

Candela Zorzo^{1,2}
María Banqueri^{1,2}
Sara G. Higarza^{1,2}
Alberto M. Pernia³
Jorge L. Arias^{1,2}

Current State of Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation and its use in Psychiatry

¹Laboratorio de Neurociencias, Departamento de Psicología, Universidad de Oviedo, Oviedo, Spain
²INEUROPA, Instituto de Neurociencias del Principado de Asturias, Oviedo, Spain
³Área de Tecnología Electrónica, Universidad de Oviedo, Gijón, Spain

Introduction. Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) is a noninvasive brain stimulation technique that could be used as a therapeutic intervention in order to treat psychiatric disorders.

Aim. Reviewing the effectiveness of TMS in the modulation of cognitive functions and also detailing its potential applications in psychiatric treatments.

Development. TMS has been traditionally used for the treatment of a great variety of neurological or psychiatric conditions by modulating the activity in brain areas and networks. Therapeutic benefit has been found in depressive disorders, anxiety, schizophrenia, addiction, and neurodevelopmental disorders as well as in brain damage and neurodegenerative disorders. Moreover, TMS is a technique which offers great tolerance and can be used as complement with other therapies. However, it is not easy to define an optimal treatment for every pathology: the parameters of stimulation are variable, and its effects at the cellular level of the nervous system are not well-known.

Conclusion. While it is true that TMS provides many therapeutic benefits, it requires further investigation. It is necessary to detail the action mechanism of the stimulation and the long-term side effects, if any. This information would allow the design of specific treatment protocols for different psychiatric disorders.

Keywords: Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation, Psychiatry, Depression, Anxiety, Neurodevelopment, Neurodegeneration

Actas Esp Psiquiatr 2019;47(3):110-21

Estado actual de la estimulación magnética transcraneal y sus aplicaciones en psiquiatría

Introducción. La estimulación magnética transcraneal (EMT) es una técnica de estimulación cerebral no invasiva que puede constituir una intervención terapéutica en multitud de trastornos psiquiátricos.

Objetivo. Revisar la eficacia de la EMT en la modulación de las funciones cognitivas, así como detallar las potenciales aplicaciones en tratamientos de trastornos psiquiátricos.

Desarrollo. La EMT ha sido empleada tradicionalmente para el tratamiento de diversas condiciones neurológicas o psiquiátricas debido a la modulación de la actividad de distintas áreas y redes cerebrales. Se observa beneficio terapéutico en trastornos depresivos, de ansiedad, de la esquizofrenia, de adicción, del neurodesarrollo, así como en daño cerebral adquirido y trastornos que cursan con neurodegeneración. Asimismo, constituye una técnica que presenta gran tolerancia y complementariedad con otras terapias. Sin embargo, existen dificultades para definir un tratamiento óptimo según qué patología: los parámetros de estimulación son muy variables y no se conocen en detalle los efectos a nivel celular en el sistema nervioso.

Conclusión. Si bien es cierto que los beneficios terapéuticos de esta técnica son numerosos, precisa de una mayor investigación. Es necesario detallar el mecanismo de acción que induce la terapia, así como los posibles efectos secundarios a largo plazo, si los hubiera. Ello permitiría diseñar protocolos de tratamiento específicos para diferentes alteraciones neurológicas.

Palabras clave. Estimulación Magnética Transcraneal, Psiquiatría, Depresión, Ansiedad, Neurodesarrollo, Neurodegeneración

Correspondece:
Candela Zorzo
Laboratorio de Neurociencias, Departamento de Psicología, Universidad de Oviedo
Plaza Feijoo s/n
33003 Oviedo, Spain
Fax: (+34) 985 10 41 44
E-mail: UO223002@uniovi.es

INTRODUCTION

Magnetic transcranial stimulation (TMS) is a noninvasive brain stimulation technique. It was first used by Barker in 1985¹ and is a therapeutic tool that allows modifying cerebral plasticity outside the skull². TMS is based on the electromagnetic induction principle of Faraday by which energy can be transformed into magnetic fields, and those fields can be transformed into electric energy. Thus, TMS is used to induce electric currents in discrete brain areas, producing selective changes in neurons' electric potential^{3,4}.

TMS application method can vary according to the researcher or the clinician aims. There are 3 applicable modalities: Simple magnetic transcranial stimulation (sTMS), which delivers a single magnetic pulse over the brain cortex, coupled pulse magnetic transcranial stimulation (cTMS), which delivers two magnetic pulses separated by a variable time interval (depending on the interval's duration, an inhibition or facilitation effect is obtained), and repetitive magnetic transcranial stimulation (rTMS) -on which this review will be focused-, which exerts its effects through a regularly repeated magnetic pulse train^{4,5}.

Stimulation parameters are very diverse in previous bibliography, and before selecting one of them, the professional has to measure the patient's motor activation threshold to ensure performing TMS treatments below that threshold. Resting motor activation threshold (RMT) is defined as the minimum necessary intensity required in order to generate an evoked motor potential (EMP) in a target resting muscle; it is usually 50 μ V in 50% of trials⁶. The procedure starts delivering a reduced intensity, about 35%, in order to increase it gradually by 5% until it evokes an EMP. As of that moment, the stimulus intensity is reduced by 1% steps⁶. The importance of expressing stimulation intensity in clinical studies as RMT is essential due to the existence of interindividual variety of resting cortical excitability⁷.

The aim of TMS is to produce relatively small changes in the membrane potential that modulate intrinsic neuronal excitability without directly producing action potentials⁸, and these small changes should produce enduring and consistent changes in the neurons⁹. The effects will differ depending on the frequency delivered. rTMS could be high or low frequency. There is some consensus about which low frequency is inhibitory and which high frequency is excitatory. Generally, it has been established that frequencies ≤ 1 Hz are low, whereas > 1 Hz are rated as high. In animal research, the 0.3-1 Hz range is the most frequently used as low stimulation, and 5-20 Hz the most frequently used as high stimulation⁷.

The apparatus involves a complex electric system (Figure 1) that would be capable of making thousands of am-

peres flow in milliseconds towards a stimulation coil which, in turn, will generate a magnetic field (Figure 2). In particular, a central unit is needed to indicate the amount of current and to synchronize its delivering, capacitors that accumulate electric charge, wiring, and a stimulation coil that could vary. The geometry of the stimulation coil will determine the intensity, stimulus penetration, and stimulated area focality. In this way, the circular coils would stimulate broad brain cortex regions, while eight-shaped coils could be more focused. These differences are due to the coils' configuration -in the eight-shaped one, it is two joined circular coils- which allows each coil to transport the current in opposite directions, producing an electric field sum where they join¹⁰⁻¹². Therefore, stimulation focality depends on the coil diameter, and it is more focal when the diameter is lower⁶. The extension of cortical activation depends on multiple factors, like coil shape, pulse-generated wave (mono or biphasic), and, of course, the coil's position over the skull¹³.

