fp2	Bilaterally on prefrontal locations (OFC, left BA46, right and left BA9)	Cigarette cue-exposure	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR and connectivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tDCS did not significantly alter craving or heart rate.</li> <li>Hemodynamics in LPFC increased in the group receiving sham stimulation.</li> </ul>
Jones <i>et al</i> (2015)	Healthy	24	10 min	1.5 mA	Left prefrontal locations (anode: between F3 and F7)	Left prefrontal locations (F7 and F3)	Working memory task	oxygenated blood flow	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ensuring that participants' incentives are high may expand cognitive benefits associated with tDCS</li> </ul>
Merzagora <i>et al</i> (2010)	Healthy	22	10 min	1 mA	Bilaterally on prefrontal locations (Anode: Fp1 and Cathode: Fp2)	Prefrontal cortex	Resting state	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Anodal stimulation induced a significant increase HbO compared to sham.</li> <li>Cathodal stimulation had negligible effects.</li> </ul>

through PFC activation. In the same year, another study investigated the effects of tDCS while performing a wrist flexion task (Khan *et al* 2013). fNIRS data were collected while the task was performed before, during, and after the stimulation (stimulation period, 15 min). The results from eight healthy subjects indicated that when used with tDCS, fNIRS can measure insight into how the muscles are affected by neuroplasticity. A study performed in rats showed an increase in the hemodynamic response during tDCS, and the activity started to decrease as soon as the stimulation stopped (Han *et al* 2014). In this study, the rats were stimulated for 10 min, whereas the fNIRS data were recorded during stimulation and 20 min after stimulation. The authors concluded that the stimulation parameters must be customized per subject to achieve the maximum after-effects of tDCS. While stimulating the left motor cortex, functional connectivity was compared in five healthy subjects (Yan *et al* 2015). This study provided stimulation for 5 min, which is the first study to the best of our knowledge, to check the comparatively short stimulation duration effect. The results before, during, and after stimulation were compared. The results indicated that resting-state coherence could be a helpful tool for calculating the optimal parameters for tDCS utilization. In the following year, a study conducted on 32 healthy subjects found a relationship between tDCS and the learning process (Choe *et al* 2016). The subjects were stimulated for 60 min at an intensity of 2 mA.

Takai *et al* (2016) suggested that changes occur in blood flow in the case of both anodal and cathodal tDCS. After stimulating the right primary motor area in seven healthy subjects for 20 min, the authors concluded that the effect of tDCS is limited to the brain area under-stimulation and expands to other areas of the cortex. In the same year, a study was conducted to investigate the effects of HD-tDCS relative to those of tDCS stimulation (Gözenman and Berryhill 2016). The posterior parietal cortex of 34 healthy subjects was stimulated for 20 min. The study results suggested that in comparison to tDCS, HD-tDCS had a more significant influence on the group with worse working memory. Interestingly, participants with better working memory demonstrated the opposite trend.

In order to improve lower limb strength, postural sway, and gait speed in patients with Parkinson's disease, the motor area in 42 patients underwent stimulation at 2 mA for 20 min (Hendy *et al* 2016). The results of the study demonstrate the effectiveness of the method. Muthalib *et al* (2016) extended the work on HD-tDCS and investigated its effect while performing sequential figure-tapping tasks. Interesting work in the same year proposed using a Kalman filter (Sood *et al* 2016). This filter was based on estimation using an autoregressive model. The authors proposed that this model could keep track of the coupling between EEG and fNIRS data while tDCS was applied.

Pilot research was conducted to see how a two-week tDCS therapy affected the cortical hemodynamics of a knee osteoarthritis cohort as evaluated by fNIRS (Pollonini *et al* 2020a). They suggested that fNIRS is a valid tool for objectively tracking pain in an ambulatory situation. It might be used to influence methods for improved tDCS therapy and design novel tDCS protocols. According to a finding of another similar study, the neuromodulatory intervention considerably reduced pain only in the active therapy group (Pollonini *et al* 2020b). Only the active treatment group demonstrated a substantial increase in oxyhemoglobin activation of the superior motor and somatosensory cortices when the anodal tDCS electrode was placed. Increased activity in multiple cortical areas during dual-task walking in older adults may act as a compensatory mechanism in another tDCS-fNIRS study (Orcioli-Silva *et al* 2021). Moreover, the reduction in M1 activity following active tDCS + treadmill walking with no observed gait changes suggest that tDCS improved neural efficiency.

