

32 (BAAI).

33 **Abstract**

34 Extensive training improves our ability to perceive visual contents around us, a
35 phenomenon known as visual perceptual learning (VPL). Numerous studies have been
36 conducted to understand the mechanisms of VPL, while the neural oscillatory
37 mechanisms underpinning VPL has yet to be elucidated. To this end, we adopted
38 transcranial alternating current stimulation (tACS), a neuromodulatory technique that
39 can alter ongoing brain rhythms in a frequency-specific manner by applying external
40 weak electric fields, to stimulate targeted cortical areas in human subjects while they
41 performed an orientation discrimination learning task. Five groups of subjects
42 undertook five daily training sessions to execute the task. Four groups received
43 occipital tACS stimulation at 10 Hz (alpha band), 20 Hz (beta band), 40 Hz (gamma
44 band), or sham 10 Hz (sham), and one group was stimulated at the sensorimotor
45 regions by 10 Hz tACS. Compared with the sham stimulation, occipital tACS at 10
46 Hz, but not at 20 Hz or 40 Hz, increased both the learning rate and performance
47 improvement. However, when 10 Hz tACS was delivered to the sensorimotor areas,
48 the modulatory effects of tACS were absent, suggesting that tACS modulated the
49 orientation discrimination learning in a frequency- and location-specific manner.
50 Moreover, the tACS-induced enhancement lasted at least two months after the
51 termination of training. Our findings provide strong evidence for the causal role of
52 alpha oscillations in VPL and shed new light on the design of effective
53 neuromodulation protocols that might facilitate rehabilitation for patients with
54 neuro-ophthalmological disorders.

55

56 **Significance Statement**

57 Performance of visual tasks can be enhanced substantially by training, which is
58 known as visual perceptual learning (VPL). However, little is known about the neural
59 oscillatory mechanisms underlying VPL. To probe the causal link between a given
60 oscillatory frequency band and VPL, transcranial alternating current stimulation
61 (tACS) was applied while subjects performed an orientation discrimination learning
62 task. Our results revealed that tACS modulates VPL in a frequency- and
63 location-specific manner. Specifically, only training coupled with 10 Hz tACS over
64 the occipital cortex speeded up the learning process and amplified the performance
65 gain. Our findings demonstrate the causal role of alpha oscillations in VPL, and
66 provide insight into developing more effective and efficient remediation protocols for
67 clinical applications, e.g., amblyopia.

68

69 **Keywords:** perceptual learning, non-invasive brain stimulation, tACS, alpha
70 oscillations, visual plasticity, orientation

71

72 **Introduction**

73 Repetitive visual experience or practice results in a dramatic and long-lasting
74 improvement in perceiving visual contents, which is referred to as visual perceptual
75 learning (VPL) (Maniglia & Seitz, 2018; Watanabe & Sasaki, 2015). VPL is usually
76 viewed as a manifestation of experience-dependent neural plasticity in human brain
77 (Lu *et al.*, 2021). Numerous studies have been conducted to explore the neural
78 substrates of VPL. It has been suggested that VPL occurs at multiple loci in the brain,
79 from subcortical nuclei to high-level cortical areas involved in decision-making or
80 attention (Bi *et al.*, 2014; Gold *et al.*, 2008; Mayhew *et al.*, 2012; Mukai *et al.*, 2007;
81 Sanayei *et al.*, 2018; Yu *et al.*, 2016), and is manifested in various forms, such as
82 enhanced neural response (Furmanski *et al.*, 2004; Hua *et al.*, 2010), refined neural
83 representation (Chen *et al.*, 2016; Jehee *et al.*, 2012), sharpened tuning curve
84 (Schoups *et al.*, 2001; Yang & Maunsell, 2004), channel reweighting from sensory
85 inputs to decision units (Chen *et al.*, 2015; Doshier & Lu, 1998; Law & Gold, 2008;
86 Yin Yan *et al.*, 2014).

87 Neural oscillations, characterized by rhythmic changes in neural activity in a
88 wide range of frequencies, play a critical role in cognitive functioning (Buzsaki &
89 Draguhn, 2004; Thut *et al.*, 2012). Aberrant neural oscillations might be associated
90 with some neurological and psychiatric disorders (Schnitzler & Gross, 2005).
91 However, the neural oscillatory mechanisms of VPL remain poorly understood and
92 controversial. To date, only sparse studies have explored the neural oscillatory
93 mechanisms of VPL, and results of these studies are not consistent. The focus of these
94 studies is whether alpha- and/or gamma-band oscillations are associated with VPL.
95 Human electroencephalogram (EEG) studies found that there was increased alpha
96 power in parietal-occipital areas after training on visual tasks, such as visual search

97 (Bays *et al.*, 2015), perceptual grouping (Nikolaev *et al.*, 2016), and orientation
98 categorization (Muller-Gass *et al.*, 2017). Pre-training resting-state alpha power could
99 predict one's learning performance (Muller-Gass *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand,
100 some studies showed that training induced an increase in gamma power (Gruber *et al.*,
101 2001; Gruber *et al.*, 2002; La Rocca *et al.*, 2020), or changes in both alpha and
102 gamma power (Hamame *et al.*, 2011). In these studies, oscillatory neural activity was
103 recorded before and after training, but was not manipulated during training to
104 modulate VPL, which could not reveal the causal link between neural oscillations and
105 VPL.

106 Transcranial alternating current stimulation (tACS) is a neuromodulation
107 technique that can non-invasively alter brain excitability in a frequency-specific
108 manner by delivering weak alternating currents to the scalp (Kanai *et al.*, 2008;
109 Kasten *et al.*, 2019; Krause *et al.*, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2018; Voroslakos *et al.*, 2018). It is
110 a wide-used tool for establishing a causal link between neural oscillations and
111 cognition (Cabral-Calderin & Wilke, 2019; Johnson *et al.*, 2020), across a broad range
112 of frequencies and tasks (Antal *et al.*, 2008; Helfrich *et al.*, 2014b; Kar & Krekelberg,
113 2014; Pogosyan *et al.*, 2009; Reinhart & Nguyen, 2019; Y. Zhang *et al.*, 2019).
114 However, tACS has not been applied to modulate VPL yet.