Ultimately, the parameters used will determine the results obtained in TMS treatment. Therefore, it is essential to suit the frequency, intensity, pulse number, time interval between trials, and session number. Stimulation frequency oscillates between 1 and 60 Hz, but the most frequently used range from 1 to 10 Hz, depending on the pursued goal¹⁴. Pulse intensity is very variable, oscillating from 0.7 to 3.4 Teslas (T)⁴, with the most common ranging between 1 and 2 T⁶. Regarding TMS pulse number, these could vary from 15 to 2400¹⁴. Time interval between trials is also variable, the most frequently used intervals range between 10 and 30 s¹⁵. Finally, the number of required sessions, which depends on the medical condition and its severity in clinical

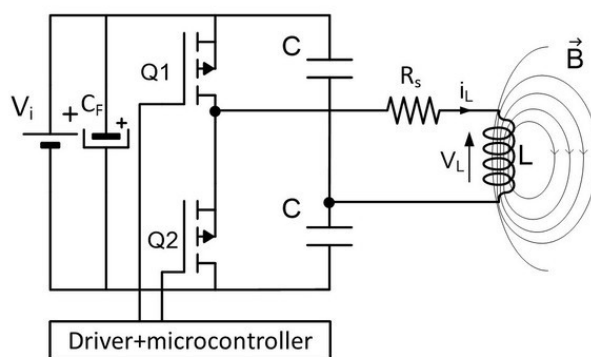


Figure 1

Schematic diagram of the electric system that feeds the coil in a magnetic stimulator. L is the emission point

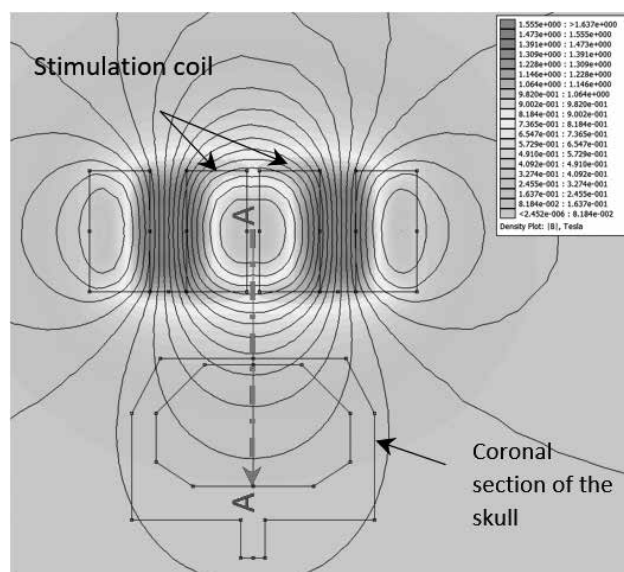


Figura 2

Theoretical distribution of induced magnetic fields by a stimulation coil. Line A-A indicates the penetration power that allows it to penetrate skull and encephalon.

practice, and on the experimental goals in cognitive neuroscience.

Magnetic fields' application, which is capable of inducing electric currents in nervous tissue and the subsequent selective changes in neurons' potential⁴, has allowed distinguishing the therapeutic rTMS potential in the psychiatric field¹⁶. Specifically, rTMS can increase or decrease cortical excitability, which could be useful in diseases in which there is hypo- or hyperfunctionality of some cortical network, or where cortical excitability induces neural network reorganization⁶. In this way, rTMS applied in a specific brain area can exert an effect in another brain region through neural connections. This effect is also found in other noninvasive therapies, like low-level light therapy, producing a beneficial effect in certain pathologies such as minimal hepatic encephalopathy¹⁷. Finally, we highlight that rTMS has a well-established security profile and is capable of modulating brain activity without surgery, anesthesia, or convulsive induction⁴.

Characterizing the brain networks and cell functioning that sustain cognitive and emotional functions, defining the nature and causes of pathologies, and identifying the most effective treatments is particularly relevant. In this review, we focus on rTMS effects in depression, anxiety, schizophrenia, addiction, and neurodevelopmental pathologies, and

also the possible intervention in patients who show brain damage or pathologies evolving with neurodegeneration. An optimal treatment can improve the quality of life in these patients, not only in clinical aspects but also in social and professional areas.

TMS PSYCHIATRIC USE

Depressive disorder

Major depressive disorder is found within the classification of mood disorder, a chronic and recurrent condition that produces clinical discomfort and deteriorates social and work performance or other relevant areas for the patient¹⁸. It is sometimes also resistant to conventional treatments.

The first research on rTMS and depressive disorder took place in the 1990 decade. Different research groups started to apply magnetic fields on patients' brain cortices, the most frequent delivery was to the left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (dlPFC) (5–20 Hz; 5–20 sessions)^{19–23} and also low frequencies to the right dlPFC (1 Hz; 10 sessions)²⁴. Although the stimulation parameters were variable (frequency, intensity, and days of treatment), the researchers started to observe clinical improvements in patients' mood, showing a decrease of symptoms evaluated with diverse scales such as the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS)^{19,24–26}. Some meta-analyses in the field concluded that rTMS is useful for the remission of depressive disorder^{27–29} but some studies showed the superiority of electro-convulsive therapy (ECT) when compared with TMS³⁰.

Regarding the benefit in diverse cognitive functions – which could be altered due to depressive disorder—clinical improvement has been found in working memory²⁰, episodic verbal memory, language, and visuospatial function²¹. Additionally, some interesting results reveal correlations between neuropsychological batteries and neurophysiological findings, suggesting a plastic remodeling of synaptic connections induced by rTMS treatment²².

Moreover, animal model research shows that rTMS can increase postsynaptic excitatory potentials after long-term potentiation induction, revealing an antidepressive effect after a short treatment period with high frequency³¹. In addition, this kind of intervention is related to the increase of hippocampal cell proliferation and neurotrophic factors, which suggests a relation with neuroplasticity³². Lastly, beneficial effects have been found in coping strategies, which become more active during the forced swimming test³³, which could be emulating part of the depressive symptoms found in human population.

Therefore, we can conclude that rTMS has become a promising alternative therapy for depressive disorder treatment. There is some consensus about the optimal administration method, with the delivery of high frequencies over the left dIPFC being the most frequently suggested^{27,34,35}. However, the neurobiological mechanisms of this rTMS anti-depressive effect are not yet well known.

Anxiety Disorders

Anxiety disorders are one of the most common psychiatric disorders. Although there are effective psychotherapeutic and psychopharmacological interventions, a considerable number of patients do not respond to standard clinical treatments³⁶. As rTMS can modulate cortical excitability focally and noninvasively, it could be considered as a possible therapeutic method for anxiety disorders. Due to the existence of a broad classification of anxiety disorders, some of the subtypes will be considered in this review.

Post-traumatic stress anxiety disorder (PTSD) is a chronic psychiatric disorder that can occur after a traumatic event. One third of the patients suffering PTSD are refractory to usual treatments³⁷. PTSD could lead, among other alterations, to hypoactivation of the prefrontal cortex (PFC)³⁸. rTMS could restore the PFC to normal activity. The first study that researched the effects of rTMS on PTSD was based on a low frequency application (0.3 Hz; 1 session) in both hemispheres of the motor cortex, and produced a decrease in the central symptoms of the disorder, such as avoidance, somatization, or anxiety³⁹. In addition, improvements in physiological hyperactivation have been recently described⁴⁰.

