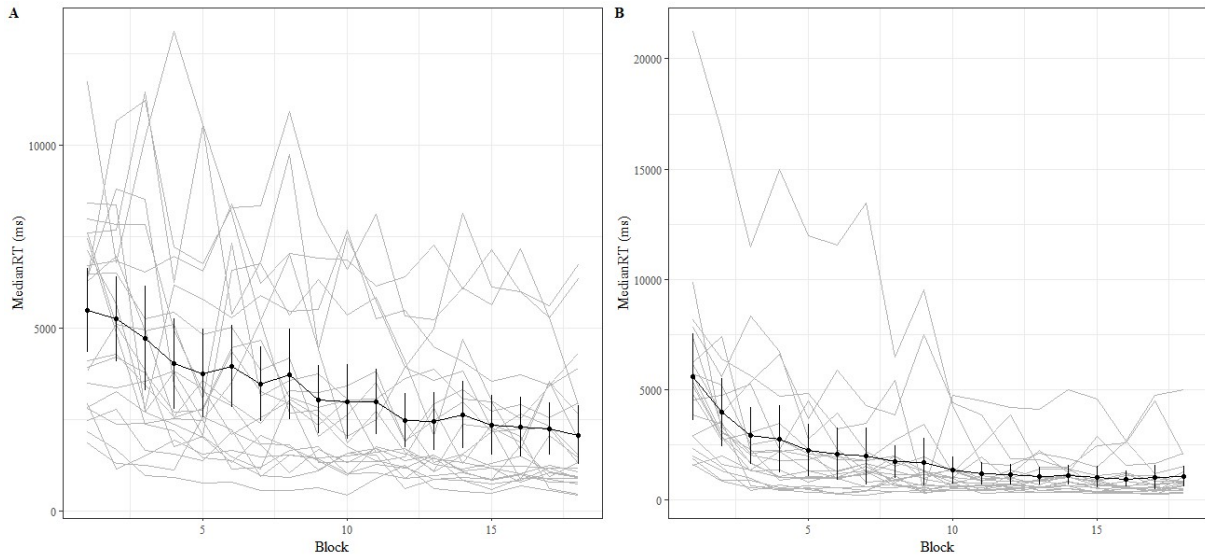


## Supplementary Information

### Supplementary Introduction (osf.io/y4xar)

In addition to the behavioral aspects, overlearning recently has been suggested to be associated with a change in the ratio of excitation and inhibition (E/I ratio) (Shibata et al., 2017). The E/I ratio shifted towards a more inhibitory dominant state after overlearning, in this case in a simple visual task and superseded learning. The balance between excitation and inhibition controls the temporal organization of neuronal avalanches which can be considered as a robust feature of spontaneous neuronal activity and are approximated by a power law (Shriki et al., 2013). Human resting-state magnetoencephalography (MEG) (Shriki et al., 2013) and electroencephalography (EEG) (Palva et al., 2013) consist of neuronal avalanches, suggesting that it is a critical state, which is typically measured via a branching parameter. These branching parameters indicate the degree to which a signal propagates between clusters of neurons, with a branching parameter of 1 indicating criticality. Therefore, the present study also investigated if neuronal avalanches could serve as an electrophysiological marker for arithmetic learning and overlearning, and if the effect of tRNS is predicted by the individuals' neuronal avalanches. We reasoned that a branching parameter of neuronal avalanches (in this case,  $\kappa$ ) different from 1 may be seen amongst overlearners, due to increased inhibition as was shown elsewhere using magnetic resonance spectroscopy (Shibata et al., 2017). Considering that tRNS increases excitation, it is expected that overlearning in combination with tRNS leads to a scaling component closer to a critical system, that is, less branching. Learning and tRNS may also impact the branching parameter due to compounded excitation following learning and active tRNS. It was also expected that learning and sham tRNS would show less branching than learning and tRNS ( $\kappa$  is closer to 1).

