

Tic Suppression in Children With Recent-Onset Tics Predicts 1-Year Tic Outcome

Journal of Child Neurology
1-8

© The Author(s) 2019




Article reuse guidelines:

sagepub.com/journals-permissions

DOI: 10.1177/0883073819855531

journals.sagepub.com/home/jcn



Soyoung Kim, PhD¹ , Deanna J. Greene, PhD^{1,2},
Amy Robichaux-Viehoever, MD, PhD³, Emily C. Bihun, MEd¹,
Jonathan M. Koller, BSEE, BSBME¹, Haley Acevedo, BS¹,
Bradley L. Schlaggar, MD, PhD^{4,5,6}, and Kevin J. Black, MD^{1,2,3,7}

Abstract

Successful voluntary tic suppression is a key component of the behavioral interventions that are used to treat tic disorders. This study aimed to examine tic suppression in children with recent-onset tics and determine whether the capacity to suppress tics predicts future tic severity. We tested 45 children (30 male, mean age 7.74 years) with recent-onset tics (mean 3.47 months prior to the first study visit; baseline) and re-examined each child at the 12-month anniversary of the first recognized tic (follow-up). At the baseline visit, children performed a tic suppression task with several conditions: tic freely, inhibit tics given a verbal request, and inhibit tics in the presence of a reward. At the baseline visit, children with tics for only a few months could suppress their tics, and tic suppression was especially successful when they received an immediate and contingent reward. Additionally, the ability to suppress tics in the presence of a reward predicted tic severity at follow-up. These findings suggest that better inhibitory control of tics within months of tic onset may be an important predictor of future tic symptom outcome.

Keywords

tic disorders, inhibition (psychology), prognosis, provisional tic disorder

Received March 26, 2019. Received revised April 24, 2019. Accepted for publication May 8, 2019.

Tic disorders are characterized by the presence of motor and/or vocal tics, which are unwanted, recurrent movements (eg, eye blink) or vocalizations (eg, throat clearing) (*Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders—Fifth Edition*),¹ and comprise different diagnostic categories based on the duration of tic symptoms. Tourette disorder or persistent (chronic) motor or vocal tic disorder (TS/CTD) can be diagnosed when tic symptoms are present for more than 1 year since initial tic onset (regardless of tic-free periods in the interim). When an individual has had tics for less than 1 year, provisional tic disorder can be diagnosed. Despite the high prevalence of provisional tic disorder (20%²⁻⁵ or higher⁶), most existing clinical, behavioral, neuropsychological, and neurophysiological studies of tic disorders have focused nearly exclusively on TS/CTD. This dearth of investigation of provisional tic disorder may be a missed opportunity considering the potential implications for early-stage prognostics as well as for understanding the transition to TS/CTD. The published behavioral⁷ and neuroimaging⁸ findings from studies of TS/CTD, including individuals who have had tics for 1 or more years, cannot effectively distinguish effects related to the primary cause of tics or secondary, compensatory changes. On the other hand,

findings from children with recent-onset tics are unlikely to result from persistent tics.

One interesting characteristic of tics is that very often they can be voluntarily suppressed, at least temporarily.⁹ Many studies using a standardized tic suppression paradigm¹⁰ have

¹ Department of Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis, MO, USA

² Department of Radiology, Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis, MO, USA

³ Department of Neurology, Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis, MO, USA

⁴ Kennedy Krieger Institute, Baltimore, MD, USA

⁵ Department of Neurology, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA

⁶ Department of Pediatrics, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA

⁷ Department of Neuroscience, Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis, MO, USA

Corresponding Author:

Kevin J. Black, MD, Washington University School of Medicine, Campus Box 8134, 660 S. Euclid Avenue, St Louis, MO 63110-1093, USA.

Email: kevin@wustl.edu

shown that individuals with TS/CTD can suppress tics especially well with contingent reward.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ Conelea et al¹⁵ pooled 9 different tic suppression paradigm studies in children and adolescents and found that better tic suppression ability was related to older age and more frequent tics.¹⁵ An investigation of neuropsychological predictors of tic suppression revealed that tic suppression ability was correlated with poor attentional functioning (ie, omission errors on a continuous performance task).¹⁶ Previous work from our group showed that even children with provisional tic disorder who had tics for less than 6 months can successfully suppress tics, especially in the presence of a contingent reward.¹⁷

Behavioral interventions for tic disorders, such as Comprehensive Behavioral Intervention for Tics (CBIT),¹⁸ are based on voluntary tic suppression. Therefore, understanding tic suppression and how the ability to suppress tics may relate to clinical outcomes is important. Although a few studies have sought to understand interindividual variability of tic suppression,^{15,16} none have examined longitudinally the relationship between tic suppression and future tic outcome.