Generalized Anxiety Disorder is characterized by persistent and excessive worry as well as deficits in the regulation and identification of emotional experiences. rTMS preliminary studies (1 Hz; 30 sessions) applied to the right dIPFC suggest that it could improve some of the disorder's symptoms⁴¹, modifying the neural excitability in the application area⁴². Using the same protocol, improvements in emotion regulation, both post-treatment and at a 3-month follow-up, have also been found⁴³. Moreover, different stimulation parameters from those indicated above (20 Hz; 25 sessions) applied to the right dIPFC showed a decrease of anxiety symptoms assessed with the Hamilton Anxiety Scale (HARS) by at least 50% of the total score, with benefits remaining up to 4 weeks after treatment⁴⁴.

Panic disorder is characterized by the presence of unexpected and repeated periods of intense fear followed by physical symptoms, in addition to fear of having future episodes of panic. Preliminary studies show that rTMS application (1 Hz; 10 sessions) to the right dIPFC in panic disorder comorbid with major depression can result in clinical im-

provement⁴⁵, and benefits are also found when stimulation is applied both to the right and the left dIPFC⁴⁶. Therefore, it is suggested that rTMS could help to normalize altered brain activity in patients affected by this disorder⁴⁷.

Social anxiety disorder—also called social phobia—is characterized by a significant fear and avoidance of social situations¹⁸, and benefits can be found after the application of rTMS. Taking into account that some brain areas such as the medial PFC (mPFC) and the amygdala play an important role in the disorder⁴⁸, one session of 1 Hz frequency of rTMS to the right ventromedial PFC was reported to produce a decrease in anxiety levels as well as an improvement of social skills, with the benefits remaining up to two months after stimulation^{49,50}. In this case, different neuropsychological scales were used: the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), the Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI), and the Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale (LSAS). However, taking into account the rTMS findings in anxiety disorders, the hypothesis of low-frequency application to the right mPFC in combination with high frequency to the left mPFC⁵⁰ is suggested.

Finally, interventions in obsessive-compulsive disorders (OCD) may also show therapeutic benefits. OCD is characterized by the presence of obsessive thoughts and / or recurrent compulsive acts, and the participation of both cortical and subcortical structures is suggested. Specifically, hyperactivation within the cortico-striatal-thalamus-cortico circuits, including prefrontal and orbitofrontal cortices, motor area, striatum, globus pallidus, and thalamus could be responsible for the symptoms of OCD⁵¹. Due to the dysfunction of cortical regions, some researchers expected that the rTMS approach to the PFC could help to decrease the symptoms of OCD. Consequently, the first investigations in the field observed reductions in compulsive impulses⁵² and clinical improvements in patients with OCD and Tourette's syndrome⁴⁷. Recently, rTMS applied to the supplementary motor area (1 Hz; 30 sessions)⁵³ or to the dIPFC (1 Hz; 10 sessions), either in the right hemisphere⁵⁴ or in both hemispheres⁵⁵, showed a reduction in obsessive-compulsive scores. However, other studies did not find these benefits⁵⁶. Although these studies are promising, more research is needed focusing on the evaluation of the efficacy of rTMS in OCD as well as a clarification of the optimal stimulation parameters.

Schizophrenia

Schizophrenic disorders are one of the most invalidating and costly diseases in the world. In this classification, the DSM-V (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders) includes 13 types of psychotic disorders. One of the main problems in clinical practice is the resistance to treatment, occurring in 20-30% of patients who suffer a psychotic disorder⁵⁷. Although rTMS has been proposed as a

novel therapy in schizophrenia, the known complexity of this disorder does not allow us to confirm its effects on the disease as a whole, but to refer to its efficacy in some of the symptoms⁵⁸. Thus, the therapeutic effects in schizophrenia can target both positive and negative symptoms or the cognitive alterations^{7,59} that may be present in this pathology. In reference to positive symptoms, one of the most commonly studied are the verbal auditory hallucinations. Low-frequency rTMS applied to the left temporoparietal cortex (1 Hz; 4-10 sessions) could inhibit the aberrant activation that causes certain types of hallucinations⁶⁰⁻⁶³, although other researchers have found no difference between stimulation of the right temporoparietal cortex compared to the left⁶⁴. We think that rTMS could revert the hyperfunctionality of the language areas involved in hallucinations because the cerebral blood flow in the primary auditory cortex, the Broca area, and cingulate gyrus decreases, correlating with the reduction of verbal auditory hallucinations⁶⁵. There are promising results in the research of the treatment of negative symptoms²⁸. rTMS applied to the left dlPFC (10 Hz; 15-20 sessions) reduces the severity of the negative symptoms as assessed with the Scale for the Evaluation of Negative Symptoms (SANS)^{66,67} and with the score of negative symptoms of the Scale of Positive and Negative Syndrome (PANSS)⁶⁷, as well showing benefits in facial affect recognition⁶⁸. Finally, and referring to altered cognition, several researches describe the improvements in working memory after a bilateral application to the dlPFC (20 Hz; 20 sessions)⁶⁹, although other studies do not find this cognitive benefit⁷⁰.

Therefore, rTMS applied in schizophrenia disorders is a promising technique that could lead to improvements both in the positive, negative, and cognitive symptoms affected, with some consistency in the action protocol when referring to the negative symptoms²⁸.

Neurodevelopmental disorders

Neurodevelopmental disorders are characterized by the presence of several deficits in different cognitive and non-cognitive abilities, with the first symptoms appearing during childhood¹⁸. rTMS can be useful in Tourette's syndrome and Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD)³, both alterations classified under neurodevelopmental disorders.

rTMS (1 Hz; 20 sessions) applied to the supplementary motor area in Tourette's syndrome produces a reduction in the severity of the tics for at least 6 months⁷¹, finding similar results with a lower number of sessions (1 Hz; 10 sessions)⁷².

In reference to ASD, it affects approximately 1% of the population⁷³. However, there is no clear opinion about its etiology, although it is generally accepted that the symp-

toms arise as a result of abnormal neuronal development⁷⁴. rTMS could induce a modulation of the cortical excitability in specific neuronal circuits⁷⁵. In addition, the bilateral application to the dlPFC can lead to an improvement in tasks depending on executive functions (altered in ASD) such as working memory or cognitive flexibility⁷⁶.

Until now, the projects that have studied rTMS as a therapeutic tool in ASD have focused on samples without intellectual disability⁷⁷, finding benefits in relationships and anxiety after a bilateral application to the dorsomedial PFC (dmPFC) (5 Hz; 10 sessions)⁷⁸. Regarding the population with intellectual disability, rTMS has been applied to the left premotor cortex, finding an improvement in eye-hand coordination (previously altered) after an application of 3-10 sessions with 8 Hz frequency⁷⁹.