26 **Supplementary Results**

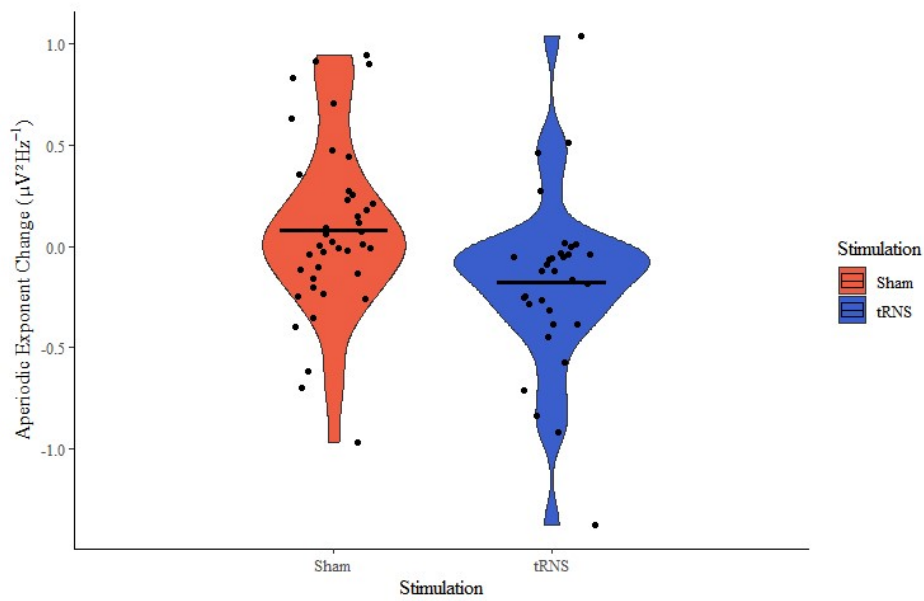


27 **Figure S1| Individual learning curves of the RTs of the learning and overlearning task.**  
28 **A)** The individual learning curves of the participants who received sham stimulation (n=22)  
29 during learning shows a linear gradient. **B)** The individual learning curve of the participants  
30 who received sham stimulation (n=21) during overlearning. Bars indicate 95% confidence  
31 intervals.

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43 **Figure S2| Individual change in aperiodic exponent for both stimulation groups.**  
44 Individual data points indicate the aperiodic exponent change (post-pre) for the sham  
45 stimulation group (in red) and the tRNS group (in blue). Means are indicated with a solid  
46 black line. Note that this figure is based after the exclusion of outliers.

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56 ***Bayesian ANCOVA***

57 Task (learning/overlearning) and stimulation (tRNS/sham) were included as a fixed  
58 factor and the individual plateau as a covariate. The model with only stimulation included was  
59 the most probable model ( $P(M|data)=0.41$ ,  $BF_M=6.15$ ,  $BF_{10}=3.75$ ) compared to the null model  
60 after observing the data. To account for model uncertainty, we looked at the Bayesian model  
61 averaging, which tested the effects of both predictors (i.e., stimulation and task) and showed  
62 that the data were 3.20 more likely under models containing stimulation as a predictor  
63 compared to all models ( $BF_{incl}=3.20$ ). The data was only 0.35 times as likely for task as a  
64 predictor and similarly for the interaction between stimulation and task compared to all  
65 models ( $BF_{incl}=0.85$ ). This complementary analysis strengthens the conclusions that tRNS  
66 impacts the aperiodic exponent (mean change effect= -0.11, 95% credible interval (CrI;  
67 posterior distribution that contains 95% of the data)) tRNS [-0.21, -0.01], 95% CrI Sham  
68 [0.01, 0.21]), while task has no effect (mean change effect=0.02, 95% CrI learning [-0.12,  
69 0.06], 95% CrI overlearning [-0.07, 0.12]).

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78 *Model Comparisons for Learning and Overlearning (RTs)*

79 We implemented several model comparisons with the leave-one-out cross-validation  
80 (LOO) based on our brms model to determine the best fit for the learning and overlearning  
81 task data. First, we determined our starting model with the thought that the RTs should  
82 decrease over blocks and be dependent on the task paradigm.

