

## Brain Stimulation Techniques in Cerebral Palsy

Sara Ramezani<sup>1,4</sup>, Naser Amini<sup>2\*</sup>, Neda Sadeghi<sup>3</sup>, Hosein Safakheil<sup>1</sup> and Nasim Vousooghi<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Neuroscience, School of Advanced Technologies in Medicine, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

<sup>2</sup>Cellular and Molecular Research Center, Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

<sup>3</sup>Neuroscience Department, Faculty of Advanced Technologies in Medicine, Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

<sup>4</sup>Neuroscience Research Center, School of Medicine, Guilan University of Medical Sciences, Rasht, Iran

### Abstract

Cerebral palsy (CP) is presented as the most prevalent neurodevelopmental disorder which primarily damages the posture and motor function. Nowadays, major advances in brain imaging and brain stimulation techniques have been prepared the promising status in diagnostic and interventional processes. In this review study, a brief explanation is provided about several techniques of brain stimulation to remedy the children suffered CP; the potential and performance of these techniques in restoration of damaged motor neural circuits; clinical trials ever conducted in this area; safety and tolerability of these novel therapeutic approaches for CP patients. In summary, brain stimulation in various frameworks offers new insights into a novel therapeutic approach for pediatric CP, but efficacy and safety need to be further addressed.

**Keywords:** Brain stimulation; Cerebral palsy; TDCS; DBS; RTMS

### Introduction

Cerebral palsy (CP) is presented as the most prevalent neurodevelopmental disorder which primarily damages the posture and motor function [1-4]. Clinical signs typically can be appeared at early childhood. The prevalence of CP is thought to be 3 to 4 children per 1000 and about 2-2.5 neonates in each 1000 live births [2,3,5,6]. This childhood disability strongly affects quality of life in these populations because it is often accompanied by another psychological and musculoskeletal disorder [1]. Cognitive deficits are seen in approximately 50% of CP population. Also, it is reported that seizure abnormality was appeared in third of children with CP [7,8]. Therefore lack of knowledge can exert a heavy load on their family. Nowadays, major advances in brain imaging and brain stimulation techniques have been prepared the promising status in diagnostic and interventional processes. Rehabilitative intervention, especially occupational therapy in the field of motor learning have been promoting aligned with these technologies and obviously can enhance the chances in the future ahead [9-12]. In this review study, a brief explanation is provided about several techniques of brain stimulation to remedy the children suffered CP; the potential and performance of these techniques in restoration of damaged motor neural circuits; clinical trials ever conducted in this area; safety and tolerability of these novel therapeutic approaches for CP patients.

### Deep Brain Stimulation

Deep brain stimulation (DBS) depicts the innovative interplay between externally applied electrical forces and the central nervous system for diagnostic or therapeutic targets. An electrochemical grid as the basis of the intracellular communication and a chemical reaction for the induction of a precise electrical impulse are fundamental elements of DBS. Impulse initially triggers the release of a specific neurotransmitter of the cell, which in turn activates or deactivates neurons at the stimulation site. This direct electrical stimulation of small cellular community modulates faulty neurochemical systems [13]. A common DBS system has 3 Components: a pulse generator, which is typically implanted in the sub-clavicular area; one or two leads, which are inserted into the target area in the brain; and an insulated extension wire passed subcutaneously. The role of wire is connecting the generator with the lead [14]. Thus, DBS system includes quadripolar electrode inserted into the brain that extends behind the

ear, and an internal pulse generator (IPG) implanted either on top of or deep to the pectoralis fascia. IPG is programmed transcutaneously via a device [15]. Surgical process for implantation of DBS could perform awake or asleep [13]. The system produces short electrical pulses, similar to a cardiac pacemaker. It is substantially important that of patient's symptoms were monitored to adjust the applied setting to the pulse generator for resolving the likely medical problems. In order to, the DBS system must be programmed by a physician [14]. DBS has greatly substituted ablative procedures for the treatment of advanced Parkinson disease, essential tremor, and other movement disorders. In addition it is approved for obsessive compulsive disorder. Although DBS is not a completely curative procedure, it could improve symptoms and quality of life. It is promisingly considered that DBS safer than ablative surgery [14]. By the early 1970s, there were reports based on the chronic DBS systems implanted into the thalamus concerning to chronic pain [16,17]. In 1991, Both Benabid et al. [18] and Blond and Siegfried's groups [19] developed thalamic DBS system for tremor. Thereafter, Cooper and colleagues implemented to locate the electrodes over the cerebellum and into the deep thalamic nuclei in CP, epileptic and spastic paralytic patients [20]. There are a few evidences on the pallidal DBS system as an alternative to pallidotomy [21]. In 1994 sub thalamic nucleus (STN) DBS has been represented the effectiveness for bradykinesia, tremor and rigidity [22,23]. In epilepsy, open-label studies with a small sample size have been revealed the positive findings of DBS application on the hippocampus and STN [24]. Today, DBS is widely accepted as an effective treatment for children with primary generalized dystonia [25]. Katsakiori et al. explored patients with secondary dystonia who treated with DBS. They obtained useful results to improve the patients. Hence, DBS has been utilized successfully in various forms of dystonia [26]. Pallidal DBS is