Finally, low-frequency stimulation (0.5 Hz; 6 sessions) to the dlPFC shows a normalization in evoked potentials and electroencephalographic activity of gamma frequency induced in frontal and parietal areas, as well as a reduction of repetitive behavior^{80,81}. Bilateral rTMS to the dlPFC with different parameters (1 Hz; 12 sessions) shows similar results⁸².

The results presented above allow us to confirm the promising use of rTMS as a possible intervention in some symptoms underlying neurodevelopmental disorders, taking into account the neuroplasticity that characterizes the pediatric population, and, consequently, the opportunity this population provides for the modulation of the neuropathology^{3,5}. Applications of rTMS in ASD would not be restricted to therapeutic perspectives, but could also help in the diagnosis and knowledge of the physiological mechanisms, based on the study of cortical excitability and inhibition⁷⁵. However, as most rTMS studies have been performed in adulthood, it is important to underline the differences that could appear in adolescent and child interventions. Therefore, it is essential to assess the nervous system's maturational status in terms of intracortical synapses and myelination.

Addictive disorders

Substance abuse disorders are characterized by a hypo-activation of the PFC⁸³. Nowadays, pharmacological and cognitive-behavioral therapies have limited efficacy on relapse in substance abuse disorders⁵⁹. It is known that the dlPFC plays an important role in the inhibition of reward circuits; thus, the application of focalized rTMS could show promising results in this field. In this respect, there are some studies that reveal the efficacy of rTMS in the reduction of nicotine consumption and craving after delivery to the PFC and the insula on a bilateral basis (10 Hz, 13 sessions)⁸⁴, and also for cocaine consumption by targeting the left dlPFC (10 Hz, 8 sessions)⁸⁵ or for alcohol consumption, to the right dlP-

FC (10 Hz, 10 sessions)⁸⁶. However, there are not many studies in the field, so the need for deeper research is suggested in order to correctly confirm the use of rTMS as a potential treatment for substance abuse disorders. A good understanding of rTMS effects in addictions could be extrapolated not only to substance abuse disorders, but also to other addictive disorders not dependent on substances.

Brain damage

Cognitive abilities like perception, memory, or attention can be modulated by rTMS, which could result in a promising alternative in neurophysiological research and also in intervention therapy after brain damage. rTMS can induce magnetic currents that depolarize neurons in particular brain regions, which could be useful in the manipulation of cortical networks that alter cognitive performance⁸⁷. The first studies in this field emerged back in the 1990s and they showed an improvement in memory and reaction speed⁸⁸ as well as in attentional processing⁸⁹. Likewise, the beneficial effect of rTMS has been observed in working memory, contributing to item codification tasks^{20,90}.

Brain damage derived from cerebrovascular accidents or head traumas causes multiple consequences, including cognitive function impairment. Some research using animal models has shown that rTMS can increase neurogenesis in the hippocampus⁹¹, raising the possibility that this increase could affect BDNF (brain-derived neurotrophic factor) signaling^{92,93}, resulting in a neurorehabilitation effect after a cerebrovascular accident (CVA)⁹³. The first studies that applied rTMS to CVA were carried out in 2005, by targeting the motor cortex (M1) of the healthy hemisphere (1 Hz; 1 session). An improvement of reaction speed in the paralyzed hand was observed⁹⁴, also when the protocol lasted for 5 sessions⁹⁵. Regarding cognitive function, even though in 2005 a pilot study informed about the positive effects on the executive functioning after a 10-Hz rTMS session to the left dIPFC in patients with cerebrovascular disease, these improvements were only evaluated by the Stoop test⁹⁶. Hence, apart from research using animal models, to our knowledge, there are few studies about the effects of rTMS on cognition in patients with brain damage.

Neurodegenerative disorders

In this last section, we will provide a general vision of the importance of rTMS delivery in multiple neurodegenerative disorders, highlighting Alzheimer's disease (AD) and Parkinson's disease (PD).

AD is characterized by memory loss, language impairment, difficulty in performing simple tasks, and disorienta-

tion. Therefore, it severely impacts on the quality of life of the people affected. High frequency rTMS (20 Hz) applied bilaterally to the dIPFC improves language abilities, as evaluated through naming and phrase understanding tasks⁹⁷⁻⁹⁹. Furthermore, when combined with cognitive training, rTMS (10 Hz; 54 sessions) delivered bilaterally to the dIPFC and to the somatosensorial association parietal cortex is capable of improving the score in the cognitive assessment scale of AD (ADAS-Cog)¹⁰⁰. These findings suggest that rTMS can affect the brain's intrinsic capacity for restoring or compensating the damaged function, representing a new and useful tool for cognitive rehabilitation^{97,101}.

Although there is some information about the action mechanism of rTMS in animal models of AD, as a greater expression of synaptic proteins has been found in the hippocampus associated with an improvement in learning and memory functions¹⁰², there are some questions that remain unsolved. Thus, some authors raise the possibility that the mentioned therapy improves cognitive functions associated with dementia, acting directly on the targeted brain area and its circuits¹⁰³. Hence, it seems that rTMS could play a role in the increase of cortical excitability in AD¹³.

PD includes an alteration of cortical inhibition¹³ as a consequence of the death of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra. Although pharmacological therapy has a good prognosis, long-term efficacy is usually reduced. rTMS together with training improves motor function in patients with PD¹⁰⁴. Additionally, an increase of dopaminergic levels was noted after the magnetic stimulation treatment^{105,106}, suggesting a neuroprotective effect of the therapy¹⁰⁶. There is abundant bibliography about the effect of rTMS on motor function¹⁰, but this is not the case for cognitive function. To our knowledge, only one study has indicated that rTMS to the left dIPFC (10 Hz; 10 sessions) can produce cognitive amelioration in humans¹⁰⁷, which leads us to request, once again, further research in this field.

CONTROVERSY OVER THE USAGE OF RTMS

As mentioned, TMS is a promising treatment for multiple psychiatric disorders. The main difficulty is to define optimal treatments (identifying the parameters, the place of delivery, and the necessary doses⁵⁸), as the situation differs in diverse pathologies. Although TMS has been tested recently in a great variety of mental disorders, some of them have been extensively described, whereas others are still at preliminary phases and show large heterogeneity. Furthermore, there is consensus concerning delivery only in some of these disorders. For example, in the treatment of major depression or in the negative symptoms of schizophrenia³⁴, high frequencies to the dIPFC are considered optimal. How-

ever, other psychiatric disorders have no established action protocol.

The modification of TMS parameters can lead to a great variability of responses. The use of low frequencies (≤ 1 Hz) and a continuous rate (at least 300–900 pulses) are associated with sustained inhibition and excitability suppression, whereas high frequencies (> 1 Hz) and discontinuous rates cause the opposite effect, an increase of excitability³⁷. Therefore, the choice of TMS parameters defines an activating or inhibiting response. In addition, TMS presents an accumulative effect¹⁰⁸ thus, the number of doses and the time of delivery will have a decisive impact on the stimulation. Although the long-term effect of TMS⁵⁸ is not known with certainty, it has been shown that it declines over time and that the repetition of stimulation sessions in intervals of under 24 hours can induce long-term changes in cortical activity¹⁰⁹.