The effect of M1-tDCS on bimanual motor skill acquisition and retention was investigated in a longitudinal study (Gao *et al* 2021). The fNIRS technology was used to record variations in brain activity during task execution. As the training progressed, they saw that tDCS reduced the performance errors. According to the trial-to-trial standard deviation analysis, the tDCS group tended to stabilize performance variability in performance error and time. After a 4 week gap, the impact of tDCS on improving performance accuracy was still there. As a result, tDCS reduced contralateral M1 and PFC activity while increasing supplemental motor area. Moreover, the activation of the middle PFC and supplemental motor area regions was negatively correlated with the performance error.

Another study (Conceição *et al* 2021) was conducted to promote greater positive effects on gait, cognition, and PFC activity while walking, compared with a stand-alone session of aerobic exercise (sham tDCS) in people with Parkinson's disease. It was observed that the addition of anodal tDCS over the PFC to a session of aerobic exercise led to immediate positive effects on gait variability, processing speed, and executive control of walking in people with Parkinson's disease. Table 2 summarizes all studies in fNIRS using tDCS/tACS of all brain areas except the frontal region.

#### 4. Stimulation durations

The effects of electrode-based tDCS induced plasticity have been found to vary under certain circumstances. Duration of stimulation is one of the factors causing the variation in neuromodulatory effects of tDCS (Vignaud *et al* 2018). Considering a rapidly developing amount of tDCS studies, there is no apparent link between stimulation intensity

Table 2. fNIRS-based studies investigating the effect of tDCS.

Authors (year of publication)	Subject under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	Stimulation area	Measurement area	Task performed	Reported signals	Granular findings
Conceição et al (2021)	Diseased	20	20 min	2 mA	Anode: F3/F4 (affected hemisphere) Cathode: FP2/FP1	Brodmann areas 9, 10, and 46	Walking	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Post tDCS increase in PFC activity along with shortened reaction time was observed.</li> <li>• tDCS decreased error level and the variability in performance, compared to the sham group</li> <li>• HbO in primary motor and prefrontal cortices decreased whereas increased in supplemental motor area.</li> </ul>
Gao et al (2021)	Healthy medical students	12	10 min	1 mA	Anode: C3 Cathode: Fp2	Prefrontal locations, M1 and PFC, M1, and supplemental motor area	Bimanual motor task and pattern cutting	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motor cortex activity decreased after tDCS was given.</li> <li>• No effect on PFC was noted.</li> </ul>
Orcioli-Silva et al (2021)	Young and older adults	23 + 21	20 min	0.6 mA	Anode: Cz and between AF3 to Fp1 Cathode: Right mastoid	Brodmann areas 6 lateral/medial, 4, 8, 9, 10, 45, and 46)	Treadmill walking	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Habituation of perturbation was evidenced independent of the stimulation conditions</li> <li>• tDCS over M1 improved the postural response to external perturbation in PD.</li> <li>• Better response observed for 2 mA compared with 1 mA.</li> </ul>
Beretta et al (2020)	Diseased	24	3 sessions	1 mA and 2 mA	Primary motor cortex (M1)	Prefrontal locations	Postural assessment	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Both HbO and HbR increased during tDCS treatment.</li> <li>• Clinical measures of pain decrease after tDCS</li> </ul>
Pollonini et al (2020a)	Individuals with right knee osteoarthritis	10	20 min	2 mA	Anode: C3 contralateral to the painful knee Cathode: Fp2 ipsilateral to the painful knee	Bilateral primary motor and somatosensory cortices	Thermal pain	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	

(Continued.)

Table 2. (Continued.)