**\*Corresponding author:** Naser Amini, Cellular and Molecular Research Center, Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran, Tel: (+98)9127356894; Fax: (+98)2188622578; E-mail: [Amini\\_ot@yahoo.com](mailto:Amini_ot@yahoo.com)

**Received** March 16, 2016; **Accepted** September 22, 2016; **Published** September 30, 2016

**Citation:** Ramezani S, Amini N, Sadeghi N, Safakheil H, Vousooghi N (2016) Brain Stimulation Techniques in Cerebral Palsy. J Pediatr Neurol Med 1: 114. doi:10.4172/2472-100X.1000114

**Copyright:** © 2016 Ramezani S, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

an established treatment for medically refractive dystonia [27]. Totally, pediatric application of DBS is still in its early stages and faces to some limitations. However, DBS has been utilized for both hypokinetic and hyper kinetic movement disorders. As mentioned above, Dystonia is the most common condition treated by DBS in pediatric population. CP is arguably the most common cause of dystonia in childhood. The use of DBS for secondary dystonia associated with CP is being investigated by Warren et al. [13]. Oral medications have few benefits in many patients as the side effects frequently exceed those benefits. Hence, motor function improvements cannot be expected in most patients. The stimulation of Globus pallidus internus in children with primary dystonia revealed the effect of BP-DBS in a small subgroup of CP patients with dyskinesia [28]. Therefore, Bilateral pallidal DBS could be an effective therapeutic approach for patients with dystonia-chorea and CP. Scientists even states that in these patients, the optimum therapeutic spot is the posterior lateroventral region of globus pallidus internus (GPi). Diffusion of the stimulation to adjacent structures (mainly Globus pallidus externus), may bring out the little improvement [29]. DBS can offer meaningful changes in multiple domains of general health, dysfunctions and disabilities. Thus, the sequential assessments to evaluate the clinical utilities following DBS via rating scales particularly in children with CP are obligatory [25,30,31]. Possible adverse event following DBS could be hemorrhage resulting in a superficial or deep hematoma. Infection and erosion are side effects of DBS that sometimes the removal of the hardware may require for antibiotic treatment and probable re-implantation. Other risks include those related to tunneling the wires from the head to the chest to implant the device in the chest, and serious medical complication after surgery [14].

### Transcranial Direct Current Stimulation

Transcranial direct current stimulation (TDCS) is a kind of brain stimulation therapies that have attracted much attention these days. In the past decade, several studies have provided insight into the mechanism of action and it's feasibility in rehabilitative interventions [32,33]. TDCS has some advantages than the other brain stimulation techniques. It's noninvasive and only uses two electrodes (anode and cathode) to induce weak direct currents (1-2 mA) in the scalp surface [34]. In TDCS, anodal stimulation causes an enhancement of cortical excitability, whereas cathodal stimulation acts inhibitory. The new TDCS systems are painless, safe, inexpensive and portable, allowing clinicians to accomplish exercise therapy and brain stimulation both together in rehabilitation centers [35-38]. The aim of TDCS is the induction of regional synaptic efficacy and modulating the cortical excitability. This local modulation of electrical activity is impermanent and is induced via weak direct electrical currents to the scalp simply through placement of two electrodes [34,36,39]. TDCS as a new tool of noninvasive brain stimulation has been widely applied and investigated in patients with neurological disorders [39]. There have been some studies which have addressed safety and efficacy aspects in pediatric TDCS. Here we mention them briefly. Auvichayapat et al. reported erythematous rash only in one participant in their experimental group. However, they demonstrated that the active TDCS condition was tolerated well by all participants without any dangerous side effects [40]. Andrade et al. conducted a naturalistic study of fourteen children aged from 5 to 12 who participated in TDCS treatment (10 sessions). The anodal transcranial direct current stimulation consisted of 2 mA for 30 min over the verbal cortex. The primary adverse events that were detected by children's parents included: tingling occurred in 28.6% of children and itching in the same percentage, some acute changes in mood for 42.9% of children and reported irritability was