115 To this end, we stimulated human subjects' visual cortex by using tACS at a
116 given frequency (10 Hz, 20 Hz, or 40 Hz) while they were practicing an orientation
117 discrimination task subserved by early visual cortex (Bang *et al.*, 2018; Jia *et al.*,
118 2020). We hypothesized that if neural oscillations of a given frequency band play an
119 important role in the orientation discrimination learning, then applying tACS at that
120 frequency band to the visual cortex will modulate the learning process and
121 performance improvement.

122 **Materials and Methods**

123 *Subjects.*

124 A total of 87 healthy subjects (58 females, 22.03 ± 3.96 years) participated in
125 the present study. Subjects were assigned to one of five groups (Table 1): Group 1
126 received occipital tACS at 10 Hz (the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group), Group 2
127 received occipital tACS at 20 Hz (the 20 Hz occipital stimulation group), Group 3
128 received occipital tACS at 40 Hz (the 40 Hz occipital stimulation group), Group 4
129 received bilateral sensorimotor tACS at 10 Hz (the 10 Hz sensorimotor stimulation
130 group), and Group 5 received occipital sham stimulation (the sham occipital
131 stimulation group). The group sizes were determined by a power analysis ($\alpha = 0.05$,
132 two-tailed, power = 80%) based on our pilot study. A screening questionnaire was
133 administered before starting the study for each subject. Subjects were included if they
134 met the following criteria: 1) were right-handed; 2) were aged between 18–40 years; 3)
135 had normal or corrected-to-normal vision. Subjects were excluded if they met the
136 following criteria: 1) had a history of neural surgery or epileptic seizures, any
137 psychiatric or neurological disorders; 2) had sleep disorders or a total sleep time less
138 than eight hours per night over the last two weeks; 3) were during the menstrual cycle
139 or pregnancy (Fertonani *et al.*, 2011; He *et al.*, 2019). The present study was approved
140 by the Ethics Committee of School of Psychological and Cognitive Sciences, Peking
141 University. Written consent was obtained from each subject prior to the beginning of
142 this study.

143 *Apparatus and Stimulation protocol.*

144 Visual stimuli were generated and controlled using MATLAB (version 7.0) and
145 Psychtoolbox-3 extensions (Brainard, 1997; Pelli, 1997) and were presented on a
146 19-inch Sony Trinitron color monitor (spatial resolution = 1600×1200 pixels, frame

147 rate = 85 Hz) with a grey background (mean luminance = 47.59 cd/m²). The
148 experiments were run in a dimly lit room. The monitor was the only source of light in
149 the room. A chin-and-head rest was used to stabilize the head at a viewing distance of
150 65 cm. Subject's eye movements were monitored by an Eyelink 1000 plus
151 eye-tracking system (SR Research Ltd., Ontario, Canada) throughout the whole
152 experiment.

153 Electrical stimulation was delivered using the DC-STIMULATOR MC
154 (neuroConn GmbH, Ilmenau, Germany) through a pair of rubber electrodes of 5×5
155 cm². The electrodes inserted in two soaked sponges (0.9% saline solution) were
156 attached to the subjects' scalp using elastic bandages. A sinusoidal current with a
157 peak-to-peak intensity of 1.5 mA was administered while subjects performed the
158 training task. Both the DC offset and the phase difference between the two stimulation
159 electrodes were set at zero. The impedance was constantly lower than 8 KΩ during
160 all stimulation sessions.

161 *Visual stimulus and task.*

162 Oriented Gabor patches (diameter = 1.25°; spatial frequency = 3.0 cycle/°;
163 Michelson contrast = 0.5; standard deviation of Gaussian envelope = 0.42°; random
164 spatial phase) were located 5° from fixation in the lower left quadrant of the visual
165 field. Gabor patches were spatially masked by noise using a pixel replacement method
166 at a given signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio (Shibata *et al.*, 2017). In our study, the S/N ratio
167 was 75%, which meant that 25% of the pixels in the Gabor patch were replaced with
168 random noise. In each trial, a small fixation point was displayed for 500 ms firstly,
169 and then two Gabor patches with orientations of 26° and 26° + θ were presented
170 successively for 100 ms each and were separated by a 500 ms blank interval (Figure
171 1(A)). These two Gabor patches were presented in random order. Subjects were

172 instructed to make a two-alternative forced-choice (2AFC) judgment of the
173 orientation of the second Gabor patch relative to the first one (clockwise or
174 counter-clockwise) by pressing a key. The θ varied trial by trial and was adaptively
175 controlled by a QUEST staircase to estimate subjects' discrimination threshold at 75%
176 correct (Watson & Pelli, 1983). Subjects were asked to have a rest with their eyes
177 closed after each staircase. Feedback was not provided in all test and training
178 sessions.

179 *Design.*

180 A single-blind, sham-controlled, between-subject design was adopted to explore
181 the role of tACS in modulating the orientation discrimination learning. Subjects
182 underwent five daily training sessions of the orientation discrimination task, which
183 was preceded by a pre-training test (Pre) and was followed by two post-training tests .
184 One of the post-training tests was completed immediately after training, i.e., Post1,
185 and the other one (Post2) was conducted at least two months after Post1 (Figure 1(B)).
186 Each participant completed six QUEST staircases of 50 trials at Pre, Post1, and Post2,
187 and nine QUEST staircases during each training session.