Authors (year of publication)	Subject under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	Stimulation area	Measurement area	Task performed	Reported signals	Granular findings
Pollonini <i>et al</i> (2020b)		19		2 mA	Anode: primary motor cortex of the hemisphere contralateral to the affected knee Cathode: supraorbital region contralateral to the anode	Bilateral prefrontal cortex and the primary motor and somatosensory cortices contralateral to the thermal stimulation	Thermal stimulation	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Neuromodulatory intervention significantly relieved pain only in the group receiving active treatment.</li> <li>Group with modulation showed increase of HbO in superior motor and somatosensory cortices.</li> </ul>
Verma <i>et al</i> (2019)	Diseased	1	20 min	2 mA	Anode: F4 and Cathode: TP4	Bilateral temporal cortical area	Auditory task	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Improvement in tinnitus symptoms after tDCS.</li> <li>Improvement in functional cortical activity as assessed by fNIRS in chronic tinnitus after tDCS.</li> </ul>
Besson <i>et al</i> (2019)	Healthy	15	20 min	2 mA	Left M1 Anode: 1, Cathodes: 4	Left M1	Sequential tapping of the index, middle, ring and fourth finger against the thumb	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Functional targeting of motor task-concurrent with tDCS is likely more effective at producing changes in sensorimotor cortex activation.</li> <li>The effects lasted 30 min after stimulation.</li> </ul>
Muthalib <i>et al</i> (2018)	Healthy	13	10 min	2 mA	Left M1 Anode: 1 Cathodes: four placed around anode	Bilateral M1	Nil	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increase of HbO was observed in the surroundings of tDCS electrodes.</li> </ul>

(Continued.)



Table 2. (Continued.)

Authors (year of publication)	Subject under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	Stimulation area	Measurement area	Task performed	Reported signals	Granular findings
Radel <i>et al</i> (2017)	Healthy	22	20 min	1.5 mA	Anode: AF4 and C2 Cathode: four placed at a distance of 40 mm around the anode	Right lateral prefrontal cortex and the right primary motor cortex	Fatiguing task		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• HD-tDCS had effect on the cognitive activation but no effects of stimulation were observed on endurance time or fatigue indices.</li> </ul>
Muthalib <i>et al</i> (2016)	Healthy	8	20 min	2 mA	Left sensorimotor cortex	Bilateral sensorimotor cortex	Simple finger sequence		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Online and offline anodal HD-tDCS reduced bilateral SMC activation</li> </ul>
Hendy <i>et al</i> (2016)	Diseased	42	20 min	2 mA	Anode: left and right motor representation Cathode: right trapezius muscle	Prefrontal locations	Dual gait task	Trial protocol	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lower limb strength, postural sway, gait speed and stride variability are improved by tDCS and progressive resistance training.</li> </ul>
Takai <i>et al</i> (2016)	Healthy	7	20 min	1 mA	Bilateral M1	SMA, left M1, and left primary sensory and motor cortex (S1)	Nil	Concentration changes in HbO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Anodal and cathodal tDCS cause widespread changes in cerebral blood flow.</li> <li>• The effect is not only observed under the electrodes but also in the other parts of the cortex.</li> </ul>
Dutta <i>et al</i> (2015)	Diseased	4	15 × 30 s	0.5 mA	Anode: Cz Cathode: left supraorbital notch	Cz	Nil	Concentration changes in HbO, HbR, and EEG	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• tDCS stimulation effected the phenomena of neurovascular coupling.</li> </ul>
Yan <i>et al</i> (2015)	Healthy	5	5 min	1.5 mA	Left M1 area	Right M1		Concentration changes in HbO and connectivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Functional connectivity decreased during stimulation as compared to pre- and post-stimulation.</li> </ul>

(Continued.)

Table 2. (Continued.)

Authors (year of publication)	Subject under observation	No. of subjects	Stimulation duration	Intensity of stimulation	Stimulation area	Measurement area	Task performed	Reported signals	Granular findings
Han <i>et al</i> (2014)	Rats	7	10 min	200 $\mu$ A	Right barrel cortex area and the ventral thorax	Cover most part of the brain		Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The HbO response increased during stimulation and decreased after it.</li> <li>Negative correlation was observed between HbO and HbR during stimulation period.</li> </ul>
Khan <i>et al</i> (2013)	Healthy	8	15 min	2 mA	Bilateral M1	Bilateral M1	Wrist flexion task	Concentration changes in HbO and connectivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tDCS can alter inter-hemispheric balance and the laterality of cortical activity.</li> </ul>
Muthalib <i>et al</i> (2013)	Healthy	15	10 min	2 mA	Left M1 area	Bilateral M1	Maximal voluntary isometric contraction	Concentration changes in HbO and HbR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Neuronal activation to maintain muscle force production was not modulated by anodal tDCS.</li> </ul>