about 36%. In conclusion, this study introduced TDCS as a feasible and tolerable treatment in children [41]. Moliadze et al. investigated the adjustment of stimulation intensities in children and adolescents for TDCS. The study highlighted age-specific considerations of this technique on electrical activity modulation of cortex for the first time, and underlined the optimization significance of stimulation protocols in TDCS according to age with planning future studies in children [42]. Gillick et al. aimed to construct child-specific TDCS protocols based on dosing parameters. A ten year old child who suffered from presumed perinatal ischemic stroke and hemiparesis was included in the study. In this trial, to determine the current flow and electrode position, researchers used T1 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans. They also incorporated the using method with previous trials. All the parameters including electrode size, electrode placement, dose intensity and time period were precisely checked. The results suggest that improvement in pediatric stroke TDCS guidance needs computational modeling to establish an informed dose customization [43]. The potential ability of this technique to improve motor learning in adults has been shown in many published studies, and multiple clinical trials have provided hopeful results on motor recovery and restoring the balance of the activation between two hemispheres in the sensory and motor systems [44-52]. The approach for applying TDCS in motor function is based on stimulating the lesioned hemisphere and suppressing the intact one over the motor cortex. Through this basic principle, ipsilesional anodal or contralesional cathodal stimulation have been used in studies to assess the motor learning improvement and neuroplasticity mechanisms behind, which is more highlighted in developing brain [49,53-55]. Grecco et al. assessed the combined effect of anodal TDCS and virtual reality for promoting gait in children with spastic diparetic CP. The study designed as a pilot, double-blind randomized clinical trial in rehabilitation centers in 10 sessions. Twenty participants were randomly assigned to the experimental group (with anodal stimulation and virtual reality) and the control group (with sham stimulation and virtual reality). This study demonstrated a significant improvement in experimental group for all measured parameters than another group. So the authors suggested that anodal stimulation combined with virtual reality can improve gait in children with spastic diparetic CP [25]. One study suggested that the combination of TDCS and treadmill training have a positive effect on motor function of children with spastic diparetic cerebral palsy [56]. Grecco et al. investigated the effect of TDCS during treadmill training on the temporal function mobility and gait variables in 24 children with spastic diparetic in a randomized double-blind controlled trial. Experimental group received anodal stimulation with 1 mA intensity over the conquering primary motor cortex during the treadmill training for ten 20 min sessions. TDCS led to improve the mobility and gait and induction of cortical excitability that were constant one month after ending the treatment [10]. Duarte et al. also revealed that TDCS combined with treadmill training ameliorated anterior-posterior sway, mediolateral sway and the parameters at pediatric balance scale in CP children. This study also confirmed the influences of anodal TDCS over primary motor cortex during gait training task on functional performance in this population [27]. Young et al. studied the effect of cathodal TDCS to improve voluntary movement in children with dystonia once in a pilot open-label and once in a sham- controlled study. Patients controlled the overflow in hand muscles better when the cathode electrode was placed on opposite hemisphere [57-59]. Bhanpuri et al. postulated that TDCS cannot be clinically applicable for decreasing childhood dystonia. They conducted a double-blind sham-controlled crossover study to survey the effect of TDCS on dystonia. The stimulation protocol consisted of 2 mA current over the motor cortex for 9 minutes in every session. They

found that cathodal stimulation resulted in the symptoms reduction in some children which was not clinically significant and anodal stimulation worsened symptoms [60]. Gillick et al. demonstrated some benefits of TDCS and constraint induced movement therapy (CIMT) in children and adolescents with hemiparesis in a randomized double-blind control trial [9]. Collectively, there are many surveys and published guidelines to support the safety and feasibility of TDCS in adults. Whereas, very few studies have been performed to investigate the TDCS application in children with CP, the available evidences confirm the tolerability and the potential of using TDCS technique in these children. No seizure or other adverse side effects have been reported so far. The existing studies have mentioned some symptoms like transient tingling or mild itching [32,35-38]. Therefore, application of TDCS as a clinical procedure in pediatric CP is desirable for many clinicians and researchers. Nevertheless, it should be cautiously applied in children.

### Repetitive Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation

Human transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) was invented in approximately last three decade [61]; abundant studies have been carried out using TMS for investigating neuroplasticity after brain injuries. However, few studies have focused on children. TMS is a simple painless, non-invasive technique that applies based on the principle of electromagnetic induction to produce electrical currents in the brain [62]. Passing of an electric current through a figure-eight conductive coil located over the scalp creates an electromagnetic field across neuronal membranes that causes the regional electrical changes and depolarizes cortical neurons according to Faraday's Law. Repetitive stimulation with TMS can modulate cortical excitability and generate permanent changes in brain function [63]. Cortical excitability was facilitated or inhibited via manipulation of the frequency and intensity of the repetitive TMS (rTMS) pulses [64,65]. A magnetic stimulator is used to deliver pulses of varying intensity, frequency and duration. That is based on the theory model suggesting the Low-frequency rTMS inhibits regional brain activity [66] and increases contralateral cortical excitability via modulation of interhemispheric inhibition [67]. In the beginning, TMS was applied to investigate recovery and prognosis after stroke [68,69] and neuropsychiatric diseases [70]. Whereas, several studies have raised the concern of application of repetitive rTMS as therapeutic intervention to remedy the some neurological and psychiatric diseases including stroke, refractory epilepsy, neuropathic pain, schizophrenia and major depression [71,72]. The utilization of rTMS especially in children is thought to be the perfect research method to study the maturational process of corticospinal tracts [73] as well as in the treatment of psychiatric disorders including attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) [74]. High frequency rTMS (>5-10 Hz) stimulation of cortex in adults with stroke suggest capacity of rTMS in facilitation of motor function [75,76]. Furthermore, rTMS is well suited to randomized, sham-controlled clinical trials [77]. So far, serious adverse events in rTMS studies have not reported [78-80] It seems that application of this therapeutic approach in adults [81-84] and children with stroke are safe and tolerable [85]. Although substantial evidence is emerged about rTMS effect on improved motor function in chronic adult stroke [86-88], interventional studies related to rTMS in children expose to some barriers because of the methodological and safety consideration [79]. The most pediatric trials about the rTMS application in neurological diseases were mainly accomplished on pediatric stroke and spasticity. Application of rTMS in chronic stroke relies on the idea that a significant higher interhemispheric inhibitory drive from the cortical non-lesioned homologue area to the cortical lesioned area during the generation of