83 Syntax:

```
84 Mod1 <- brm(medianRT ~ Block * Task + (1 + Block|Participant), family=lognormal,  
85 iter=5000, data=df_learning, save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE)))
```

86 Next, we added levels of complexity by adding our predictors stimulation and baseline  
87 aperiodic exponent to see if the fit with our data increases.

```
88 Mod2 <- brm(medianRT ~ Stimulation + Block + Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +  
89 Block|Participant, family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,  
90 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE)))
```

```
91 Mod3 <- brm(medianRT ~ Stimulation * Block + Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +  
92 Block|Participant, family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,  
93 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE)))
```

```
94 Mod4 <- brm(medianRT ~ Block + Stimulation * Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +  
95 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,  
96 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE)))
```

```
97 Mod5 <- brm(medianRT ~ Block * Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + Stimulation + (1 +  
98 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,  
99 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE)))
```

```

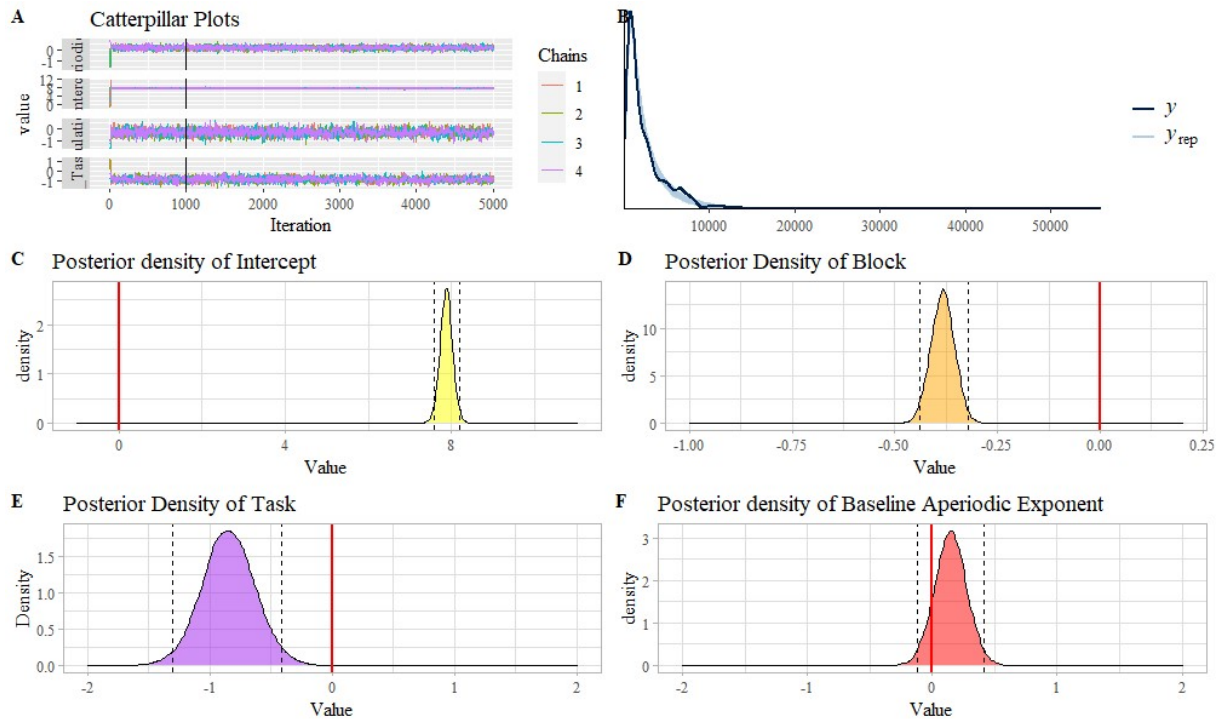
100 Mod6 <- brm(medianRT ~ Stimulation * Block * Aperiodic_Baseline * Task + (1 +
101 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,
102 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
103 Mod7 <- brm(medianRT ~ Stimulation * Block * Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +
104 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,
105 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
106 Mod8 <- brm(medianRT ~ Block + Aperiodic_Baseline * Task * Stimulation + (1 +
107 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,
108 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
109 Mod9 <- brm(medianRT ~ Block + Aperiodic_Baseline + Task * Stimulation + (1 +
110 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,
111 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
112 Mod10 <- brm(medianRT ~ Block * Task * Stimulation + Aperiodic_Baseline + (1 +
113 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_learning,
114 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
115 Loo(Mod1, Mod2, Mod3, Mod4, Mod5, Mod6, Mod7, Mod8, Mod9, Mod10)

```

Model	elpd_diff	ee_diff
Mod8	0.0	0.0
Mod10	-0.1	1.2
Mod6	-0.2	1.3
Mod9	-0.4	0.3
Mod7	-0.4	0.5
Mod3	-0.5	0.3
Mod1	-0.9	0.6
Mod2	-1.0	0.3
Mod5	-1.3	0.6
Mod4	-1.6	0.3