188 First, to investigate which stimulation frequency is able to modulate the
189 orientation discrimination learning, we recruited three groups of subjects to take part
190 in this study, i.e., the 10 Hz, 20 Hz, and 40 Hz occipital stimulation groups. The
191 choice of stimulation frequency of tACS was based on the controversy of underlying
192 neural oscillatory mechanisms of VPL (Bays *et al.*, 2015; Gruber *et al.*, 2002;
193 Hamame *et al.*, 2011) and the study that found visual plasticity could be induced by
194 20 Hz tACS (Kanai *et al.*, 2010). Also, 10 Hz, 20 Hz, and 40 Hz are representative
195 frequencies of alpha band (8-12 Hz), beta band (13-30 Hz), and gamma band (above
196 30 Hz) (Helfrich *et al.*, 2014a; Kanai *et al.*, 2010; Nakazono *et al.*, 2020; Struber *et al.*,

197 2014; Wach *et al.*, 2013; Zaehle *et al.*, 2010). Two electrodes were placed over
198 subjects' visual cortex and the vertex (i.e., O2 and Cz in the international 10-20 EEG
199 system), respectively (de Graaf *et al.*, 2020; Fertonani *et al.*, 2011; Hubel & Wiesel,
200 1968; Jehee *et al.*, 2012; Jia *et al.*, 2020) (Figure 1(C)). The stimulated hemisphere
201 was contralateral to the visual field where the Gabor patches were presented. Subjects
202 received electrical stimulation at a given frequency for about 27 minutes with a
203 ramp-up of 30 s during each training session.

204 Second, we asked whether the observed modulatory effects by the 10 Hz tACS
205 (see Results) were due to potential indirect effects, such as placebo effect. To this end,
206 a fourth group of subjects were recruited to participate in our study, i.e., the sham
207 occipital stimulation group. The electrical stimulation parameters were the same as
208 those in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group, except that subjects in the sham
209 occipital stimulation group received the 10 Hz tACS for 15 seconds with a ramp
210 up/down of 30 s at the beginning of each training session.

211 Finally, to exam whether the 10 Hz tACS modulated the orientation
212 discrimination learning in a stimulation location-specific manner, a fifth group of
213 subjects were recruited, i.e., the 10 Hz sensorimotor stimulation group. The
214 stimulation setting was similar to that in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group, except
215 that two electrodes were positioned over the bilateral sensorimotor cortical regions
216 (Cappelletti *et al.*, 2013; Cappelletti *et al.*, 2015), i.e., C1 and C2.

217 *Statistical analysis methods*

218 For each test or training session, the estimated threshold was defined as the
219 geometric mean of thresholds from all QUEST staircases. Percent improvement,
220 which describes changes in performance after training, was calculated as $(pre-training$
221 $threshold - post-training threshold)/pre-training threshold \times 100\%$. To illustrate

222 the threshold dynamics during the training course, a power function was used to fit
223 the learning curves of orientation discrimination across all test and training sessions
224 (Jeter *et al.*, 2009; P. Zhang *et al.*, 2018):

$$225 \quad \quad \quad Th(t) = \lambda \times (t)^{-\rho} + \alpha$$

226 Where Th is the predicted orientation discrimination threshold, t is the number of
227 training sessions, λ is the initial threshold, ρ is the learning rate, and α denotes the
228 minimum threshold achieved after training. A nonlinear least-square method,
229 implemented in MATLAB (MathWorks, Natick, MA), was used to minimize the sum
230 of squared differences between model predictions and observed values.

231 Orientation discrimination thresholds were analyzed using a mixed-design
232 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a between-subjects factor *Group* (occipital 10 Hz,
233 20 Hz, 40 Hz, sham, and sensorimotor 10 Hz) and a within-subjects factor *Test* (Pre,
234 Post1 and Post2). Learning rates and percent improvements were analyzed using
235 ANOVA with a between-subjects factor of *Group*. For multiple comparisons,
236 Benjamini-Hochberg method (BH) was used to control false discovery rate
237 (FDR)(Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995; Benjamini & Yekutieli, 2001). For ANOVAs,
238 η_p^2 was computed as a measure of effect size. For t-tests, Cohen's d was computed as
239 a measure of effect size. Statistical analyses were conducted using R (R Core Team,
240 2020).

241 **Results**

242 **Occipital tACS modulated orientation discrimination learning in a** 243 **frequency-specific manner**

244 First, subjects stimulated by occipital tACS at 10 Hz, 20 Hz, and 40 Hz started
245 with comparable performance at Pre ($F(2, 49) = 0.33, p = 0.72, \eta_p^2 = 0.01$). As

246 shown in Figure 2 (A), subjects' orientation discrimination thresholds declined with
247 training for all the training groups. For each subject, the orientation discrimination
248 thresholds across all test and training sessions were fitted with a power function. A
249 one-way ANOVA with *Group* (10 Hz, 20 Hz, and 40 Hz) as a between-subjects factor
250 revealed that there were significant group differences in learning rate, i.e., the
251 estimated ρ -value of the power function ($F(2, 49) = 7.38, p = 0.002, \eta_p^2 = 0.23$).

252 *Post-hoc* analysis showed that the learning rate of the 10 Hz occipital stimulation
253 group was significantly greater than those of the other two groups (10 Hz vs. 20 Hz:
254 $t(32) = 3.37, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.004$, Cohen's $d = 0.98$; 10 Hz vs. 40 Hz: $t(33) = 3.30, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.004$,
255 Cohen's $d = 1.09$), and there was no significant difference in learning rate between the
256 20 Hz occipital stimulation and 40 Hz occipital stimulation groups ($t(33) = -0.124$,
257 $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.90$) (Figure 2(B)). These results demonstrated that, relative to beta and gamma
258 frequencies, tACS at alpha frequency accelerated the learning process.

259 Then subjects' orientation discrimination thresholds were submitted to a
260 mixed-design ANOVA with *Test* (Pre and Post1) as a within-subjects factor and *Group*
261 (10 Hz, 20Hz, and 40 Hz) as a between-subjects factor to examine differences in
262 performance. We found a significant main effect of *Test* ($F(1, 49) = 83.48, p = 3.69 \times$
263 $10^{-12}, \eta_p^2 = 0.63$), and a significant interaction between *Test* and *Group* ($F(2, 49) =$
264 $5.32, p = 0.008, \eta_p^2 = 0.18$), but no significant main effect of *Group* ($F(2, 49) = 0.46$,
265 $p = 0.63, \eta_p^2 = 0.02$). Further analyses showed that the thresholds at Post1 were
266 lower than that those at Pre for all groups (all $t_s < -3.78$, all $p_{\text{adj}}s < 0.002$, and all
267 Cohen's $d_s > 0.92$, by paired *t*-test), demonstrating significant learning effects
268 occurred in an unsupervised manner here because no feedback was provided during
269 learning (Loewenstein *et al.*, 2021; Tsodyks & Gilbert, 2004; Weiss *et al.*, 1993). At
270 Post1, the threshold in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group was significantly lower

271 than those in the 20 Hz occipital stimulation group ($t(32) = -2.58, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.039$,
272 Cohen's $d = 0.87$) and the 40 Hz occipital stimulation group ($t(33) = -2.57, p_{\text{adj}} =$
273 0.039 , Cohen's $d = 1.13$). The threshold difference between the 20 Hz and 40 Hz
274 occipital stimulation groups was not significant ($t(33) = 0.05, p = 0.96$) (Figure 2
275 (C)).