a voluntary movement is occurred after stroke than healthy condition that correlates with poor motor performance [89]. Kirton et al. [85] took a design in which ten patients with chronic subcortical Arterial Ischemic Stroke (AIS) who had transcallosal sparing, aged more than 7 years, suffered hand motor impairment and had no seizures or dyskinesia were randomly separated to sham treatment (five patients) or inhibitory, low-frequency rTMS (five patients) over contralesional motor cortex (20 min, 1200 stimuli) once per day for 8 days. rTMS was well tolerated with no serious adverse events. Non-lesional inhibitory rTMS improved function of affected hand but did not result in any changes in function of unaffected hand. Clinical utilities in some paradigms of movement such as grip strength were maintained a week after treatment ending. Serious adverse events did not pose in this study [85]. Initial evidence to use of cortical stimulation in treatment spasticity was provided by Valle and colleagues. They focused on the effect of rTMS to improve spasticity in CP children. They designed a randomized, double-blinded sham-controlled clinical trial in which 17 patients with spastic quadriplegia were allocated to receive sham (six patients), 1 Hz rTMS (six patients) or 5 Hz rTMS (five patients). High frequency (5Hz) rTMS were safe and tolerable and modestly reduced spasticity and improved elbow movement. It is not clarified whether the improvements were transient or long lasting [90]. It seems that increase in cortical motor activity by excitatory rTMS would induce an overall increase in inhibitory projection of motor cortex on spinal cord through the corticospinal tract, thus reduce the spinal excitability and spinal H-reflex consequently improve spasticity [91,92]. One double-blind randomized clinical trial phase II has been running since 2012 so far [NCT02057276] in which benefits and safety of rTMS combined to occupational therapy on children and adults with chronic hemiparesis are investigated. Another rTMS study is now executing on pediatric CP [NCT02518867] to evaluate the clinical efficacy of low and high rTMS on motor disability of these population. The results of these two studies have not been reported yet. It is concluded that rTMS for pediatric motor disability has therapeutic potential and patients tolerate the treatment well. There is no evidence based on the appearance of seizure and permanent hearing loss following rTMS using in pediatric researches but it induces transient EEG changes and transient threshold shifts and tinnitus [93-95]. Other potential side effects include headache and local scalp pain. [96]. However, further well-designed studies for pediatric CP are demanded. It should be mentioned that patients having intracranial metallic implants, cardiac pacemakers and implanted medication pumps should not be undergone the rTMS. Also, rTMS using for those are taking antidepressants must be cautiously exerted because of these medications lower seizure threshold. However elements such as age, etiology of disorder and sex can be effective in result using brain stimulation modalities [73-77].

### Conclusion

Brain stimulation techniques have opened new potential avenues in neurorehabilitation of pediatric CP and is not associated with an increased risk in children. Literature shows that modulation of the brain activity using stimulation techniques can be useful in pediatric populations, therefore increasing the scope for application of these therapeutic approaches in children. Current evidence supports the bold beneficial influence of DBS, TDCS and rTMS in dystonia, spasticity and pediatric stroke induced-hemiparesis respectively. Besides these positive findings, evidence for the use of stimulation techniques clinically in pediatric motor disability and paralysis should be viewed with caution because of extremely small sample size in most of studies and substantial heterogeneity in characteristics. It seems that these approaches cannot yet be applied as a clinical procedure in children

which indicates further confirmatory trials are worthwhile. Inexpensive cost and safety of rTMS and TDCS relative to DBS has been preferred them for users. One safety aspect that should be considered is the potential of rTMS and TDCS to trigger seizures in children with stroke. Since the lesioned motor cortex often displays abnormal electrical activity, monitoring the electrical activity with electroencephalography and electromyography is crucial during rTMS and TDCS. Another aspect that needs to be deliberated is clinical efficacy persistence. Whether clinical utilities represent a change in quality of life should be elucidated. In summary, brain stimulation in various frameworks offers new insights into a novel therapeutic approach for pediatric CP, but efficacy and safety need to be further addressed.

#### Acknowledgement

The authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interests. This study was financially supported by the grant no.24317 from Iran University of Medical Sciences.