The present study extended our previous work on tic suppression in provisional tic disorder to investigate outcome. We examined tic suppression in the presence or absence of a reward in children whose tics began within the previous 6 months. We then re-examined these children at the 1-year anniversary of tic onset (ie, the time when a diagnosis of TS/CTD can be made). We first tested how well children with provisional tic disorder could suppress their tics in an extended sample from our previous report.¹⁷ Then, we investigated whether or not tic suppression ability measured within months of tic onset can predict an individual's tic outcome 12 months after tic onset.

Methods

Participants

NewTics is an ongoing longitudinal study conducted at Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis, Missouri (www.newtics.org). We recruited the participants using various recruitment methods and screened them carefully using questionnaires, interviews, and face-to-face examination to determine the best estimate of the date of tic onset (see Kim et al¹⁹ for further details). Between September 2010 and December 2018, 55 children with recent-onset tics (tic duration <6 months, except for 1 participant whose tic duration was 8.1 months) reached the 1-year anniversary of tic onset. Among those, 5 participants were lost to follow-up, 1 participant was identified as an outlier in age (14.5 years old was >3 standard deviations above the mean age), and tic suppression paradigm videos were missing for 4 participants, so we do not have blinded measures (see below) from those participants. One participant was only missing the Verbal condition, so this participant was included in the analyses of DRO (Differential Reinforcement of Other behavior, see Tic suppression paradigm section) condition. Therefore, in the current study, we report the data for 45 participants (30 male, 15 female, mean age = 7.7). All participant characteristics are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of Study Participants at the Baseline and 12-Month Follow-up Visit.

Descriptor	Baseline visit	12-mo follow-up
N	45	
Male/female	30/15	
Age	7.74 (2.02); 5.03-12.9	
No. with ADHD diagnosis	17	21
No. with OCD diagnosis	4	7
No. with anxiety disorder ^a	19	n/a
No. with brain active medications ^b	9	8
Months since tic onset	3.47(1.59); 0.72-8.09	
YGTSS total tic (TTS)	17.24(6.08); 7-32	13.82(7.46); 0-37
YGTSS impairment	8.56(8.44); 0-30	4(6.62); 0-25
DCI	32.29(13.19); 14-80	42.47(15.86); 13-79
PUTS ^c	12.74(4.62); 9-29	15.58(5.88); 9-30
ADHD Rating Scale (ARS)	13.73(11.04); 0-40	14.71(12.14); 0-41
Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS)	48.84(8.55); 35-69	n/a

Abbreviations: ADHD, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder; OCD, obsessive compulsive disorder; PUTS, Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale; TTS, total tic score; YGTSS, Yale Global Tic Severity Scale.

^a"Anxiety disorder" includes panic disorder, separation anxiety disorder, social anxiety disorder, agoraphobia, specific phobia, generalized anxiety disorder (*Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders—Fourth Edition*), and avoidant disorder of childhood (*Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders—Third Edition—Revised*).

^bNine participants were on brain active medication at baseline visit: 1 on anticholinergic, 1 on SSRI, 1 on adrenergic, 2 on stimulant, 1 on stimulant and adrenergic agonist, and 3 on other brain active medication. Eight participants were on brain active medication at 12-month follow-up: 2 on SSRI, 2 on adrenergic agonist, 3 on stimulant, and 1 on other brain active medication. Of note, only 1 participant at baseline visit and 2 participants at 12-month follow-up took medication as a result of tics, and none of the participants had any behavioral intervention for tics.

^cPUTS scores were not obtained from 6 children at baseline visit and 2 children at 12-month visit because of difficulty in reporting these internal phenomena.

Procedure

This study consists of a baseline visit within 6 months of tic onset (with the exception of 1 participant whose tics began 8.1 months before the visit) and a follow-up visit at the 1-year anniversary of tic onset. The full details of the clinical measures obtained at each visit can be found in our previous work.¹⁹ Here, we examined the following: Yale Global Tic Severity Scale (YGTSS),²⁰ which measures past-week tic severity, Diagnostic Confidence Index (DCI),²¹ which measures lifetime "typical" TS/CTD characteristics, Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale,²² which measures the common sensory experience that precedes tics (called the premonitory urge), ADHD Rating Scale (ARS),²³ which measures past week attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) symptomatology, and Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS),²⁴ which measures symptoms of autism.