276 The above results suggested that there was greater performance improvement in
277 the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group. To confirm this, we performed a one-way
278 ANOVA on percent improvement. The statistical results showed that the differences
279 in percent improvement among the three stimulation groups were significant ($F(2,$
280 $49) = 5.82, p = 0.005, \eta_p^2 = 0.19$). *Post-hoc* analysis revealed that the percent
281 improvement in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group was higher than those in the 20
282 Hz occipital stimulation group ($t(32) = 2.96, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.014$, Cohen's $d = 1.00$) and the
283 40 Hz occipital stimulation group ($t(33) = 2.97, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.014$, Cohen's $d = 1.13$), and
284 the difference between the 20 Hz and the 40 Hz occipital stimulation groups was not
285 significant ($t(33) = 0.03, p = 0.98$) (Figure 2 (D)). These results demonstrated that,
286 relative to beta and gamma frequencies, tACS at alpha frequency enabled subjects to
287 acquire a greater improvement in the learning task.

288 To examine whether the observed modulatory effects from the 10 Hz tACS were
289 due to possible indirect effects (e.g., placebo effect), one more group of subjects
290 received the sham occipital stimulation. Note that the learning effect in the sham
291 occipital stimulation group is presumably equivalent to the learning effect without
292 electrical stimulation. Compared with the sham occipital stimulation group, only the
293 10 Hz occipital stimulation group showed a faster learning rate ($t(32) = 3.79, p_{\text{adj}} =$
294 0.002 , Cohen's $d = 1.13$), a lower threshold at Post1 ($t(32) = -2.58, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.02$,
295 Cohen's $d = 1.06$), and a greater improvement ($t(32) = 3.48, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.005$, Cohen's $d =$

296 1.24), and these beneficial effects were absent in the 20 Hz and 40 Hz occipital
297 stimulation groups (all $ps > 0.90$).

298 Previous studies have shown that the after-effects of tACS on behavioral
299 performance and neural activity are temporally short (Clancy *et al.*, 2018; Kasten *et*
300 *al.*, 2016; Neuling *et al.*, 2013; Struber *et al.*, 2015), while one remarkable
301 characteristics of VPL is the long-term persistence of learning effects after the
302 termination of training (Bi *et al.*, 2014; Frank *et al.*, 2020; P. Zhang *et al.*, 2018). To
303 examine whether the facilitatory effects on the orientation discrimination learning by
304 the 10 Hz tACS is long-lasting, subjects in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group and
305 the sham occipital stimulation group were retested at least two months after Post1 (i.e.,
306 Post2). For subjects in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group, their thresholds at Post2
307 were not significantly different from those at Post1 ($t(16) = -0.37, p = 0.72$). Similarly,
308 there was no significant difference in threshold between Post1 and Post2 in the sham
309 occipital stimulation group ($t(16) = -5.2 \times 10^{-3}, p = 0.99$) (Figure 3 (A)). Notably,
310 some subjects (N = 9 and N = 12 in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group and the
311 sham occipital stimulation group, respectively) were retested at least 14 months after
312 training, i.e., Post3. There was no significant difference in threshold between Post1
313 and Post3 (10 Hz: $t(8) = 1.51, p = 0.17$; sham: $t(11) = 0.76, p = 0.47$) (Figure 3 (B)).
314 Therefore, the modulatory effect of 10 Hz tACS on the orientation discrimination
315 learning was remarkably long-lasting.

316 **10 Hz tACS modulated orientation discrimination learning in a location-specific** 317 **manner**

318 To explore whether the 10 Hz tACS modulated the orientation discrimination
319 learning in a location-specific manner, one more group of subjects (i.e., the 10 Hz
320 sensorimotor stimulation group) were trained on the orientation discrimination task

321 while their bilateral sensorimotor regions were stimulated by the 10 Hz tACS. For the
322 three groups of subjects (the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group, the 10 Hz
323 sensorimotor stimulation group, and the sham occipital stimulation group), they had
324 about equal thresholds at Pre ($F(2, 49) = 0.12, p = 0.88, \eta_p^2 = 0.005$). Extensive
325 training reduced subjects' orientation discrimination thresholds gradually for all
326 groups (Figure 4(A)). Again, there were significant differences in learning rate among
327 the three groups ($F(2, 49) = 10.60, p = 1.49 \times 10^{-4}, \eta_p^2 = 0.30$). The learning rate of
328 the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group was greater than that of the 10 Hz sensorimotor
329 stimulation group ($t(32) = 4.21, p_{\text{adj}} = 3.26 \times 10^{-4}$, Cohen's $d = 1.27$), but the
330 difference in learning rate between the 10 Hz sensorimotor stimulation group and the
331 sham occipital stimulation group was not significant ($t(33) = -0.41, p = 0.68$) (Figure
332 4(B)). These results on learning rate demonstrated that the orientation discrimination
333 learning efficiency was not modulated by the 10 Hz tACS applied at sensorimotor
334 areas.