#### References

1. Aisen ML, Kerkovich D, Mast J, Mulroy S, Wren TA, et al. (2011) Cerebral palsy: Clinical care and neurological rehabilitation. *Lancet Neurol* 10: 844-852.
2. Bax MC, Flodmark O, Tydeman C (2007) Definition and classification of cerebral palsy: A historical perspective. *Dev Med Child Neurol Suppl* 109: 39-41.
3. Pervin R, Ahmed S, Hyder RT, Yasmeen BHN, Rahman M, et al. (2013) Cerebral palsy-an update. *Northern International Medical College Journal* 5: 293-296.
4. Reid LB, Rose SE, Boyd RN (2015) Rehabilitation and neuroplasticity in children with unilateral cerebral palsy. *Nat Rev Neurol* 11: 390-400.
5. Stanley FJ, Blair E, Alberman E (2000) Cerebral palsies: Epidemiology and causal pathways. Cambridge University Press.
6. Yeargin-Allsopp M, Van Naarden Braun K, Doernberg NS, Benedict RE, Kirby RS, et al. (2008) Prevalence of cerebral palsy in 8 year old children in three areas of the United States in 2002: A multisite collaboration. *Pediatrics* 121: 547-554.
7. Kirby RS, Wingate MS, Van Naarden Braun K, Doernberg NS, Arneson CL, et al. (2011) Prevalence and functioning of children with cerebral palsy in four areas of the United States in 2006: A report from the autism and developmental disabilities monitoring network. *Research in Developmental Disabilities* 32: 462-469.
8. Sigurdardottir S, Vik T (2011) Speech, expressive language and verbal cognition of preschool children with cerebral palsy in Iceland. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology* 53: 74-80.
9. Gillick B, Menk J, Mueller B, Meekins G, Krach LE, et al. (2015) Synergistic effect of combined transcranial direct current stimulation/constraint-induced movement therapy in children and young adults with hemiparesis: Study protocol. *BMC pediatrics* 15: 178.
10. Grecco LAC, de Almeida Carvalho Duarte N, Mendonça ME, Cimolin V, Galli M, et al. (2014) Transcranial direct current stimulation during treadmill training in children with cerebral palsy: A randomized controlled double-blind clinical trial. *Research in Developmental Disabilities* 35: 2840-2848.
11. Taub E, Uswatte G, Elbert T (2002) New treatments in neurorehabilitation founded on basic research. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 3: 228-236.
12. Wolf SL, Winstein CJ, Miller JP, Thompson PA, Taub E, et al. (2008) Retention of upper limb function in stroke survivors who have received constraint-induced movement therapy: The EXCITE randomised trial. *The Lancet Neurology* 7: 33-40.
13. Marks WA, Honeycutt J, Acosta F, Reed M (2009) Deep brain stimulation for pediatric movement disorders. *Semin Pediatr Neurol* 16: 90-98.
14. Machado A, Fernandez HH, Deogaonkar M (2012) Deep brain stimulation: What can patients expect from it? *Cleve Clin J Med* 79: 113-120.
15. Schwalb JM, Riina HA, Skolnick B, Jaggi JL, Simuni T, et al. (2001) Revision of deep brain stimulator for tremor. Technical note. *J Neurosurg* 94: 1010-1012.
16. Hosobuchi Y, Adams JE, Rutkin B (1973) Chronic thalamic stimulation for the control of facial anesthesia dolorosa. *Arch Neurol* 29: 158-161.
17. Mazars G, Merienne L, Cioloca C (1974) Treatment of certain types of pain with implantable thalamic stimulation. *Neurochirurgie* 20: 117-124.
18. Benabid AL, Pollak P, Gervason C, Hoffmann D, Gao DM, et al. (1991) Long-term suppression of tremor by chronic stimulation of the ventral intermediate thalamic nucleus. *Lancet* 337: 403-406.
19. Blond S, Siegfried J (1991) Thalamic stimulation for the treatment of tumor and other movement disorders. *Acta Neurochir Suppl (Wien)* 52: 109-111.
20. Rosenow J, Das K, Rovit RL, Couldwell WT (2002) Irving S Cooper and his role in intracranial stimulation for movement disorders and epilepsy. *Stereotact Funct Neurosurg* 78: 95-112.
21. Siegfried J, Lippitz B (1994) Bilateral chronic electrostimulation of ventroposterolateral pallidum: a new therapeutic approach for alleviating all parkinsonian symptoms. *Neurosurgery* 35: 1126-1129.
22. Hamani C, Richter E, Schwalb JM, Lozano AM (2005) Bilateral subthalamic nucleus stimulation for Parkinson's disease: A systematic review of the clinical literature. *Neurosurgery* 56: 1313-1321.
23. Yu H, Neimat JS (2008) The treatment of movement disorders by deep brain stimulation. *Neurotherapeutics* 5: 26-36.
24. Halpern CH, Samadani U, Litt B, Jaggi JL, Baltuch GH (2008) Deep brain stimulation for epilepsy. *Neurotherapeutics* 5: 59-67.
25. Gimeno H, Tustin K (2012) Beyond the burke-fall; ppoihh-marsden dystonia rating scale: Deep Brain Stimulation in childhood secondary dystonia. *European journal of pediatric Neurology* 16: 501-508.
26. Katsakiori PF, Kefalopoulou Z, Markaki E, Paschali A, Ellul J, et al. (2009) Deep brain stimulation for secondary dystonia: Results in 8 patients. *Acta Neurochir (Wien)* 151: 473-478.
27. Ostrem JL, Starr PA (2008) Treatment of dystonia with deep brain stimulation. *Neurotherapeutics* 5: 320-330.
28. Berweck S (2009) BP-DBS for dystonia-choreoathetosis cerebral palsy. *Lancet Neurol* 8: 692-693.
29. Vidailhet M, Yelnik J, Lagrange C, Fraix V, Grabli D, et al. (2009) Bilateral pallidal deep brain stimulation for the treatment of patients with dystonia-choreoathetosis cerebral palsy: A prospective pilot study. *Lancet Neurol* 8: 709-717.
30. Krauss JK, Loher TJ, Weigel R, Capelle HH, Weber S, et al. (2003) Chronic stimulation of the globus pallidus internus for treatment of non-dYT1 generalized dystonia and choreoathetosis: 2-year follow up. *J Neurosurg* 98: 785-792.
31. Pretto TE, Dalvi A, Kang UJ, Penn RD (2008) A prospective blinded evaluation of deep brain stimulation for the treatment of secondary dystonia and primary torticollis syndromes. *J Neurosurg* 109: 405-409.
32. Brunoni AR, Nitsche MA, Bolognini N, Bikson M, Wagner T, et al. (2012) Clinical research with transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS): Challenges and future directions. *Brain stimulation* 5: 175-195.
33. Jacobson L, Koslowsky M, Lavidor M (2012) tDCS polarity effects in motor and cognitive domains: A meta-analytical review. *Exp Brain Res* 216: 1-10.
34. Zaghi S, Acar M, Hultgren B, Boggio PS, Fregni F (2010) Noninvasive brain stimulation with low-intensity electrical currents: Putative mechanisms of action for direct and alternating current stimulation. *Neuroscientist* 16: 285-307.
35. Brunoni AR, Amadera J, Berbel B, Volz MS, Rizzerio BG, et al. (2011) A systematic review on reporting and assessment of adverse effects associated with transcranial direct current stimulation. *The International Journal of Neuropsychopharmacology* 14: 1133-1145.
36. Nitsche M, Paulus W (2000) Excitability changes induced in the human motor cortex by weak transcranial direct current stimulation. *The Journal of physiology* 527: 633-639.
37. Nitsche MA, Cohen LG, Wassermann EM, Priori A, Lang N, et al. (2008) Transcranial direct current stimulation: State of the art 2008. *Brain Stimul* 1: 206-223.
38. Poreisz C, Boros K, Antal A, Paulus W (2007) Safety aspects of transcranial direct current stimulation concerning healthy subjects and patients. *Brain research bulletin* 72: 208-214.
39. Grecco LA, Duarte NA, Zanon N, Galli M, Fregni F, et al. (2014) Effect of