Tic Suppression Paradigm

The tic suppression paradigm implemented in the current study was modeled from Woods and Himle¹⁰ and is described in detail in Greene et al.¹⁷ Participants completed two 5-minute sessions under each of 3

conditions¹: (1) Free tic: participants were instructed to sit in a chair and tic as needed; (2) Verbal Instruction: participants were instructed to suppress their tics; and (3) Differential Reinforcement of Zero-rate Ticking (Differential Reinforcement of Other behavior [DRO]): participants were instructed to suppress their tics, and told that they would receive a token for every 10 seconds that a tic was not detected. Participants first completed 1 session of each of the conditions in a fixed order: Free tic, Verbal Instruction, and DRO. The second session of the conditions was then presented in a counterbalanced order. Prior to each session, we read to participants detailed instructions (see Greene et al¹⁷) with a list of his or her tics, and asked them to explain instructions back to the researcher to ensure comprehension of the task. During the task, participants sat alone in a room and a researcher (rater 1 [author KJB], a neuropsychiatrist with movement disorders fellowship training) rated their tics through live video and audio feeds in an adjacent room. Tics were coded by pressing a button on the TicTimer program²⁵ for each occurrence of a tic.

Tic Ratings

Tics were rated in real time by rater 1 (author KJB) in order to provide appropriate rewards in the DRO condition, but rater 1 was inevitably unblinded to the condition of each session. Therefore, the video recordings were blinded and presented in randomized order to rater 2 (author ARV, a movement disorders-trained pediatric neurologist) who rated tics using a modified version of the TicTimer program.

Inter-rater reliability was measured by calculating intraclass correlation coefficient using a 2-way random effects model assessing consistency. The single measures intraclass correlation coefficient was 0.754 and 0.796 for our 2 dependent measures (tic frequency and tic-free intervals, respectively), indicating good reliability across 2 raters. Here, we present results from the blind ratings (rater 2). The results from Rater 1 are shown in Supplemental Material S2.

Analysis

To compare tic severity at baseline and at the 12-month follow-up visit, we conducted paired *t* tests on Yale Global Tic Severity Scale total tic score (TTS) at each visit. For the tic suppression paradigm, we measured 2 dependent variables from each session of each condition: (1) the number of tics, and (2) tic-free 10-second intervals. Order effects were tested using repeated measures analyses of variance with Set (first set of sessions, second set of sessions) and Condition (Free tic, Verbal, DRO) as within-subject factors. Four participants who completed only 1 set of sessions due to fatigue or limited cooperation, and 3 participants for whom blinded tic ratings were unavailable because of incomplete video recording, were excluded from the analysis of order effects. As there was no significant main effect of Set, the data were collapsed across Set for each condition and the average number of tics and tic-free 10-second intervals per minute were used for all subsequent analyses. Eight participants who showed less than 1 tic per minute on average in the Free tic condition were excluded from further analysis, as tic suppression would be limited by a floor effect.

One-way repeated measures analyses of variance were conducted for each measure to test for main effects of Condition. Greenhouse-Geisser correction was made where sphericity assumption was violated. Then post hoc *t* tests were conducted to compare specific conditions. For the subsequent analyses, tic suppression in tic frequency was quantified for each suppression condition as a ratio of tic reduction in comparison to the Free tic condition (eg, (Free tic-Verbal)/

Free tic; hereafter $\text{Suppression}_{\text{frequency}}$), such that positive values indicate tic reduction during the suppression conditions. When tic suppression was calculated in a similar way for tic-free 10-second intervals, the measure was susceptible to biases caused by Free tic performance. For example, a participant with 4 tic-free 10-second intervals per minute in the Free tic condition could only reach a maximum of 6 tic-free 10-second intervals per minute in a suppression condition (50% change), even though that same participant could reduce tic frequency by 100%. For this reason, the average number of tic-free 10-second intervals per minute was used as a measure of tic suppressibility without correcting for Free tic condition (hereafter $\text{Suppression}_{\text{interval}}$). Thus, higher $\text{Suppression}_{\text{interval}}$ values indicate better tic suppression.

Correlation analyses were conducted to explore the relationships between Suppression and several variables obtained at the baseline visit that have been shown previously to be related to tic suppression: age, tic severity (Yale Global Tic Severity Scale total tic score), Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale total score, and Social Responsiveness Scale (total) T score. One outlier was identified and excluded from Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale total score (\geq mean + 3 standard deviations). When the Shapiro-Wilk test revealed that the data were not normally distributed, Spearman correlation analyses (shown as r_s) were adopted. When normality was not violated, Pearson correlation analyses were adopted.