and duration concerning the tDCS response. Early tDCS investigations employed intensities of up to 1 mA to alter corticospinal excitability in healthy persons (Yang *et al* 2021). Increasing tDCS intensity, on the other hand, does not always promote plasticity; instead, it may reverse the predicted direction of excitability change for the tested polarity (Batsikadze *et al* 2013). A thorough evaluation of anodal tDCS intensities between 0.5 and 2.0 mA in healthy people demonstrated no changes in corticospinal excitability regulation (Jamil *et al* 2017). Unexpectedly, only stimulation at 1 mA resulted in the predicted decrease of corticospinal excitability with cathodal tDCS. Although the ideal stimulation intensity is unknown, it appears that greater intensities (e.g. 2 mA) are not always more beneficial for anodal tDCS.

Similarly, the length of stimulation was expanded from 10 min in initial research to 20–30 min in subsequent investigations to improve therapeutic efficacy in patient groups (Nitsche *et al* 2003, Elsner *et al* 2016). However, there does not appear to be a direct link between increased duration and improved physiologic outcomes. In addition, after 18 min of continuous application of cathodal tDCS, the after-effects did not lead to any further excitement, and with a further increase in stimulation duration, there was no further improvement (Monte-Silva *et al* 2010). Monte-Silva *et al* (2013) claimed that prolonging the duration of anodal tDCS to twenty-six minutes reversed the excitation-to-suppression effects in the motor cortex. However, plasticity responses were longer-lasting when two thirteen-minute blocks of anodal tDCS were separated by twenty minutes of no stimulation. The intensity and duration of tDCS stimulation interact with neuronal responses. Greater than 1 mA stimulation increased corticospinal excitability regardless of stimulation time (i.e. less than or more than 10 min), but less than 1 mA stimulation increased corticospinal excitability if provided for more than 10 min (Dissanayaka *et al* 2017). Moreover, for example, twenty minutes of stimulation promoted plasticity, but thirty minutes had no impact (Vignaud *et al* 2018). Anodal tDCS with less than 1 mA intensity and ten minutes duration did not impact corticospinal excitability (Hordacre *et al* 2021). Plasticity after-effects are modulated by current density under the active electrode, although ideal parameters are unknown. Even though many current densities have been examined in healthy persons and patients, there is no consistent evidence supporting any one parameter.

No doubt, controlling the length of stimulation is complicated and dependent on several subject-specific characteristics. The duration of tDCS for a specific brain area was determined in a resting state study where a limiting mechanism for the stimulation duration of a diseased brain using functional connectivity and graph-theoretical parameters was

proposed (Yaqub *et al* 2021). They examined the resting-state functional connectivity in the PFC after 10 min of HD-tDCS stimulation to see how it affected the right prefrontal cortex. The averaged HbO signal was used to build correlation maps that quantitatively quantify the resting-state functional connectivity after preprocessing the collected fNIRS data to eliminate noise from various sources. The findings revealed a high correlation between several combinations of channels that may be considered correlated. Based on the connectivity percentage across channels, the functional brain network for the entire PFC was partitioned into subnetworks. The independent short-range links of the right and left hemispheres containing connections within a hemisphere, long-range networks with links between the channels of the right and left hemispheres, and the whole PFC network including short- and long-range connections were investigated based on network theory properties. The results reveal that when the stimulation time is increased, the functional networks in the brain are enhanced. During the first 7 min, the region of interest improved brain state considerably. However, there was no discernible alteration in the brain state in the last 3 min of stimulation. Consequently, it is safe to conclude that the brain's gains were near saturation and that more stimulation should be avoided to limit overdosage. The proposed neurofeedback approach may be used to regulate the stimulus duration.

## 5. Open questions

Based on the literature, certain essential points need to be considered. These significant points include: (a) the number of participants required to conduct the study, (b) the exact brain region where stimulation has to be given, (c) the brain region that will be used as a reference during stimulation, (d) the polarity of the stimulation, (e) whether the study will be blinded, (f) the amount of current to be delivered to subjects, (g) how long stimulation will last, (h) how many brain stimulation sessions will be given, and (i) what will be the assessed variables. All these variables need addressing and be set as a benchmark for further studies. Some prominent methods that may act as breakthroughs in the field are discussed below.