335 Regarding orientation discrimination thresholds, a 2×3 mixed-design ANOVA
336 with a within-subjects factor of *Test* (Pre and Post1) and a between-subjects factor of
337 *Group* (occipital, sensorimotor, and sham) showed that the main effect of *Test* ($F(1,$
338 $49) = 63.04, p = 2.36 \times 10^{-10}, \eta_p^2 = 0.56$) and the interaction between *Test* and
339 *Group* ($F(2, 49) = 4.33, p = 0.019, \eta_p^2 = 0.15$) were significant, but the main effect of
340 *Group* ($F(2, 48) = 1.77, p = 0.18$) was not. Paired *t*-test showed that the thresholds at
341 Post1 were lower than those at Pre for all the three groups (all $t_s \leq -3.44$, all $p_{\text{adj}}s \leq$
342 0.003 , and all Cohen's $d_s \geq 0.83$). A simple main effect analysis revealed that, at
343 Post1, the threshold in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group was lower than that in
344 the 10 Hz sensorimotor stimulation group ($t(33) = -4.94, p_{\text{adj}} = 1.50 \times 10^{-4}$, Cohen's

345 $d = 1.64$), but the threshold difference between the 10 Hz sensorimotor stimulation
346 group and the sham occipital stimulation group was not significant ($t(33) = 1.43, p =$
347 0.16) (Figure 4 (C)). Accordingly, there were significant differences in percent
348 improvement between the three groups ($F(2, 49) = 8.69, p = 5.88 \times 10^{-4}, \eta_p^2 = 0.15$).
349 *Post-hoc* analysis showed that the percent improvement in the 10 Hz occipital
350 stimulation group was higher than that in the 10 Hz sensorimotor stimulation group
351 ($t(33) = 4.13, p_{\text{adj}} = 0.0013$, Cohen's $d = 1.38$), while there was no significant
352 difference between the 10 Hz sensorimotor stimulation group and the sham occipital
353 stimulation group ($t(33) = -0.25, p = 0.81$) (Figure 4(D)). These results demonstrated
354 that the 10 Hz tACS delivered over sensorimotor areas did not result in more
355 performance improvements in the orientation discrimination learning.
356

357 **Discussion**

358 To better understand the neural oscillatory mechanisms underlying VPL, tACS
359 was administered while subjects were undertaking an orientation discrimination
360 learning task. Our study showed that, relative to sham stimulation, 10 Hz tACS
361 applied to visual cortex accelerated learning and led to greater improvement in task
362 performance. The facilitatory effects were absent when visual cortex was stimulated
363 by tACS at other frequencies (20 Hz and 40 Hz) or when other cortical areas
364 (sensorimotor cortical areas) were stimulated by 10 Hz tACS, indicating that tACS
365 modulated VPL in a frequency- and location-specific manner. To the best of our
366 knowledge, this is the first study demonstrating the effects of tACS on VPL. Our
367 results provide strong evidence of the causal role of occipital alpha band oscillations
368 in VPL, updating our knowledge on the role of alpha oscillations in neural plasticity.
369 Moreover, it is also the first study showing that the enhanced performance by
370 combining perceptual training and non-invasive brain stimulation could last at least
371 one year after training, which provides a promising and feasible way for clinical
372 applications.

373 Our finding of the causal role of occipital alpha oscillations in VPL is consistent
374 with previous human EEG studies across different visual learning tasks (Bays *et al.*,
375 2015; Muller-Gass *et al.*, 2017; Nikolaev *et al.*, 2016; Toosi *et al.*, 2017), and is also
376 consistent with tactile perceptual learning studies (Brickwedde *et al.*, 2019; Freyer *et*
377 *al.*, 2013; Freyer *et al.*, 2012). These EEG learning studies suggested that the alpha
378 power enhancement in parietal-occipital regions is a manifestation of the neural
379 mechanisms of perceptual learning. Furthermore, both the resting-state alpha power
380 before learning (Freyer *et al.*, 2013; Muller-Gass *et al.*, 2017) and the
381 learning-induced alpha power changes during task execution (Brickwedde *et al.*, 2019;

382 Freyer *et al.*, 2013) correlated with individual's learning outcomes, demonstrating a
383 close association between alpha oscillations and perceptual learning. Taken together,
384 all these studies point to a pivotal role of alpha oscillations in perceptual learning.

385 We note that our study is different from some previous studies in scientific
386 finding and method. First, several human EEG studies found that training induced
387 increases in gamma or beta band oscillations (Gruber *et al.*, 2001; Gruber *et al.*, 2002;
388 Hamame *et al.*, 2011; La Rocca *et al.*, 2020; Theves *et al.*, 2020). Several factors
389 could explain this discrepancy. For instance, different stimuli and tasks, which
390 engaged distinctive processing mechanisms, were used in these learning studies
391 (Brunet & Fries, 2019; Gruber *et al.*, 2002). Also, in these studies, EEG was recorded
392 before and after training, while tACS was administrated during training in our study.
393 Second, previous studies found that transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) and
394 transcranial random noise stimulation (tRNS) were able to modulate VPL (Cappelletti
395 *et al.*, 2013; Contemori *et al.*, 2019; Fertoni *et al.*, 2011; Frangou *et al.*, 2018;
396 Herpich *et al.*, 2019; Van Meel *et al.*, 2016). However, both tDCS and tRNS, with less
397 understood working mechanisms, cannot alter brain oscillations in a
398 frequency-specific manner, which limits our understanding of the neural oscillatory
399 mechanisms of VPL.

400 Previous studies on the biophysical mechanisms of tACS have already provided
401 strong support for the efficacy of tACS on altering neural oscillations. TACS applied
402 over the scalp can generate changes in intracerebral electric fields in non-human
403 primates (Johnson *et al.*, 2020; Kar *et al.*, 2017; Krause *et al.*, 2019; Vieira *et al.*,
404 2020) and humans (Opitz *et al.*, 2016; Voroslakos *et al.*, 2018), thereby modifying
405 ongoing neural oscillations in the targeted brain region (Helfrich *et al.*, 2014b; Kar *et*
406 *al.*, 2017; Kasten *et al.*, 2018; Vossen *et al.*, 2015; Zaehle *et al.*, 2010). The tACS

407 effects are usually manifested as increased neural spectral power and/or phase
408 synchronization (Helfrich *et al.*, 2014b; Huang *et al.*, 2021), which is confirmed by
409 our EEG experiment. In this experiment, we recorded subjects' resting-state EEG
410 signals for 10 minutes both before and after 25-min 10Hz tACS over O2, which is
411 roughly equivalent to the stimulation time in the main experiment. We analyzed 1-min
412 EEG signals before and after the stimulation from Oz, O2, POz, and PO4 (Kasten *et*
413 *al.*, 2016). We found that subjects' resting-state alpha power after the tACS
414 stimulation was significantly higher than that before the stimulation. It is noteworthy
415 that, in our study, tACS at alpha frequency modulated VPL in a location-specific
416 manner. This ruled out possibly indirect effects, such as retinal stimulation,
417 transcutaneous stimulation of peripheral nerves, and placebo effects (Asamoah *et al.*,
418 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2018; Turi *et al.*, 2013). Taken together, these results suggest that
419 occipital tACS at 10 Hz entrained endogenous alpha oscillations in visual cortex and
420 thereby facilitated VPL causally.