- a single session of transcranial direct-current stimulation on balance and spatiotemporal gait variables in children with cerebral palsy: A randomized sham-controlled study. *Brazilian journal of physical therapy* 18: 419-427.
40. Aree-uea B, Auvichayapat N, Janyacharoen T, Siritaratiwat W, Amatachaya A, et al. (2014) Reduction of spasticity in cerebral palsy by anodal transcranial direct current stimulation. *J Med Assoc Thai* 97: 954-962.
41. Andrade AC, Magnavita GM, Allegro JV, Neto CE, Lucena Rde C, et al. (2014) Feasibility of transcranial direct current stimulation use in children aged 5 to 12 years. *Journal of Child Neurology* 29: 1360-1365.
42. Moliadze V, Schmanke T, Andreas S, Lyzhko E, Freitag CM, et al. (2015) Stimulation intensities of transcranial direct current stimulation have to be adjusted in children and adolescents. *Clinical Neurophysiology* 126: 1392-1399.
43. Gillick BT, Kirton A, Carmel JB, Minhas P, Bikson M (2014) Pediatric stroke and transcranial direct current stimulation: Methods for rational individualized dose optimization. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* 8: 739.
44. Boggio PS, Nunes A, Rigonatti SP, Nitsche MA, Pascual-Leone A, et al. (2007) Repeated sessions of noninvasive brain DC stimulation is associated with motor function improvement in stroke patients. *Restorative Neurology and Neuroscience* 25: 123-129.
45. Fregni F, Boggio PS, Mansur CG, Wagner T, Ferreira MJ, et al. (2005) Transcranial direct current stimulation of the unaffected hemisphere in stroke patients. *Neuroreport* 16: 1551-1555.
46. Hummel F, Celnik P, Giraux P, Floel A, Wu WH, et al. (2005) Effects of non-invasive cortical stimulation on skilled motor function in chronic stroke. *Brain* 128: 490-499.
47. Hummel F, Cohen LG (2005) Improvement of motor function with noninvasive cortical stimulation in a patient with chronic stroke. *Neurorehabilitation and neural repair* 19: 14-19.
48. Hummel FC, Voller B, Celnik P, Floel A, Giraux P, et al. (2006) Effects of brain polarization on reaction times and pinch force in chronic stroke. *BMC Neurosci* 7: 73.
49. Lindenberg R, Renga V, Zhu LL, Nair D, Schlaug G (2010) Bihemispheric brain stimulation facilitates motor recovery in chronic stroke patients. *Neurology* 75: 2176-2184.
50. Marquez J, van Vliet P, McElduff P, Lagopoulos J, Parsons M (2015) Transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS): Does it have merit in stroke rehabilitation? A systematic review. *Int J Stroke* 10: 306-316.
51. Nair DG, Renga V, Lindenberg R, Zhu L, Schlaug G (2011) Optimizing recovery potential through simultaneous occupational therapy and non-invasive brain-stimulation using tDCS. *Restorative neurology and neuroscience* 29: 411-420.
52. Reis J, Robertson EM, Krakauer JW, Rothwell J, Marshall L, et al. (2008) Consensus: Can transcranial direct current stimulation and transcranial magnetic stimulation enhance motor learning and memory formation? *Brain stimulation* 1: 363-369.
53. Fritsch B, Reis J, Martinowich K, Schambra HM, Ji Y, et al. (2010) Direct current stimulation promotes BDNF-dependent synaptic plasticity: Potential implications for motor learning. *Neuron* 66: 198-204.
54. Reis J, Schambra HM, Cohen LG, Buch ER, Fritsch B, et al. (2009) Noninvasive cortical stimulation enhances motor skill acquisition over multiple days through an effect on consolidation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 106: 1590-1595.
55. Wittenberg GF (2009) Neural plasticity and treatment across the lifespan for motor deficits in cerebral palsy. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology* 51: 130-133.
56. Collange Grecco LA, de Almeida Carvalho Duarte N, Mendonça ME, Galli M, Fregni F, et al. (2015) Effects of anodal transcranial direct current stimulation combined with virtual reality for improving gait in children with spastic diparetic cerebral palsy: A pilot, randomized, controlled, double-blind, clinical trial. *Clinical Rehabilitation* 29: 1212-1223.
57. Duarte Nde A, Grecco LA, Galli M, Fregni F, Oliveira CS (2014) Effect of transcranial direct-current stimulation combined with treadmill training on balance and functional performance in children with cerebral palsy: A double-blind randomized controlled trial. *PLoS One* 9: e105777.