### 5.1. Hybrid imaging-based approach

The excitable membranes of the brain tissue superpose the electric currents in the extracellular medium during neural stimulation and create a potential on the scalp (i.e. EEG). It has been shown that neuronal activity is closely linked to cerebral blood flow and the consequent supply of glucose via the neurovascular link, both spatially and temporally. On the other hand, fNIRS can capture hemodynamic responses, allowing continuous surveillance of cerebral oxygen and blood flow. The authors proposed the fusion of EEG and fNIRS data as a method for

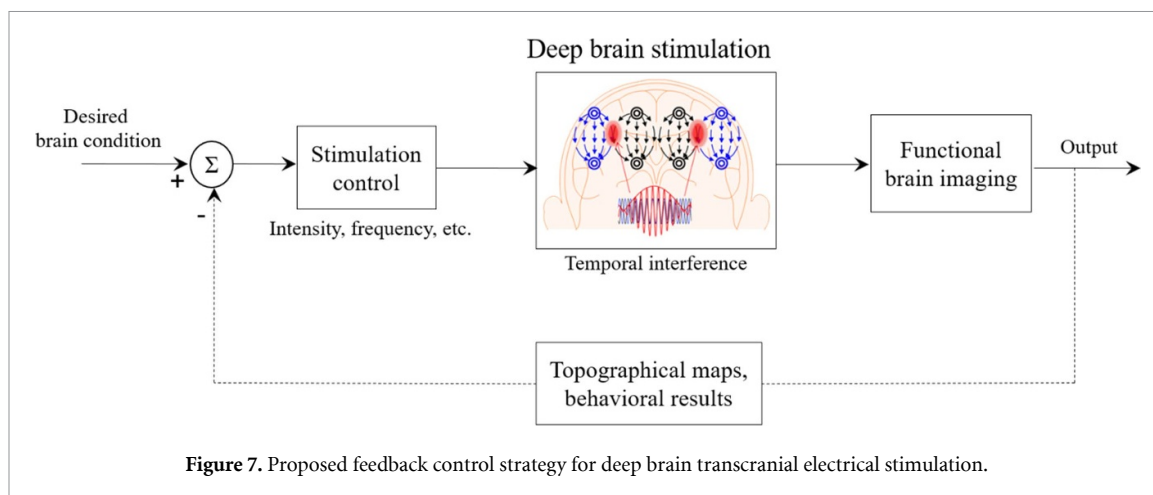


Figure 7. Proposed feedback control strategy for deep brain transcranial electrical stimulation.

more efficient online monitoring during stimulation. Multivariate machine learning methods (Shin *et al* 2018) can also be used to fuse multimodal neuroimaging functional data. For fNIRS, the individualized physical MRI model includes optical properties, such as the absorption and scattering coefficients of the various types of tissue, and explains the transport of photons through the tissues. Functional diffuse correlation spectroscopy and diffuse optical tomography extend fNIRS by overlapping high-density (Giovannella *et al* 2018, Yaqub *et al* 2020) measurements, which provides increased spatial precision in a three-dimensional perspective. For closed-loop control of multimodal imaging, connectivity needs to be analyzed in real-time for multi-channel tDCS in the source space (Yaqub *et al* 2018, 2021, Ghafoor *et al* 2022).

In future work, we propose using temporal interference for deep brain stimulation, as shown in figure 7 (Grossman *et al* 2017, 2018). Although techniques such as HD-tDCS have shown prominent results in cases of focal stimulation, deep brain stimulation may be the best option to achieve long-lasting effects. With the help of deep brain stimulation, the high risks of surgery can be avoided to reach the sub-cortical areas of the brain. In addition, one of the most prominent advantages of deep brain stimulation using tES is cost-efficiency. Further, the authors believe that targeted stimulation is possible with the help of deep brain stimulation, which might improve results. Alongside this, the design of a method to set a standard for the stimulation duration is a goal for the future. Instead of the hit-and-try method, the authors believe that specific criteria for selecting the best suitable stimulation duration are a need of the era that will be addressed in future studies.