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119 **Figure S3| Output of the Bayesian mixed effects model with the three-way interaction.**  
 120 **A)** The hairy caterpillar plots showing that convergence was reached in all four chains. **B)**  
 121 Comparison of the observed outcomes ( $y$ ) and the kernel density estimate of the replications  
 122 of  $y$  from the posterior predictive distribution ( $y_{rep}$ ). This posterior predictive check shows a  
 123 good fit. **C)** The posterior density of the intercept. **D)** The posterior density of block. **E)** The  
 124 posterior density of task. **F)** The posterior density of the baseline aperiodic exponent (87% of  
 125 the distribution is above zero).

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135 *Model Comparison for Learning and Overlearning (Accuracy)*

136 Similarly to our brms models with RTs, we implemented several model comparisons  
137 with the leave-one-out cross-validation (LOO) to determine the best fit for the learning and  
138 overlearning task data. Note that this additional analysis served as a check since we do not  
139 expect any reliable results due to the instructions that were given to the participants. Namely,  
140 the participants were urged to avoid errors and there was no time limit present. This means  
141 that the accuracy should be consistent during the task. Note that the mean accuracy was  
142 calculated per block.

143 Syntax:

```
144 Mod1.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Block * Task + (1 + Block|Participant), family=lognormal,  
145 iter=5000, data=df_ACC, save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
```

146 Next, we added levels of complexity by adding our predictors stimulation and baseline  
147 aperiodic exponent to see if the fit with our data increases.

```
148 Mod2.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Stimulation + Block + Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +  
149 Block|Participant, family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,  
150 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
```

```
151 Mod3.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Stimulation * Block + Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +  
152 Block|Participant, family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,  
153 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
```

```
154 Mod4.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Block + Stimulation * Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +  
155 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,  
156 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))
```



```
157 Mod5.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Block * Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + Stimulation + (1 +
158 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,
159 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))

160 Mod6.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Stimulation * Block * Aperiodic_Baseline * Task + (1 +
161 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,
162 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))

163 Mod7.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Stimulation * Block * Aperiodic_Baseline + Task + (1 +
164 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,
165 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))

166 Mod8.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Block + Aperiodic_Baseline * Task * Stimulation + (1 +
167 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,
168 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))

169 Mod9.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Block + Aperiodic_Baseline + Task * Stimulation + (1 +
170 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,
171 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))

172 Mod10.A <- brm(meanRTACC ~ Block * Task * Stimulation + Aperiodic_Baseline + (1 +
173 Block|Participant), family=lognormal, iter=5000, data=df_ACC,
174 save_pars=save_pars(all=TRUE))

175

176

177

178
```

179 Loo(Mod1.A, Mod2.A, Mod3.A, Mod4.A, Mod5.A, Mod6.A, Mod7.A, Mod8.A, Mod9.A,  
180 Mod10.A)

Model	elpd_diff	se_diff
Mod3.A	0.0	0.0
Mod5.A	-2.1	2.8
Mod10.A	-2.8	2.6
Mod1.A	-3.1	3.5
Mod2.A	-3.4	3.4
Mod7.A	-3.6	2.6
Mod6.A	-3.9	2.9
Mod4.A	-4.2	4.4
Mod8.A	-4.5	4.3
Mod9.A	-5.2	4.4