421 The functional role of alpha band neural oscillations in visual perception,
422 attention, and other cognitive functions has been recognized for a long time. Rather
423 than only reflecting an idling state of the brain (Clayton *et al.*, 2018; Sigala *et al.*,
424 2014), it functions to gate ongoing sensory information processing (Jensen &
425 Mazaheri, 2010; VanRullen, 2016). According to a dominant view about the function
426 of alpha oscillations - the inhibition hypothesis, alpha oscillations are assumed to
427 actively suppress processing of irrelevant sensory information and therefore direct
428 computational neural resources to task-relevant events of higher priority (Klimesch *et*
429 *al.*, 2007). Specifically, alpha power is correlated with neural excitability negatively
430 (Lange *et al.*, 2013; Romei *et al.*, 2008), and higher alpha power is predictive of
431 decreased visual detection and discrimination performance (Ergenoglu *et al.*, 2004;

432 Mathewson *et al.*, 2014; Roberts *et al.*, 2014; van Dijk *et al.*, 2008; Zazio *et al.*, 2020).
433 Since many studies have demonstrated that alpha tACS is able to increase ongoing
434 alpha power (Clayton *et al.*, 2019; Helfrich *et al.*, 2014b; Kasten *et al.*, 2019;
435 Nakazono *et al.*, 2020; Zaehle *et al.*, 2010; Y. Zhang *et al.*, 2019), the inhibition
436 hypothesis cannot explain our finding here straightforwardly. Notably, it has been
437 argued that alpha oscillations also reflect cortical feedback mechanisms in visual
438 cortex (Keller *et al.*, 2020; Mejias *et al.*, 2016; Michalareas *et al.*, 2016; van
439 Kerkoerle *et al.*, 2014). For example, using intracranial multi-array recording in
440 monkeys, researchers found that neural activity in primary visual area V1 was driven
441 by feedback signals in the alpha band from visual area V4 (Bastos *et al.*, 2015; van
442 Kerkoerle *et al.*, 2014). This interregional feedback projections from V4 to V1 was
443 also confirmed in human magnetoencephalography (MEG) study (Michalareas *et al.*,
444 2016). Recently, studies from several research groups proposed that VPL could be
445 implemented, at least partially, by cortical feedback connections that propagated
446 neural signals from higher to lower areas (Crist *et al.*, 2001; Jia *et al.*, 2020;
447 Moldakarimov *et al.*, 2014; Mukai *et al.*, 2007; Schafer *et al.*, 2007; Y. Yan *et al.*,
448 2018). Under this framework, entrained alpha oscillations by 10 Hz tACS might boost
449 VPL by strengthening cortico-cortical feedback connections, which can be
450 investigated in the future

451 Our findings not only deepen our understanding of the neural mechanisms
452 underlying VPL, but also offer a promising guide for future clinical intervention to
453 impaired visual functions. In clinical practice, efficacy/effectiveness, efficiency, and
454 persistence are three of the most remarkable factors that constrain the application of
455 perceptual enhancement methods or techniques (Herpich *et al.*, 2019; Rodan *et al.*,
456 2020). In our study, we found that applying tACS at 10 Hz over the visual cortex is

457 able to help observers obtain more benefits within a shorter time. What is more, the
458 modulatory effect of occipital 10 Hz tACS on visual performance was able to last for
459 a very long period. Therefore, our training and stimulation protocol can be used as a
460 potential treatment to help rehabilitate impaired visual functions in clinical
461 populations, such as, patients with neuro-ophthalmological disorders (Levi & Li,
462 2009).

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- 744
- 745

746 **Table**

747 Table1 Demographic information of subjects

Group	Sample size	Female/Male	Mean age (SD)	Age range
Group 1	17	13/4	22.35 (5.24)	18-37
Group 2	17	11/6	21.47 (4.29)	18-34
Group 3	18	11/7	20.50 (2.07)	18-24
Group 4	18	12/6	23.83 (4.16)	19-37
Group 5	17	11/6	22.00 (2.98)	18-28

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749

750 **Figure Legends**

751 Figure 1. Stimuli, experimental protocol, and electrical stimulation protocol. (A)
752 Schematic description of a 2AFC trial in a QUEST staircase for measuring orientation
753 discrimination thresholds. Subjects were instructed to make a judgment of the
754 orientation in the second interval relative to that in the first interval (clockwise or
755 counter-clockwise), while gazing at the central fixation point. There was no feedback
756 after each trial. (B) Experimental protocol. Subject underwent one pre-training test,
757 five daily training sessions, and two post-training tests. The pre-training test (Pre) and
758 post-training test 1 (Post1) and test 2 (Post2) took place on the days before,
759 immediately after, and two months after training. The tACS was concurrently
760 administered during each training session. (C) Electrical stimulation protocol and
761 montage. TACS at different frequencies (10 Hz, 20 Hz, and 40 Hz) were applied over
762 different cortical regions. For occipital stimulation groups, stimulation electrodes
763 were positioned over the occipital cortex (O2) and the vertex (Cz), while for the
764 sensorimotor stimulation group, stimulation electrodes were positioned over the
765 sensorimotor regions of both hemispheres. The electrode positions were identified by
766 the international 10-20 EEG system. The red square and blue square denoted the
767 anodal electrode and cathodal electrode, respectively. These heads were generated by
768 FaceGen Modeller (version 3.4).