## 5.2. Issues concerning artifact removal

When captured during tACS, the EEG signal is polluted by a substantial electrical disturbance. However, this setup is sufficient to show that tACS is responsible for developing brain oscillations explicitly. The

reduction of artifacts is necessary for the online analysis of the effects of tACS. The perfect solution is to distinguish between artifacts and physiological signals. Each of the oscillations (or harmonics) should be analyzed at the frequency of the stimulation. With these approaches, one key question remains unanswered: Can a small remaining entity from entrained brain activity be discerned reliably based mainly on EEG data? It is also difficult to evaluate online neural responses at the same frequency using tACS stimulation (e.g. increases in alpha oscillations during 10 Hz tACS stimulation). Studies should target frequencies far from the frequency of stimulation and its harmonics.

In humans, the EEG records of the frequency band 1–15 Hz are influenced by cardiac activity and the blinking of the eye (Gebodh *et al* 2017, Noury and Siegel 2017). This effect is most pronounced in the frontal areas. In addition, the subject's movement should be avoided, and stimulation electrodes should be carefully placed so that they do not move. The issue of motion artifact can be catered to by using fNIRS as a brain-imaging modality. As fNIRS is less susceptible to motion artifacts than EEG, it provides an avenue to avoid motion artifacts in the first place. Also, the advantage of fNIRS over EEG is that there is no interference between tES and fNIRS signals, which is not the case in EEG. Usually, the EEG analyses are performed before and after the stimulation period, as the supplied current during the stimulation period causes significant noise in the measured EEG signals. However, fNIRS is free from this issue as it is not subjected to optoelectrical interference.

## 5.3. Repetitive stimulation

The discovery of increased tDCS effectiveness with repeated stimulation over days is significant in neurorehabilitation. The effects of repetitive tACS have also been briefly explored by (Hsu *et al* 2019), who showed that tACS with a 1 min intersession interval (i.e. duration of two adjacent tACS) improved multitasking performance. Therefore, repeated daily

stimulation will prove to be the most effective stimulation protocol in the foreseeable future. The value of the stimulation interval has not yet been illustrated. This issue is of significant concern and needs to be addressed in future studies. One way to achieve this is with the implementation of modern machine learning techniques to estimate the amount of stimulation to be delivered depending on person (Hong *et al* 2018, Ahamdipour *et al* 2021, Benrabah *et al* 2021, Xu *et al* 2021a, 2021b). Furthermore, the specific areas that result in the best cognitive improvements when stimulated must be determined.

#### 5.4. Safety and tolerability

tDCS at 1 mA requires larger electrodes than those used for EEG to prevent skin burns. The experiments were painful for subjects when the applied current reached 3 mA (Furubayashi *et al* 2008). It can also be interpreted as a natural security defense against higher strength stimulation, although animal studies show the method itself is considered secure (Liebetanz *et al* 2009). Additional parameters have been used to enhance physiological comparability and protection criteria. A recent comparative study (Ghafoor *et al* 2022) of tACS/tDCS with fNIRS concluded the following: (a) there were no severe adverse effects in either scenario of stimulation (tDCS or tACS), (b) except for fatigue and tingling, no difference was seen in between-stimulation condition comparisons for any adverse effect, (c) tingling was statistically higher in tACS than in tDCS, (d) the tACS group had more fatigue than the tDCS group. Moreover, practically everyone in the tACS group experienced moderate to severe phosphene and bumping symptoms. This effect might be caused by the stimulation/return electrodes in the PFC being so close to the eyes. Participants in the tDCS group, on the other hand, reported no phosphene impact.

## 6. Conclusion

After providing an overview of what has been achieved in the field of fNIRS-tES, it can be concluded that a meticulous and refined understanding of the physiological response to tES will enhance the experimental protocols for experiments based on neurostimulation. This will aid in the production of substantially consistent results. For future studies, another open question that needs attention is whether the electric field attenuated by tES that reaches the human brain directly affects neuronal networks. The authors believe that the tES approaches will contribute to significant advances in human neuroscience. In addition, the permanence of the effects generated by these experiments should be determined. Once the optimal stimulation duration for tES is decided and a suitable paradigm is developed, tES and fNIRS will aid in developing complete theories regarding brain networks and functions.

## Data availability statement

All data that support the findings of this study are included within the article (and any supplementary files).

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