We conducted multiple regression analysis to test if Suppression at the baseline visit can predict tic severity at the follow-up visit. Baseline total tic score was included as a covariate. Participant age at the baseline visit was also included as a covariate where age-dependent effects were found.

Results

Change in Tic Symptoms and Awareness of Tics

Participants showed moderate tic severity on average at the baseline visit (mean TTS 17.24 ± 6.08) and at the 12-month follow-up visit (mean TTS 13.82 ± 7.46). A paired *t* test revealed significant improvement in tic severity at the 12-month follow-up visit on a group level, $t(44)=3.06$, ($P=.004$). Although we do not have a systematic record of subjective awareness of tics for most of the children, several children reported anecdotally that they were not aware of any tics at the baseline visit. Indirectly, the DCI included an item asking whether the child ever intentionally attempted to suppress tics. Out of the 45 participants, this item was recorded as positive for 22 participants at the baseline visit and 26 participants at the 12-month follow-up visit.

Testing of Order Effects

Repeated measures analyses of variance with Set (1 and 2) and Conditions (Free tic, Verbal, and DRO) were conducted on the data from 38 participants who completed both sets. For tic frequency, there was no significant main effect of Set, $F(1, 37) = 0.56$, $P = .46$, but a significant interaction of Set \times Condition, $F(2, 74) = 3.84$, $P=.03$. For tic-free 10-second intervals, there was no significant main effect of Set, $F(1, 37) = 1.35$, $P = .25$, or interaction of Set \times Condition, $F(1.70, 62.91) = 1.77$, $P = .18$. For consistency with our previous work, we collapsed the data across Set for the subsequent analyses for all

Table 2. Mean Tic Frequency and Tic-Free Intervals and Comparison Between Conditions

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Post hoc <i>t</i> tests	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i> (bonf)
Tic frequency						
Free tic	36	4.522	2.597			
Verbal	36	3.18	2.923	Verbal vs Free tic	3.128	.01
DRO	36	2.491	2.834	DRO vs Free tic	4.171	<.001
				DRO vs Verbal	2.676	.033
Tic-free intervals						
Free tic	36	4.258	0.891			
Verbal	36	4.682	0.962	Verbal vs Free tic	2.8	.025
DRO	36	5.061	0.869	DRO vs Free tic	4.818	<.001
				DRO vs Verbal	3.899	.001

Abbreviations: bonf, Bonferroni test; DRO, Differential Reinforcement of Other behavior; SD, standard deviation.

participants. The results of the Set 1 data are shown in the Supplemental Material S1.

Tic Suppression With and Without Reward

The mean values of tic frequency and tic-free 10-second intervals for each condition during the baseline visit are shown in Table 2. One-way repeated measures analyses of variance (Condition: Free tic, Verbal, DRO) were conducted for tic frequency and tic-free 10-second intervals separately for the 36 participants who had all 3 conditions. A significant main effect of Condition was found for both tic-free 10-second intervals $F(1.54, 53.96) = 16.28, P < .001$, and tic frequency, $F(1.45, 50.65) = 13.18, P < .001$. Post hoc *t* tests were conducted to compare each of the suppression conditions to the Free tic condition. The results are shown in Table 2. To summarize, both suppression conditions (Verbal, DRO) significantly differed from Free tic condition in both tic frequency and tic-free intervals ($P < .05$). The DRO condition also differed from the Verbal condition in both tic frequency and tic-free intervals ($P < .05$).

Relationship Between Measures Collected at the Baseline Visit and Tic Suppressibility

There was a significant correlation between age and Suppression in the DRO condition for both Suppression_{interval} $r_s(36) = 0.40, P = .01$, and Suppression_{frequency} $r_s(36) = .40, P = 0.01$, such that older children showed better Suppression (Figure 1a and b). There was no significant relationship between age and any measure of Suppression in the Verbal condition (minimum $P = .33$). There was no significant correlation between the Yale Global Tic Severity Scale total tic score at the baseline visit and any of Suppression measures in either condition (minimum $P = .27$). There was no significant relationship between tic duration and any measure of Suppression in either condition (minimum $P = .36$). The Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale total score was significantly correlated with Suppression_{frequency} in the DRO

condition, $r_s(29) = .39, P = .03$ (Figure 1c), but not with Suppression_{interval} in the DRO condition or with either Suppression measure in the Verbal condition (minimum $P = .16$). Neither ADHD Rating Scale score nor Social Responsiveness Scale scores were correlated with any Suppression measure (minimum $P = .42$ for ADHD Rating Scale scores; minimum $P = .47$ for Social Responsiveness Scale scores).