The ongoing maintenance of the TMS delivery characteristics, even if they had been successful in the treatment of a particular pathology, is not a guarantee of success. The lack of replicability in the usual research is attributed to interindividual differences, the most significant of which are age, gender, genetics, skull-cortex distance, white matter connectivity, individual levels of excitability, and neurophysiological characteristics^{7,93}. The effect of the usual medication for the pathology on the TMS treatment also has to be taken into account, as has already been shown¹⁰².

The response is also determined by the excitation levels prior to stimulation⁹³. It has been described that the delivery of excitatory frequencies first affects the systems that are on a lower level of excitation, whereas the inhibitory frequencies exert their effects initially on the systems that present a higher excitatory level¹⁰³. Hence, the excitability status determined by the execution of the task before or during the stimulation will regulate the magnitude and direction of the modulator effects⁹³.

In spite of being a widely used technique, TMS raises some questions about its action mechanism. The effect at the cellular level in the nervous system is not known. Neurons use electric signals to communicate; thus, the interference of the stimulation over the target area can produce consequences that are not always controllable¹¹⁰. It has been shown that TMS can positively induce neurogenesis¹¹¹. This type of stimulation can affect the neurons through the activation of the dendrites, but multiple physiological factors, such as the distribution of cells in the cerebral cortex, their communication, and excitability, influence the stimulation process¹¹⁰. Likewise, despite that some studies have focused on the effect of TMS on glial cells, its mechanisms have not been elucidated¹⁴.

Undoubtedly, this technique requires more research in order to describe the action mechanisms of TMS from the molecular perspective to neural networks, thereby leading to the design of specific action protocols for each disorder, maximizing the therapeutic potential and minimizing the possible side effects.

FUNDING

MINECO PSI2017-83893-R.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

Authors declare the absence of conflicts of interest

REFERENCES

1. Barker A, Jalinous R, Freeston I. Non-invasive magnetic stimulation of human motor cortex. *Lancet*. 1985;1106–7.
2. Fatemi-Ardekani A. Transcranial magnetic stimulation: physics, electrophysiology, and applications. *Crit Rev Biomed Eng*. 2008;36:375–412.
3. Hameed MQ, Dhamne SC, Gersner R, Kaye HL, Oberman LM, Pascual-Leone A, et al. Transcranial magnetic and direct current stimulation in children. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep*. 2017 Feb;17(2):11.
4. Rossi S, Hallett M, Rossini PM, Pascual-Leone A. Safety, ethical considerations, and application guidelines for the use of transcranial magnetic stimulation in clinical practice and research. *Clin Neurophysiol*. 2009;120(12):2008–39.
5. Rubio-Morell B, Rotenberg A, Hernández-Expósito S, Pascual-Leone A. Uso de la estimulación cerebral no invasiva en los trastornos psiquiátricos de la infancia: Nuevas oportunidades y retos diagnósticos y terapéuticos. *Rev Neurol*. 2011;53:209–25.
6. Rossini PM, Burke D, Chen R, Cohen LG, Daskalakis Z, Di Iorio R, et al. Clinical neurophysiology non-invasive electrical and magnetic stimulation of the brain, spinal cord, roots and peripheral nerves: Basic principles and procedures for routine clinical and research application. An updated report from an I.F.C.N Committee. *Clin Neurophysiol*. 2015;126(6):1071–107.
7. Tuñez Fiñana I, Pascual-Leone A. Estimulación magnética transcraneal y neuromodulación: Presente y futuro en neurociencias. 2014.
8. Karabanov A, Thielscher A, Siebner HR. Transcranial brain stimulation: closing the loop between brain and stimulation. *Curr Opin Neurol*. 2016;29(4):397–404.
9. Ma J, Zhang Z, Kang L, Geng D, Wang Y, Wang M, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) in fluences spatial cognition and modulates hippocampal structural synaptic plasticity in aging mice. *Exp Gerontol*. 2014;58:256–68.
10. Pascual-Leone A, Tormos-Muñoz JM. Estimulación magnética transcraneal: Fundamentos y potencial de la modulación de redes neurales específicas. *Rev Neurol*. 2008;46(Supl 1):S3–S10.
11. Grehl S, Viola HM, Fuller-Carter PI, Carter KW, Dunlop SA, Hool LC, et al. Cellular and molecular changes to cortical neurons following low intensity repetitive magnetic stimulation at different frequencies. *Brain Stimul*. 2015;8(1):114–23.
12. Valero-Cabré A, Amengual J, Stengel C, Pascual-Leone A, Coubard OA. Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation in basic and clinical neuroscience: a comprehensive review of fundamental