58. Young SJ, Bertuccio M, Sanger TD (2014) Cathodal transcranial direct current stimulation in children with dystonia a sham-controlled study. *Journal of Child Neurology* 29: 232-239.
59. Young SJ, Bertuccio M, Sheehan-Stross R, Sanger TD (2013) Cathodal transcranial direct current stimulation in children with dystonia: A pilot open-label trial. *J Child Neurol* 28: 1238-1244.
60. Bhanpuri NH, Bertuccio M, Young SJ, Lee AA, Sanger TD (2015) Multiday transcranial direct current stimulation causes clinically insignificant changes in childhood dystonia: A pilot study. *Journal of Child Neurology* 30: 1604-1615.
61. Barker AT, Jalininus R, Freeston IL (1985) Non-invasive magnetic stimulation of human motor cortex. *Lancet* 1: 1106-1107.
62. Hallett M (2000) Transcranial magnetic stimulation and the human brain. *Nature* 406: 147-150.
63. Kirton A, deVeber G, Gunraj C, Chen R (2010) Cortical excitability and interhemispheric inhibition after subcortical pediatric stroke: Plastic organization and effects of rTMS. *Clinical Neurophysiology* 121: 1922-1929.
64. Berardelli A, Inghilleri M, Rothwell JC, Romeo S, Currà A, et al. (1998) Facilitation of muscle evoked responses after repetitive cortical stimulation in man. *Exp Brain Res* 122: 79-84.
65. Chen R, Classen J, Gerloff C, Celnik P, Wassermann EM, et al. (1997) Depression of motor cortex excitability by low-frequency transcranial magnetic stimulation. *Neurology* 48: 1398-1403.
66. Kim YH, You SH, Ko MH, Park JW, Lee KH, et al. (2006) Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation-induced corticomotor excitability and associated motor skill acquisition in chronic stroke. *Stroke* 37: 1471-1476.
67. Pal PK, Hanajima R, Gunraj CA, Li JY, Wagle-Shukla A, et al. (2005) Effect of low-frequency repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation on interhemispheric inhibition. *J Neurophysiol* 94: 1668-1675.
68. Mori F, Koch G, Foti C, Bernardi G, Centonze D (2009) The use of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) for the treatment of spasticity. *Prog Brain Res* 175: 429-439.
69. George MS, Nahas Z, Kozel FA, Goldman J, Molloy M, et al. (1999) Improvement of depression following transcranial magnetic stimulation. *Curr Psychiatry Rep* 1: 114-124.
70. Spampinato C, Aguglia E, Concerto C, Pennisi M, Lanza G, et al. (2013) Transcranial magnetic stimulation in the assessment of motor cortex excitability and treatment of drug-resistant major depression. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Systems and Rehabilitation Engineering* 21: 391-403.
71. Concerto C, Lanza G, Cantone M, Ferri R, Pennisi G, et al. (2015) Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in patients with drug-resistant major depression: a six-month clinical follow-up study. *International Journal of Psychiatry in Clinical Practice* 19: 252-258.
72. Koh TH, Eyre JA (1988) Maturation of corticospinal tracts assessed by electromagnetic stimulation of the motor cortex. *Arch Dis Child* 63: 1347-1352.
73. Croarkin PE, Wall CA, Lee J (2011) Applications of transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) in child and adolescent psychiatry. *Int Rev Psychiatry* 23: 445-453.
74. Mineyko A, Kirton A (2011) The black box of perinatal ischemic stroke pathogenesis. *J Child Neurol* 26: 1154-1162.
75. Mercuri E, Barnett A, Rutherford M, Guzzetta A, Haataja L, et al. (2004) Neonatal cerebral infarction and neuromotor outcome at school age. *Pediatrics* 113: 95-100.
76. Lisanby SH, Gutman D, Luber B, Schroeder C, Sackeim HA (2001) Sham TMS: Intracerebral measurement of the induced electrical field and the induction of motor-evoked potentials. *Biol Psychiatry* 49: 460-463.
77. Quintana H (2005) Transcranial magnetic stimulation in persons younger than the age of 18. *J ECT* 21: 88-95.
78. Rossini PM, Desiato MT, Caramia MD (1992) Age-related changes of motor evoked potentials in healthy humans. Non-invasive evaluation of central and peripheral motor tracts excitability and conductivity. *Brain Res* 593: 14-19.
79. Lin KL, Pascual-Leone A (2002) Transcranial magnetic stimulation and its applications in children. *Chang Gung Med J* 25: 424-436.
80. Takeuchi N, Chuma T, Matsuo Y, Watanabe I, Ikoma K (2005) Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of contralesional primary motor cortex improves hand function after stroke. *Stroke* 36: 2681-2686.