769

770 Figure 2. Results of the main experiment in which visual cortex was stimulated using
771 tACS at different frequencies. (A) Learning curves. Dots represent averaged
772 thresholds across subjects at different test and training days, and lines represent fitted
773 learning curves using a power function. (B) Learning rates. (C) Orientation
774 discrimination thresholds at Pre and Post1. (D) Percent improvements in orientation

775 discrimination performance at Post1, relative to Pre. $*p < .05$; $**p < .01$; $***p < .001$.

776 Error bars denote the standard error of the mean (SEM) across subjects.

777

778 Figure 3. Retention of the learning effect. (A) Retest results two months after training
779 for subjects in the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group and the sham occipital
780 stimulation group. (B) Retest results 14 months after training for part of the subject
781 cohort. Each red dot and black dot represent a single subject in the 10 Hz occipital
782 stimulation group and the sham occipital stimulation group, respectively. The insets
783 depict the mean thresholds for the 10 Hz occipital stimulation group (red and pink
784 bars) and the sham occipital stimulation group (black and grey bars). Error bars
785 denote the standard error of the mean (SEM) across QUEST staircases or subjects.

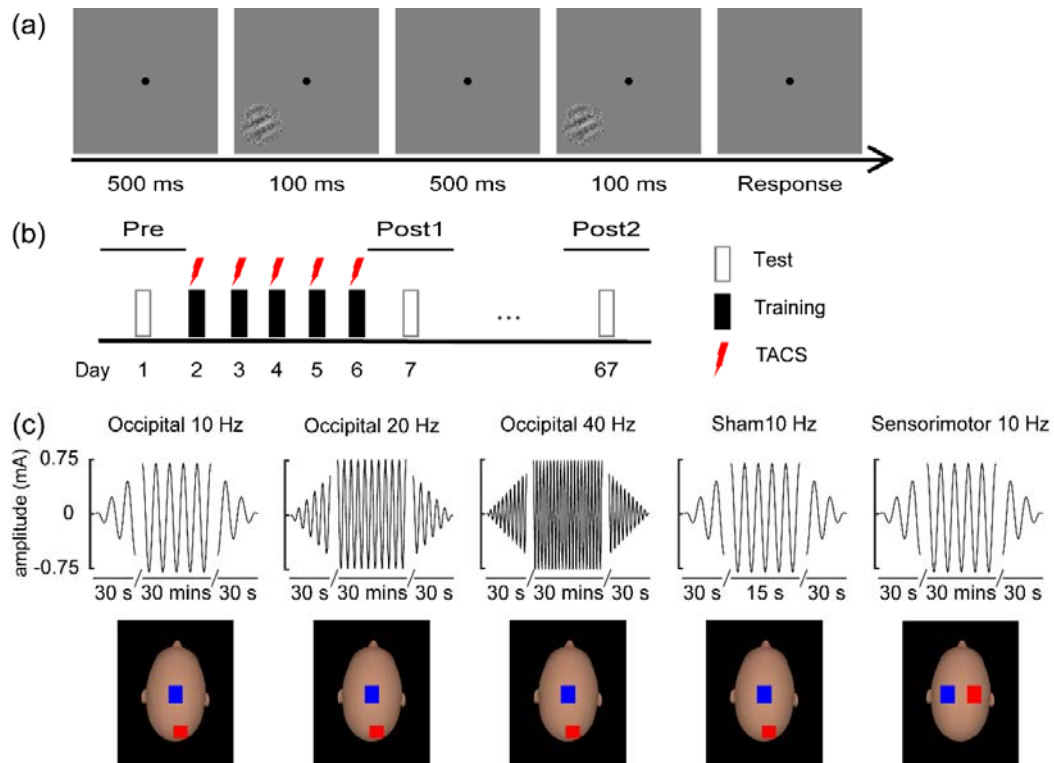
786

787 Figure 4. Results of the control experiment in which the 10 Hz tACS was applied to
788 bilateral sensorimotor areas. (A) Learning curves. Dots represent averaged thresholds
789 across subjects at different test and training days, and lines represent fitted learning
790 curves using a power function. (B) Learning rates. (C) Orientation discrimination
791 thresholds at Pre and Post1. (D) Percent improvements in orientation discrimination
792 performance at Post1, relative to Pre. $***p < .001$. Error bars denote the standard
793 error of the mean (SEM) across subjects.

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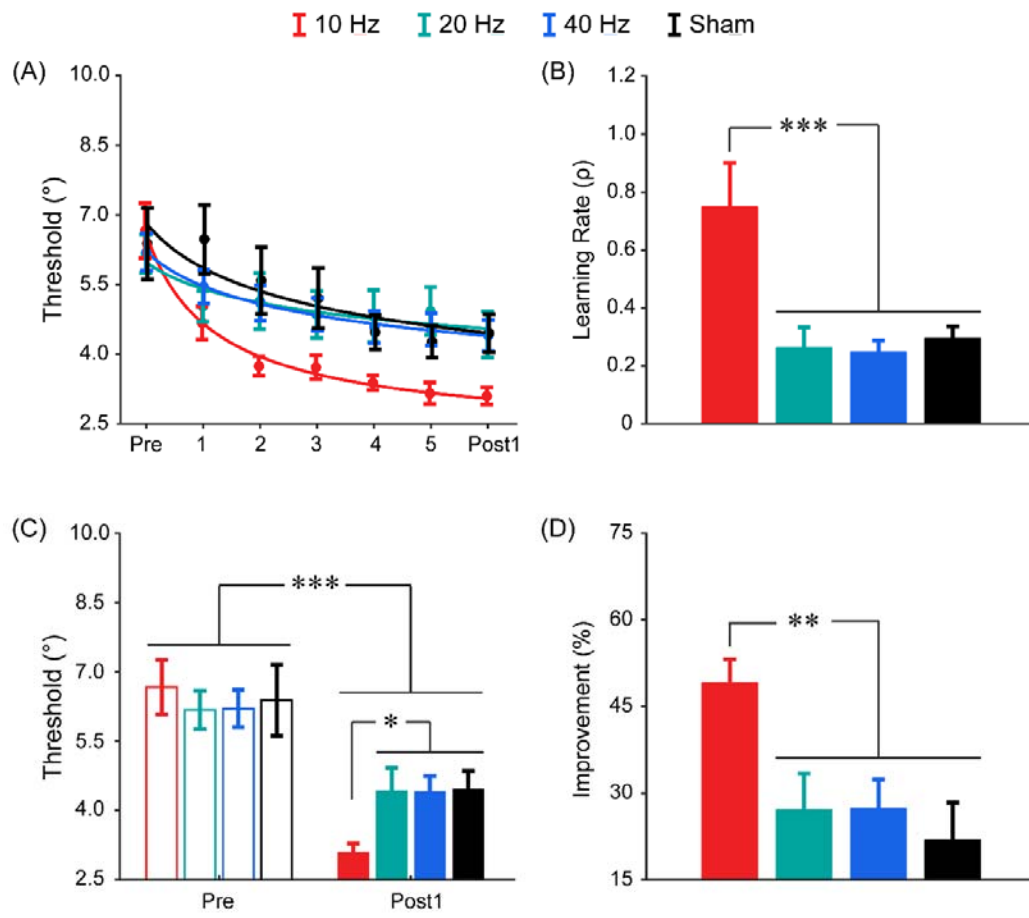
796 **Figure 1**