- principles and novel insights. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 2017; 83:341–404.
13. Vucic S, Kiernan MC. Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation for the Assessment of Neurodegenerative Disease. *Neurotherapeutics.* 2016;14:91–106.
 14. Cullen CL, Young KM. How does transcranial magnetic stimulation influence glial cells in the central nervous system? *Front Neural Circuits.* 2016;10:26.
 15. Lenz M, Galanis C, Mu F, Opitz A, Wierenga CJ. Repetitive magnetic stimulation induces plasticity of inhibitory synapses. *Nat Commun.* 2016;7.
 16. Bartrés-Faz D, Tormos JM, Junqué C, Pascual-Leone A. Transcranial magnetic stimulation: Contributions to Psychiatry and to the study of brain-behavior relationship. *Actas Esp Psiquiatr.* 2000;28(2):130–6.
 17. Arias N, Méndez M, Arias JL. Low-light-level therapy as a treatment for minimal hepatic encephalopathy: behavioural and brain assessment. *Lasers Med Sci.* 2016;31(8):1717–26.
 18. American Psychiatric Association. DSM-5. Manual Diagnóstico y Estadístico de los Trastornos Mentales. Editorial Médica Panamericana; 2014. p. 186–7.
 19. George MS, Nahas Z, Molloy M, Speer AM, Oliver NC, Li XB, et al. A controlled trial of daily left prefrontal cortex TMS for treating depression. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2000;48(10):962–70.
 20. Bagherzadeh Y, Khorrami A, Zarrindast MR, Shariat SV, Pantazis D. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex enhances working memory. *Exp Brain Res.* 2016;234(7):1807–18.
 21. Nadeau SE, Bowers D, Jones TL, Wu SS, Triggs WJ, Heilman KM. Cognitive effects of treatment of depression with repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation. *Cogn Behav Neurol.* 2014; 27(2):77–87.
 22. Spampinato C, Aguglia E, Concerto C, Pennisi M, Lanza G, Bella R, et al. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in the assessment of motor cortex excitability and treatment of drug-resistant major depression. *IEEE Trans Neural Syst Rehabil Eng.* 2013; 21(3):391–403.
 23. Pascual-Leone A, Rubio B, Pallardó F, Catalá MD. Rapid-rate transcranial magnetic stimulation of left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in drug-resistant depression. *Lancet.* 1996;348:233–7.
 24. Klein E, Kreinin I, Chistyakov a, Koren D, Mecz L, Marmur S, et al. Therapeutic efficacy of right prefrontal slow repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in major depression: a double-blind controlled study. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 1999; 56(4):315–20.
 25. Kolbinger HM, Höflich G, Hufnagel A, Müller H-J, Kasper S. Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) in the treatment of major depression: A pilot study. *Hum Psychopharmacol Clin Exp.* 1995;10(4):305–10.
 26. George MS, Wassermann EM, Williams WA, Callahan A, Ketter TA, Basser P, et al. Daily repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) improves mood in depression. *Neuroreport.* 1995;6(14):1853–6.
 27. Berlim MT, Van Den Eynde F, Tovar-Perdomo S, Daskalakis ZJ. Response, remission and drop-out rates following high-frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) for treating major depression: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized, double-blind and sham-controlled trials. *Psychol Med.* 2014;44(2):225–39.
 28. Lefaucheur JP, Andre-Obadia N, Antal A, Ayache SS, Baeken C, Benninger DH, et al. Evidence-based guidelines on the therapeutic use of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS). *Clin Neurophysiol.* 2014;125(11):2150–206.
 29. Lam RW, Chan P, Wilkins-Ho M. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for treatment-resistant depression: a systematic review and metaanalysis. *Can J Psychiatry.* 2008; 53(9):621–31.
 30. Health Quality Ontario HQ. Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation for Treatment-Resistant Depression: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Ont Health Technol Assess Ser.* 2016;16(5):1–66.
 31. Kim EJ, Kim WR, Chi SE, Lee KH, Park EH, Chae JH, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation protects hippocampal plasticity in an animal model of depression. *Neurosci Lett.* 2006;405(1–2):79–83.
 32. Feng SF, Shi TY, Fan-Yang, Wang WN, Chen YC, Tan QR. Long-lasting effects of chronic rTMS to treat chronic rodent model of depression. *Behav Brain Res.* 2012;232(1):245–51.
 33. Hesselberg ML, Wegener G, Buchholtz PE. Antidepressant efficacy of high and low frequency transcranial magnetic stimulation in the FSL/FRL genetic rat model of depression. *Behav Brain Res.* 2016;314:45–51.
 34. Perera T, George MS, Grammer G, Janicak PG, Pascual-Leone A, Wirecki TS. The Clinical TMS Society Consensus Review and Treatment Recommendations for TMS Therapy for Major Depressive Disorder. *Brain Stimul.* 2016;9(3):336–46.
 35. Aliño JJ, Jiménez JL, Flores SC, Alcocer MI. Efficacy of transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) in depression: naturalistic study. *Actas Esp Psiquiatr.* 2010;38(2):87–93.
 36. Machado S, Paes F, Velasques B, Teixeira S, Piedade R, Ribeiro P, et al. Is rTMS an effective therapeutic strategy that can be used to treat anxiety disorders? *Neuropharmacology.* 2012; 62(1):125–34.
 37. Yan T, Xie Q, Zheng Z, Zou K, Wang L. Different frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) for posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD): A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Psychiatr Res.* 2017;89:125–35.
 38. Shin L, Handwerker K. Is posttraumatic stress disorder a stress induced fear circuitry disorder? *J Trauma Stress.* 2009; 22(5):409–15.
 39. Grisar N, Amir M, Cohen H, Kaplan Z. Effect of transcranial magnetic stimulation in posttraumatic stress disorder: a preliminary study. *Biol Psychiatry.* 1998;44(1):52–5.
 40. Oznur T, Akarsu S, Celik C, Bolu A, Ozdemir B, Akcay BD, et al. Is transcranial magnetic stimulation effective in treatment-resistant combat related posttraumatic stress disorder? *Neurosciences (Riyadh).* 2014;19(1):29–32.
 41. Diefenbach GJ, Bragdon LB, Zertuche L, Hyatt CJ, Hallion LS, Tolin DF, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for generalised anxiety disorder: a pilot randomised, double-blind, sham-controlled trial. *Br J Psychiatry.* 2016;209(3):222–8.
 42. Shang Y, Wang X, Shang X, Zhang H, Liu Z, Yin T, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation effectively facilitates spatial cognition and synaptic plasticity associated with increasing the levels of BDNF and synaptic proteins in Wistar rats. *Neurobiol Learn Mem.* 2016;134:369–78.
 43. Diefenbach GJ, Assaf M, Goethe JW, Gueorguieva R, Tolin DF. Improvements in emotion regulation following repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for generalized anxiety disorder. *J Anxiety Disord.* 2016;43:1–7.
 44. Dilkov D, Hawken ER, Kaludiev E, Milev R. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of the right dorsal lateral prefrontal cortex in the treatment of generalized anxiety disorder: A randomized, double-blind sham controlled clinical trial. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry.* 2017;78:61–5.
 45. Mantovani A, Lisanby SH, Pieraccini F, Ulivelli M, Castrogiovanni P, Rossi S. Repetitive transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (rTMS)