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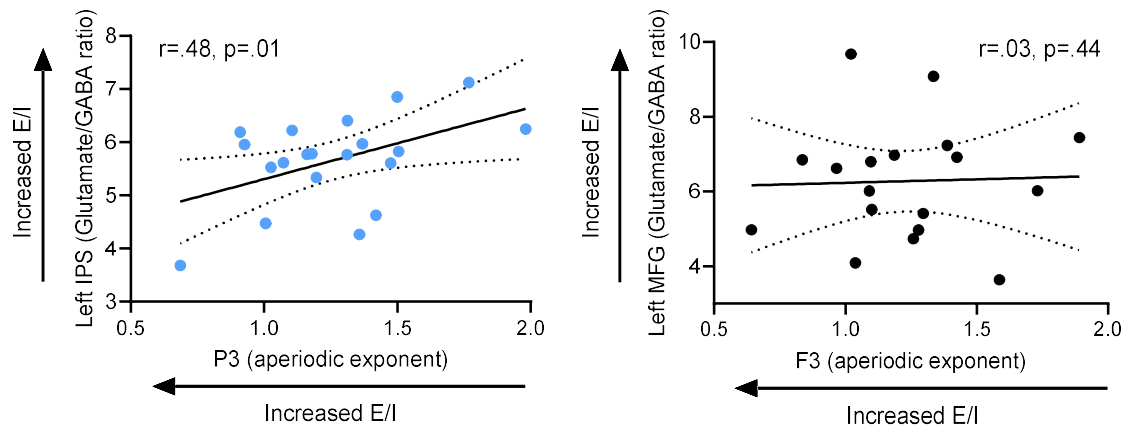
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196 **Figure S4| Correlations between MRS-based E/I and EEG-based E/I.** On the left a  
 197 positive correlation between the left IPS and electrode P3, which is placed approximately  
 198 above this region, showing that an increase in E/I in the IPS as it is based on  
 199 glutamate/GABA is associated with a decreased E/I as indicated by aperiodic exponent  
 200 ( $r=0.48$ , 95% CI [0.05, 0.76],  $p=0.01$  (one-tailed)). On the right, a non-significant correlation  
 201 between the left MFG E/I and the electrode nearly this region ( $r=0.03$ , 95% CI [-0.44, 0.49],  
 202  $p=0.44$  (one-tailed)). These results are in line with our prediction that both measures  
 203 characterise different aspects of E/I, and in contrast to the view that both measures reflect a  
 204 similar quantification of E/I, which should have been characterised by a negative correlation.

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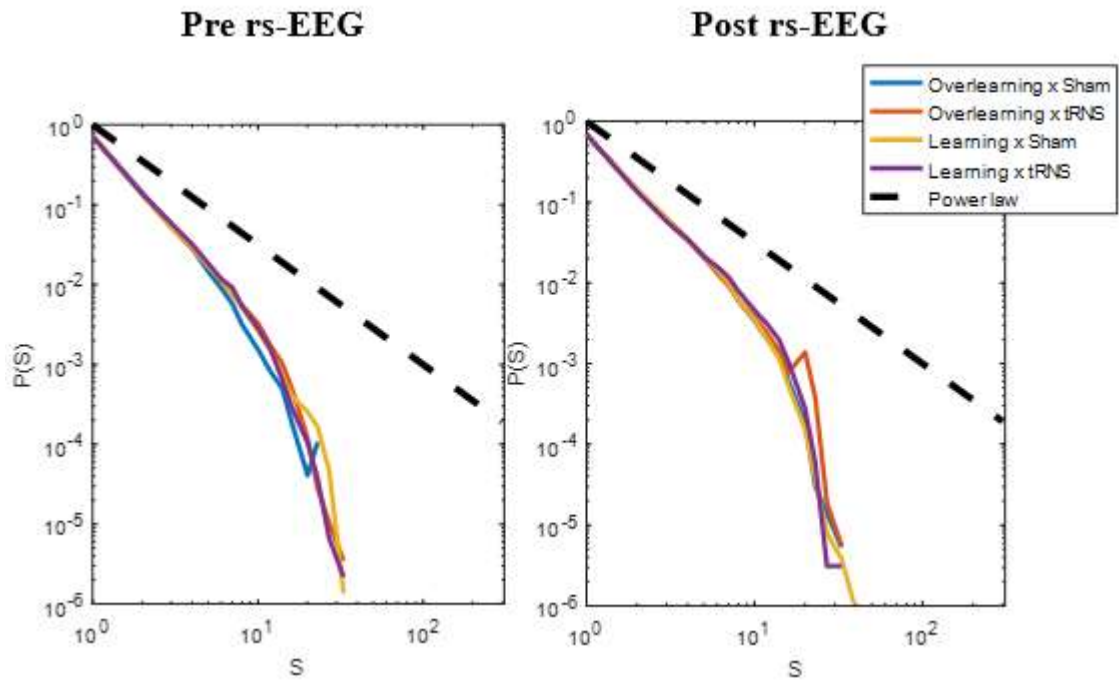
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215 *Neuronal Avalanches (osf.io/y4xar)*