81. Naeser MA, Martin PI, Nicholas M, Baker EH, Seekins H, et al. (2005) Improved naming after TMS treatments in a chronic, global aphasia patient—case report. *Neurocase* 11: 182-193.
82. Kauffmann CD, Cheema MA, Miller BE (2004) Slow right prefrontal trans-cranial magnetic stimulation as a treatment for medication-resistant depression: A double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Depress Anxiety* 19: 59-62.
83. Klein E, Kolsky Y, Puyevovsky M, Koren D, Chistyakov A, et al. (1999) Right prefrontal slow repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation in schizophrenia: A double-blind sham-controlled pilot study. *Biol Psychiatry* 46: 1451-1454.
84. Pascual-Leone A, Rubio B, Pallardo F, Catalá MD (1996) Rapid-rate transcranial magnetic stimulation of left dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in drug-resistant depression. *Lancet* 348: 233-237.
85. Kirton A, Chen R, Friefeld S, Gunraj C, Pontigon AM, et al. (2008) Contralesional repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for chronic hemiparesis in subcortical paediatric stroke: A randomised trial. *Lancet Neurol* 7: 507-513.
86. Takeuchi N, Chuma T, Matsuo Y, Watanabe I, Ikoma K (2005) Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of contralesional primary motor cortex improves hand function after stroke. *Stroke* 36: 2681-2686.
87. Mansur CG, Fregni F, Boggio PS, Riberto M, Gallucci-Neto J, et al. (2005) A sham stimulation-controlled trial of rTMS of the unaffected hemisphere in stroke patients. *Neurology* 64: 1802-1804.
88. Hsu WY, Cheng CH, Liao KK, Lee IH, Lin YY (2012) Effects of repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation on motor functions in patients with stroke: A meta-analysis. *Stroke* 43: 1849-1857.
89. Murase N, Duque J, Mazzocchio R, Cohen LG (2004) Influence of interhemispheric interactions on motor function in chronic stroke. *Ann Neurol* 55: 400-409.
90. Valle AC, Dionisio K, Pitskel NB, Pascual-Leone A, Orsati F, et al. (2007) Low and high frequency Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation for the treatment of spasticity. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology* 49: 534-538.
91. Valero-Cabré A, Oliveri M, Gangitano M, Pascual-Leone A (2001) Modulation of spinal cord excitability by subthreshold repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of the primary motor cortex in humans. *Neuroreport* 12: 3845-3848.
92. Quartarone A, Bagnato S, Rizzo V, Morgante F, Sant'angelo A, et al. (2005) Distinct changes in cortical and spinal excitability following high-frequency repetitive TMS to the human motor cortex. *Exp Brain Res* 161: 114-124.
93. Yasuhara A, Niki T, Ochi A (1999) Changes in EEG after transcranial magnetic stimulation in children with cerebral palsy. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol Suppl* 49: 233-238.
94. Gilbert DL, Garvey MA, Bansal AS, Lipps T, Zhang J, et al. (2004) Should transcranial magnetic stimulation research in children be considered minimal risk? *Clin Neurophysiol* 115: 1730-1739.
95. Collado-Corona MA, Mora-Magaña I, Cordero GL, Toral-Martiñón R, Shkurovich-Zaslavsky M, et al. (2001) Transcranial magnetic stimulation and acoustic trauma or hearing loss in children. *Neurol Res* 23: 343-346.
96. Garvey MA, Kaczynski KJ, Becker DA, Bartko JJ (2001) Subjective reactions of children to single-pulse transcranial magnetic stimulation. *J Child Neurol* 16: 891-894.