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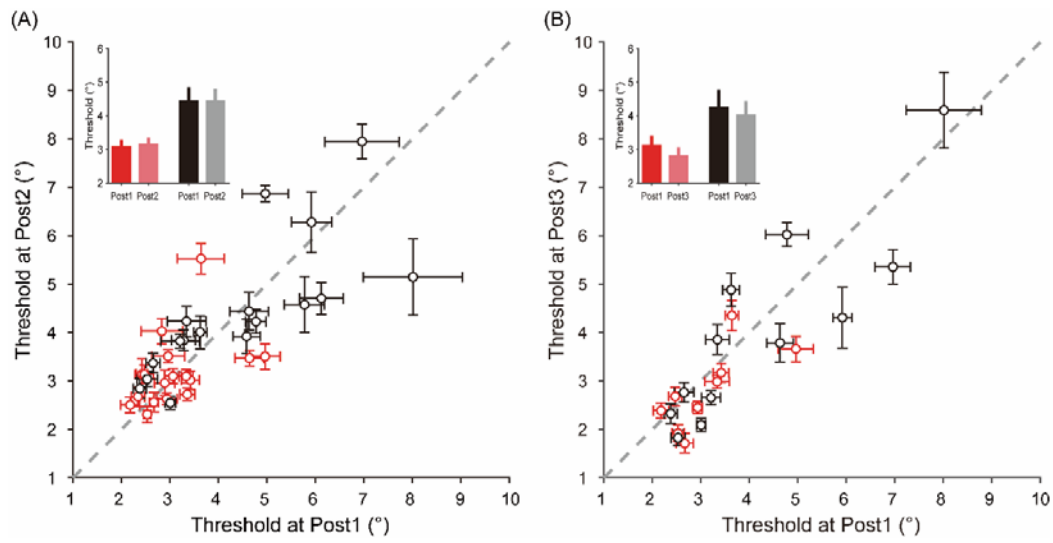
799 **Figure 2**



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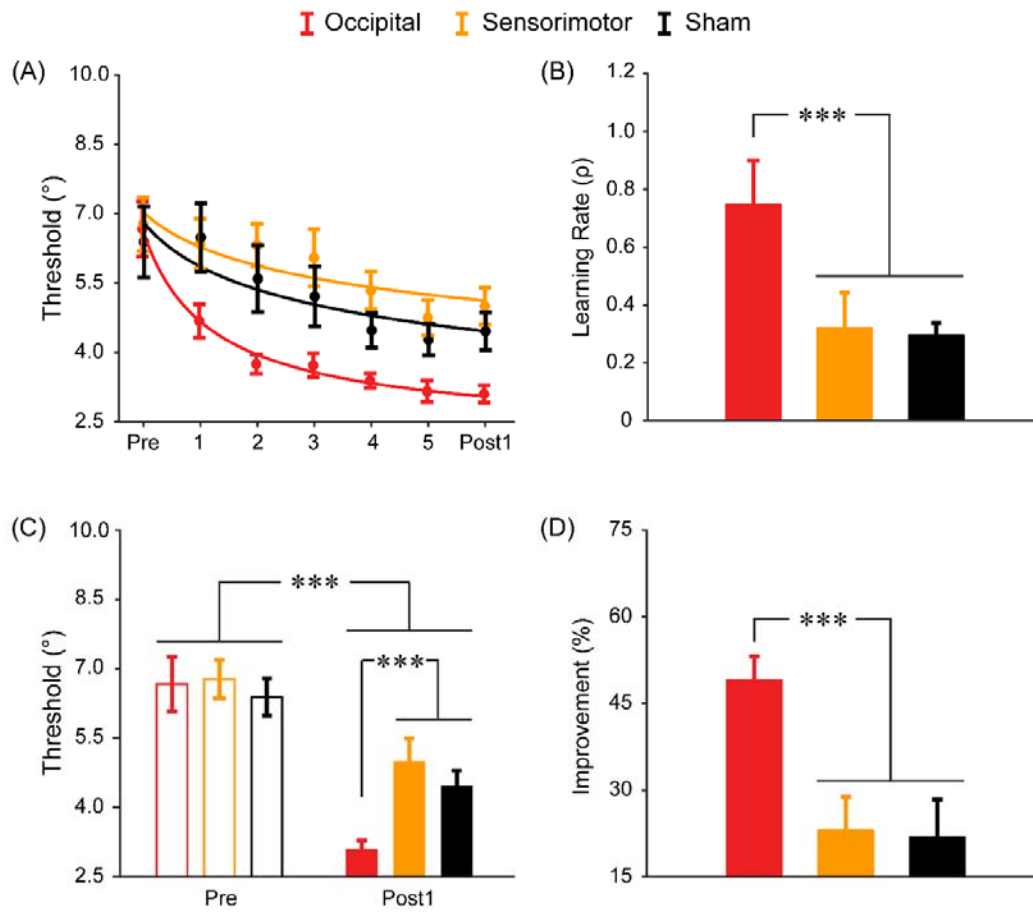
802 **Figure 3**



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805 **Figure 4**



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