216           When comparing the presence of neuronal avalanches for the different groups for the  
217 pre and the post resting-state (rs) EEG, the neuronal avalanches were plotted against a standard  
218 power law (see **Figure S5**). There is no difference between the four groups regarding the pre  
219 rs-EEG. However, for the post rs-EEG there is a small diversion in the power law for the  
220 overlearning X tRNS condition. This diversion was explored further in the statistical regression  
221 analysis using  $\kappa$  for post rs-EEG values during overlearning. Note that we removed an  
222 additional 4 outliers in the overlearning group compared to the sample in the main manuscript.  
223 Predictors included median RT baseline, stimulation (tRNS x sham), plateau (i.e. amount of  
224 overlearning), and branching ( $\kappa$ ) values in the pre rs-EEG and learning rate. We found that  $\kappa$   
225 values during pre rs-EEG significantly predicted the  $\kappa$  values during post rs-EEG ( $\beta=.05^{-1}$ ,  
226  $SE=0.02^{-1}$ ,  $t(27)=2.17$ ,  $p=0.03$ ). The predictor model was able to account for 10% of the  
227 variance of  $\kappa$  values in the post rs-EEG ( $F(5,27)=1.72$ ,  $p=.16$ ,  $R^2=.10$ ). However, no  
228 interaction with stimulation and individual plateau was found ( $\beta=.05^{-1}$ ,  $SE=0.05^{-1}$ ,  $t(27)=.98$ ,  
229  $p=.33$ ).

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232 **Figure S5| Neuronal avalanches for the pre and post rs-EEG for the four conditions**  
 233 **following power laws.** Cascade size distributions are shown on the x-axis plotted against the  
 234 probability on the y-axis for the pre rs-EEG (left) and the post rs-EEG (right) using  $\Delta t=6$  ms.  
 235 The dashed black line represents a perfect power law with an exponent of  $-3/2$ . The different  
 236 line colors in both plots indicate the four condition (task: learning x overlearning; stimulation:  
 237 tRNS x sham).

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247 **Table S1**| Sensations between the tRNS and the sham stimulation group as tested with the  
248 Mann-Whitney's U test (n=102)

Sensations	U-value	p
Itching	1058	.43
Pain	1142.5	.92
Burning	1090.5	.41
Warmth/Heat	1109.5	.70
Pinching	1089	.52
Iron Taste	1125	.30
Fatigue	1092.5	.74
Subjective performance	1080	.48

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258 **Supplementary Materials and Methods**

259 **Table S2**| List of the 4 presented multiplication problems used as training and the 10  
260 multiplication problems presented during the baseline task.

Operand 1	Operand 2
15	5
18	5
12	5
17	5
23	4
19	4
14	3
13	3
27	2
13	7
26	2
16	3
18	4
21	3

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265 **Table S3**| List of one block of the presented multiplication problems used during the learning  
266 task and overlearning task.

Learning task		Overlearning task	
Operand 1	Operand 2	Operand 1	Operand 2
17	4	17	4
14	6	14	6
29	2	29	2
17	3	17	3
24	3	24	3
12	8		
29	3		
13	6		
16	6		
12	7		

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275 Due to the comparison of neural activity between the pre and post rs-EEG, we decided to  
276 remove an additional three participants from the neuronal avalanches analysis with an excluded  
277 post rs-EEG recording according to our previous exclusion criteria. To identify neuronal  
278 avalanches, standardized z-scores were calculated for each channel. Hereafter, timepoints were  
279 identified in which each channel exceeded a z score of three standard deviations (our predefined  
280 threshold; Shriki et al., 2013). In other words, periods were identified in which each electrode  
281 contained elevated activity. Data was subsequently binned into time blocks of 6 ms. A neuronal  
282 avalanche is considered to be any length of time in which a superthreshold event occurs. In  
283 short, when 6 ms passes and no further events occur, the neuronal avalanche is over. The size  
284 of the neuronal avalanches is the number of superthreshold events (spikes) occurring before the  
285 6 ms of time when no events is seen. Lastly, the size of the neuronal avalanches was computed,  
286 i.e., occurrence of the amount of spikes in the signal after a 6 ms time window (Shriki et al.,  
287 2013; Shew, Yang, Petermann, Roy, & Plenz, 2009). Regarding the statistical analysis of neural  
288 avalanches, the post rs-EEG was compared to the pre rs-EEG (baseline) and compared between  
289 the four conditions by means of a graphical illustration and a regression model regarding  $\kappa$ .  
290 Branching in neuronal avalanches was indexed using  $\kappa$ . The dependent variable included the  
291 branching ( $\kappa$ ) for the post rs-EEG. Predictors included the baseline performance,  $\kappa$  for the pre  
292 rs-EEG, stimulation, and learning rate.