- in the treatment of Panic Disorder (PD) with comorbid major depression. *J Affect Disord.* 2007;102(1-3):277-80.
46. Machado S, Santos V, Paes F, Arias-Carrion O, Carta MG, Silva AC, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) to treat refractory panic disorder patient: a case report. *CNS Neurol Disord Drug Targets.* 2014;13(6):1075-8.
 47. Mantovani A, Lisanby SH, Pieraccini F, Ulivelli M, Castrogiovanni P, Rossi S. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) in the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) and Tourette's syndrome (TS). *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol.* 2006;9(1):95-100.
 48. Mathew SJ, Coplan JD, Gorman JM. Neurobiological mechanisms of social anxiety disorder. *Am J Psychiatry.* 2001; 158(10):1558-67.
 49. Paes F, Machado S, Arias-Carrion O, Silva AC, Nardi AE. rTMS to treat social anxiety disorder: A case report. *Rev Bras Psiquiatr.* 2013;35(1):99-100.
 50. Paes F, Baczynski T, Novaes F, Marinho T, Arias-Carrion O, Budde H, et al. Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (rTMS) to Treat Social Anxiety Disorder: Case Reports and a Review of the Literature. *Clin Pract Epidemiol Ment Health.* 2013;9:180-8.
 51. Rotge J-Y, Guehl D, Dilharreguy B, Cuny E, Tignol J, Bioulac B, et al. Provocation of obsessive-compulsive symptoms: a quantitative voxel-based meta-analysis of functional neuroimaging studies. *J psychiatry Neurosci.* 2008;33(5):405-12.
 52. Greenberg BD, George MS, Martin JD, Benjamin J, Schlaepfer TE, Altemus M, et al. Effect of prefrontal repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in obsessive-compulsive disorder: a preliminary study. *Am J Psychiatry.* 1997;154(6):867-9.
 53. Hawken ER, Dilkov D, Kaludiev E, Simek S, Zhang F, Milev R. Transcranial magnetic stimulation of the supplementary motor area in the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder: A multi-site study. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2016;17(3):420.
 54. Elbeh KAM, Elserogy YMB, Khalifa HE, Ahmed MA, Hafez MH, Khedr EM. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorders: Double blind randomized clinical trial. *Psychiatry Res.* 2016;238:264-9.
 55. Ma XY, Huang YQ, Liao LW, Jin Y. A randomized double-blinded sham-controlled trial of α electroencephalogram-guided transcranial magnetic stimulation for obsessive-compulsive disorder. *Chin Med J (Engl).* 2014;127(4):601-6.
 56. Alonso P, Pujol J, Cardoner N, Benloch L, Deus J, Menchón JM, et al. Right prefrontal repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in obsessive-compulsive disorder: a double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Am J Psychiatry.* 2001;158(7):1143-5.
 57. Dold M, Leucht S. Pharmacotherapy of treatment-resistant schizophrenia: a clinical perspective. *Evid Based Ment Health.* 2014;17(2):33-7.
 58. George MS, Padberg F, Schlaepfer TE, O'Reardon JP, Fitzgerald PB, Nahas ZH, et al. Controversy: Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation or transcranial direct current stimulation shows efficacy in treating psychiatric diseases (depression, mania, schizophrenia, obsessive-compulsive disorder, panic, posttraumatic stress disorder). *Brain Stimul.* 2009;2(1):14-21.
 59. Guo Q, Li C, Wang J. Updated review on the clinical use of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in psychiatric disorders. *Neurosci Bull.* 2017;33(6):747-56.
 60. Aleman A, Sommer IEC, Kahn RS. Efficacy of slow repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in the treatment of resistant auditory hallucinations in schizophrenia: a meta-analysis. *J Clin Psychiatry.* 2007;68(3):416-21.
 61. Tranulis C, Sepehry AA, Galinowski A, All E. Should we treat auditory hallucinations with repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation? A metaanalysis. *Can J Psychiatry.* 2008;53(9):577-86.
 62. Bagati D, Nizamie SH, Prakash R. Effect of augmentatory repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation on auditory hallucinations in schizophrenia: Randomized controlled study. *Aust N Z J Psychiatry.* 2009;43(4):386-92.
 63. Vercammen A, Knegtering H, Bruggeman R, Westenbroek H, Jenner J, Slooff C, et al. Effects of bilateral repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation on treatment resistant auditory-verbal hallucinations in schizophrenia: A randomized controlled trial. *Schizophr Res.* 2009;114(1-3):172-9.
 64. Loo CK, Sainsbury K, Mitchell PB, Hadzi-Pavlovic D, Sachdev PS. A sham-controlled trial of left and right temporal rTMS for the treatment of auditory hallucinations. *Psychol Med.* 2010;40(4):541-6.
 65. Kindler J, Homan P, Jann K, Federspiel A, Flury R, Hauf M, et al. Reduced neuronal activity in language-related regions after transcranial magnetic stimulation therapy for auditory verbal hallucinations. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2013;73(6):518-24.
 66. Dlabac-de Lange JJ, Bais L, van Es FD, Visser BGG, Reinink E, Bakker B, et al. Efficacy of bilateral repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for negative symptoms of schizophrenia: results of a multicenter double-blind randomized controlled trial. *Psychol Med.* 2015;45(6):1263-75.
 67. Quan WX, Zhu XL, Qiao H, Zhang WF, Tan SP, Zhou DF, et al. The effects of high-frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) on negative symptoms of schizophrenia and the follow-up study. *Neurosci Lett.* 2015;584:197-201.
 68. Wölwer W, Lowe A, Brinkmeyer J, Streit M, Habakuck M, Agelink MW, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) improves facial affect recognition in schizophrenia. *Brain Stimul.* 2014;7(4):559-63.
 69. Barr MS, Farzan F, Rajji TK, Voineskos AN, Blumberger DM, Arenovich T, et al. Can repetitive magnetic stimulation improve cognition in schizophrenia? Pilot data from a randomized controlled trial. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2013;73(6):510-7.
 70. Hasan A, Guse B, Cordes J, Wölwer W, Winterer G, Gaebel W, et al. Cognitive effects of high-frequency rTMS in schizophrenia patients with predominant negative symptoms: Results from a multicenter randomized sham-controlled trial. *Schizophr Bull.* 2016;42(3):608-18.
 71. Le K, Liu L, Sun M, Hu L, Xiao N. Transcranial magnetic stimulation at 1 Hertz improves clinical symptoms in children with Tourette syndrome for at least 6 months. *J Clin Neurosci.* 2013;20(2):257-62.
 72. Kwon HJ, Lim WS, Lim MH, Lee SJ, Hyun JK, Chae JH, et al. 1-Hz low frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in children with Tourette's syndrome. *Neurosci Lett.* 2011;492(1):1-4.
 73. Lazoff T, Zhong L, Piperni T, Fombonne E. Prevalence of pervasive developmental disorders among children at the English Montreal school board. *Can J Psychiatry.* 2010;55(11):715-20.
 74. Oberman LM, Rotenberg A, Pascual-Leone A. Use of Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation in Autism Spectrum Disorders. *J Autism Dev Disord.* 2013;45(2):524-36.
 75. Oberman LM, Enticott PG, Casanova MF, Rotenberg A, Pascual-Leone A, McCracken JT. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in autism spectrum disorder: Challenges, promise, and roadmap for future research. *Autism Res.* 2015;1-20.
 76. Ameis SH, Daskalakis ZJ, Blumberger DM, Desarkar P, Drmic I, Mabbott DJ, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for the treatment of executive function deficits in autism spectrum disorder: clinical trial approach. *J Child Adolesc*