### 293 *Material and Methods MRS*

294 We recruited 22 healthy participants (16 males, mean age=26.05, standard deviation =6.5)  
295 who completed an MRI scan and EEG session for two different studies. All participants  
296 provided written, informed consent and the study was approved by the University of Oxford's  
297 Medical Sciences Interdivisional Research Ethics Committee (MS-IDREC-C2\_2015\_016).

298 ***MR data Acquisition and Pre-processing***

299 All MRI data were acquired at the Oxford Centre for Functional MRI of the Brain (FMRIB)  
300 on a 3T Siemens MAGNETOM Prisma MRI System equipped with a 32 channel receive-only  
301 head coil. Anatomical high-resolution T1-weighted scans were first acquired (MPRAGE  
302 sequence: TR=1900ms; TE=3.97ms; 192 slices; voxel size=1×1×1mm).

303 For MRS, spectra were measured with a semi-adiabatic localization by adiabatic selective  
304 refocusing (semi-LASER) sequence (TE=32 ms; TR=3.5 s; 32 averages) (Deelchand et al.,  
305 2015; Öz & Tkáč, 2011) with variable power RF pulses with optimized relaxation delays  
306 (VAPOR), water suppression and outer volume saturation. Unsuppressed water spectra  
307 acquired from the same volume of interest were used to remove residual eddy current effects  
308 and to reconstruct the phased array spectra with MRspa  
309 (<https://www.cmrr.umn.edu/downloads/mrspa/>). Two 20mm<sup>3</sup> voxels of interest were manually  
310 placed centred on the left intraparietal sulcus (IPS) and centred on the left inferior/middle  
311 frontal gyrus (FG) based on the individual's T1-weighted image while the participant lay down  
312 in the MR scanner. Acquisition time per voxel of interest was 10-15 minutes including sequence  
313 planning and shimming and B0 shimming.

314 Neurochemicals were quantified with an LCmodel (Provencher, 2001) using a basis set of  
315 simulated spectra generated based on previously reported chemical shifts and coupling  
316 constants based on a VeSPA (versatile simulation, pulses, and analysis) simulation library  
317 (Soher et al., 2011). Simulations were performed using the same RF pulses and sequence  
318 timings as in the 3T system described above. Absolute neurochemical concentrations were  
319 extracted from the spectra using a water signal as an internal reference.

320 As in previous studies, the exclusion criteria for data was the Cramér-Rao bounds (Emir et  
321 al., 2012). Neurotransmitters quantified with Cramér-Rao lower bounds (CRLB, the estimated

322 error of the neurotransmitter quantification) >50% were classified as not detected. Additionally,  
323 we excluded cases with an SNR beyond 3 standard deviations (per voxel of interest, per  
324 neurotransmitter), and neurotransmitter or WM capacity score that fallen beyond 3 standard  
325 deviations from the group mean. This led to the exclusion of 2 cases for the GABA measure of  
326 the frontal gyrus. For each participant, we calculated 4 (brain region (frontal, parietal) \*  
327 neurochemical (GABA, glutamate)) neurotransmitter concentrations all of which were  
328 calculated as the ratios between the absolute neurotransmitter concentrations divided by the  
329 absolute concentration of total creatine (creatine+phosphocreatine). The neurotransmitter  
330 concentrations were referenced to total creatine for (i) creatine is a commonly used as a  
331 reference and it is widely accepted as an internal reference standard, (ii) its signal shares the  
332 same imperfections (e.g., frequency drift, phase drift, and subject motion) as the signal of the  
333 GABA and glutamate as all concentrations are acquired simultaneously (Cohen Kadosh et al.,  
334 2015) measure was similar to our description in the main text. For the correlation analysis one  
335 data was defined as an outlier ( $\pm 3SD$  from the mean) and was removed from the analysis.

336