- Psychopharmacol. 2017;27(5):413–21.
77. Sokhadze EM, El-Baz AS, Tasman A, Sears LL, Wang Y, Lamina E V, et al. Neuromodulation Integrating rTMS and Neurofeedback for the Treatment of Autism Spectrum Disorder: An Exploratory Study. *Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback*. 2014;39(3–4):237–57.
 78. Enticott PG, Fitzgibbon BM, Kennedy HA, Arnold SL, Elliot D, Peachey A, et al. A double-blind, randomized trial of deep Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (rTMS) for autism spectrum disorder. *Brain Stimul*. 2014;7(2):206–11.
 79. Panerai S, Tasca D, Lanuzza B, Trubia G, Ferri R, Musso S, et al. Effects of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in performing eye–hand integration tasks: Four preliminary studies with children showing low-functioning autism. *Autism*. 2014;18(6):638–50.
 80. Sokhadze E, Baruth J, Tasman A, Mansoor M, Ramaswamy R, Sears L, et al. Low-frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) affects event-related potential measures of novelty processing in autism. *Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback*. 2010;35(2):147–61.
 81. Sokhadze EM, El-Baz A, Baruth J, Mathai G, Sears L, Casanova MF. Effects of low frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) on gamma frequency oscillations and event-related potentials during processing of illusory figures in Autism. *J Autism Dev Disord*. 2009;39(4):619–34.
 82. Sokhadze EM, Baruth JM, Sears L, Sokhadze GE, El-Baz AS, Casanova MF. Prefrontal neuromodulation using rTMS improves error monitoring and correction function in autism. *Appl Psychophysiol Biofeedback*. 2012;37(2):91–102.
 83. Fecteau S, Fregni F, Boggio PS, Camprodon JA, Pascual-Leone A. Neuromodulation of decision-making in the addictive brain. *Subst Use Misuse*. 2010;45(11):1766–86.
 84. Dinur-Klein L, Dannon P, Hadar A, Rosenberg O, Roth Y, Kotler M, et al. Smoking cessation induced by deep repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of the prefrontal and insular cortices: A prospective, randomized controlled trial. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2014;76(9):742–9.
 85. Terraneo A, Leggio L, Saladini M, Ermani M, Bonci A, Gallimberti L. Transcranial magnetic stimulation of dorsolateral prefrontal cortex reduces cocaine use: A pilot study. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol*. 2016;26(1):37–44.
 86. Mishra BR, Nizamie SH, Das B, Praharaj SK. Efficacy of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in alcohol dependence: A sham-controlled study. *Addiction*. 2010;105(1):49–55.
 87. Luber B, Lisanby SH. Enhancement of human cognitive performance using transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS). *Neuroimage*. 2013;85:961–70.
 88. Pascual-Leone A, Houser CM, Reese K, Shotland LI, Grafman J, Sato S, et al. Safety of rapid-rate transcranial magnetic stimulation in normal volunteers. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol Evoked Potentials*. 1993;89(2):120–30.
 89. Walsh V, Ellison A, Battelli L, Cowey A. Task-specific impairments and enhancements induced by magnetic stimulation of human visual area V5. *Proc Biol Sci*. 1998;265(1395):537–43.
 90. Hamidi M, Tononi G, Postle BR. Evaluating the role of prefrontal and parietal cortices in memory-guided response with repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation. *Neuropsychologia*. 2009;47(2):295–302.
 91. Guo F, Han X, Zhang J, Zhao X, Lou J, Chen H, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation promotes neural stem cell proliferation via the regulation of mir-25 in a rat model of focal cerebral ischemia. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(10).
 92. Ma J, Zhang Z, Su Y, Kang L, Geng D, Wang Y, et al. Magnetic stimulation modulates structural synaptic plasticity and regulates BDNF–TrkB signal pathway in cultured hippocampal neurons. *Neurochem Int*. 2013;62(1):84–91.
 93. Guo F, Lou J, Han X, Deng Y, Huang X. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation ameliorates cognitive impairment by enhancing neurogenesis and suppressing apoptosis in the hippocampus in rats with ischemic stroke. *Front Physiol*. 2017;8.
 94. Mansur CG, Fregni F, Boggio PS, Riberto M, Gallucci-Neto J, Santos CM, et al. A sham stimulation- controlled trial of rTMS of the unaffected hemisphere in stroke patients. *Neurology*. 2005;64:1802–4.
 95. Fregni F, Boggio PS, Valle AC, Rocha RR, Duarte J, Ferreira MJ, et al. A sham-controlled trial of a 5-day course of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of the unaffected hemisphere in stroke patients. *Stroke*. 2006;37(8):2115–22.
 96. Rektorova I, Megova S, Bares M, Rektor I. Cognitive functioning after repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in patients with cerebrovascular disease without dementia: a pilot study of seven patients. *J Neurol Sci*. 2005;229–230:157–61.
 97. Cotelli M, Calabria M, Manenti R, Rosini S, Zanetti O, Cappa SF, et al. Improved language performance in Alzheimer disease following brain stimulation. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2011;82(7):794–7.
 98. Cotelli M, Manenti R, Cappa SF, Zanetti O, Miniussi C. Transcranial magnetic stimulation improves naming in Alzheimer disease patients at different stages of cognitive decline. *Eur J Neurol*. 2008;15(12):1286–92.
 99. Cotelli M, Manenti R, Cappa SF, Geroldi C, Zanetti O, Rossini PM, et al. Effect of transcranial magnetic stimulation on action naming in patients with Alzheimer disease. *Arch Neurol*. 2006; 63(11):1602–4.
 100. Bentwich J, Dobronevsky E, Aichenbaum S, Shorer R, Peretz R, Khaigrekht M, et al. Beneficial effect of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation combined with cognitive training for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease: a proof of concept study. *J Neural Transm*. 2011;118(3):463–71.
 101. Hodges JR. Alzheimer's disease and the frontotemporal dementias: Contributions to clinico-pathological studies, diagnosis, and cognitive neuroscience. *Adv Alzheimer's Dis*. 2012;3:211–7.
 102. Ma J, Wang J, Lv C, Pang J, Han B, Wang M, et al. The Role of Hippocampal Structural Synaptic Plasticity in Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation to Improve Cognitive Function in Male SAMP8 Mice. *Cell Physiol Biochem*. 2017; 41(1):137–44.
 103. Liao X, Li G, Wang A, Liu T, Feng S, Guo Z, et al. Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation as an Alternative Therapy for Cognitive Impairment in Alzheimer's Disease: A Meta-Analysis. *J Alzheimer's Dis*. 2015;48(2):463–72.
 104. Wagle Shukla A, Shuster JJ, Chung JW, Vaillancourt DE, Patten C, Ostrem J, et al. Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (rTMS) Therapy in Parkinson Disease: A Meta-Analysis. *PM R*. 2016;8(4):356–66.
 105. Cho SS, Strafella AP. rTMS of the left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex modulates dopamine release in the ipsilateral anterior cingulate cortex and orbitofrontal cortex. *PLoS One*. 2009;4(8).
 106. Lee JY, Kim SH, Ko A-R, Lee JS, Yu JH, Seo JH, et al. Therapeutic effects of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in an animal model of Parkinson's disease. *Brain Res*. 2013;1537:290–302.
 107. Boggio PS, Fregni F, Bermpohl F, Mansur CG, Rosa M, Rumi DO, et al. Effect of repetitive TMS and fluoxetine on cognitive function in patients with Parkinson's disease and concurrent depression. *Mov Disord*. 2005;20(9):1178–84.
 108. May A, Hajak G, Gänßbauer S, Steffens T, Langguth B,

- Kleinjung T, et al. Structural brain alterations following 5 days of intervention: Dynamic aspects of neuroplasticity. *Cereb Cortex*. 2007;17(1):205–10.
109. Bäumer T, Lange R, Liepert J, Weiller C, Siebner HR, Rothwell JC, et al. Repeated premotor rTMS leads to cumulative plastic changes of motor cortex excitability in humans. *Neuroimage*. 2003;20(1):550–60.
110. Murphy SC, Palmer LM, Nyffeler T, Müri RM, Larkum ME. Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) inhibits cortical dendrites. *Elife*. 2016;5.
111. Abbasnia K, Ghanbari A, Abedian M, Ghanbari A, Sharififar S, Azari H. The effects of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation on proliferation and differentiation of neural stem cells. *Anat Cell Biol*. 2015;48(2):104–13.