Relationship Between Suppression at the Baseline Visit and Tic Severity at the 12-Month Follow-up Visit

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the relationship between Suppression at the baseline visit and tic severity at the 12-month follow-up visit. Overall, children who showed better tic suppression in the DRO condition at the baseline visit showed better tic outcome (ie, reduced tic severity) at the 12-month follow-up visit. The Yale Global Tic Severity Scale total tic score at the 12-month follow-up visit was significantly predicted by Suppression_{interval} in the DRO condition, controlling for total tic score at the baseline visit and age, $R^2 = 0.277, F(3, 33) = 4.22, P = .01$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.212$, with Suppression_{interval} as a significant factor ($P = .038$). Suppression_{frequency} in the DRO condition revealed a similar pattern of results, $R^2 = 0.246, F(3, 33) = 3.59, P = .02$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.177$, but Suppression_{frequency} was not a significant predictor ($P = .09$). Correlation plots of the relationship between total tic score at the 12-month follow-up visit and Suppression_{interval} (left) and Suppression_{frequency} (right) in the DRO condition are shown in Figure 2. Of note, this relationship was significant both in the analysis of data collapsed across Sets and in the analysis of only Set 1 data (see Supplemental Material S1). In the Verbal condition, Suppression_{interval} ($P = .15$) and Suppression_{frequency} ($P = .20$) were not a significant factor in each model. Full model details are reported in Table 3. As Suppression_{interval} was not corrected for the Free tic condition, we conducted multiple regression analysis with the average number of tic-free intervals for the Free tic condition and found that it was not a significant factor in the model ($P = .23$; see Table 3).

Discussion

The most important finding in the present study is that rewarded tic suppression measured within months of tic onset predicts future tic severity. Specifically, in children with recent-onset tics, we found that those children with better tic suppression in the presence of a reward had lower tic burden at the 1-year anniversary of tic onset, the time when a persistent tic disorder (TS/CTD) can first be diagnosed. Thus, we have identified a potential predictor of clinical outcome in provisional tic disorder.

The conventional clinical wisdom is that tics are common but temporary in childhood, disappearing within a few months in most children. The prevalence rates reported for any tics (20%²⁻⁵ or higher⁶) and chronic tics (about 3%^{1,26}) suggest that

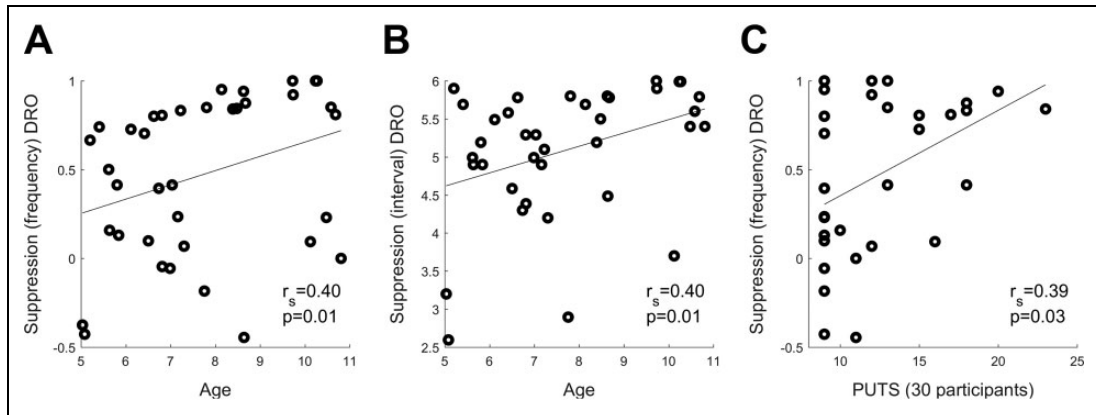


Figure 1. The relationship between Suppression and measures obtained at the baseline visit. (A) Age and Suppression_{frequency} in DRO condition; (B) age and Suppression_{interval} in DRO condition; (C) PUTS total score (30 participants) Suppression_{frequency} in DRO condition. (DRO, Differential Reinforcement of Other behavior; PUTS, Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale.)

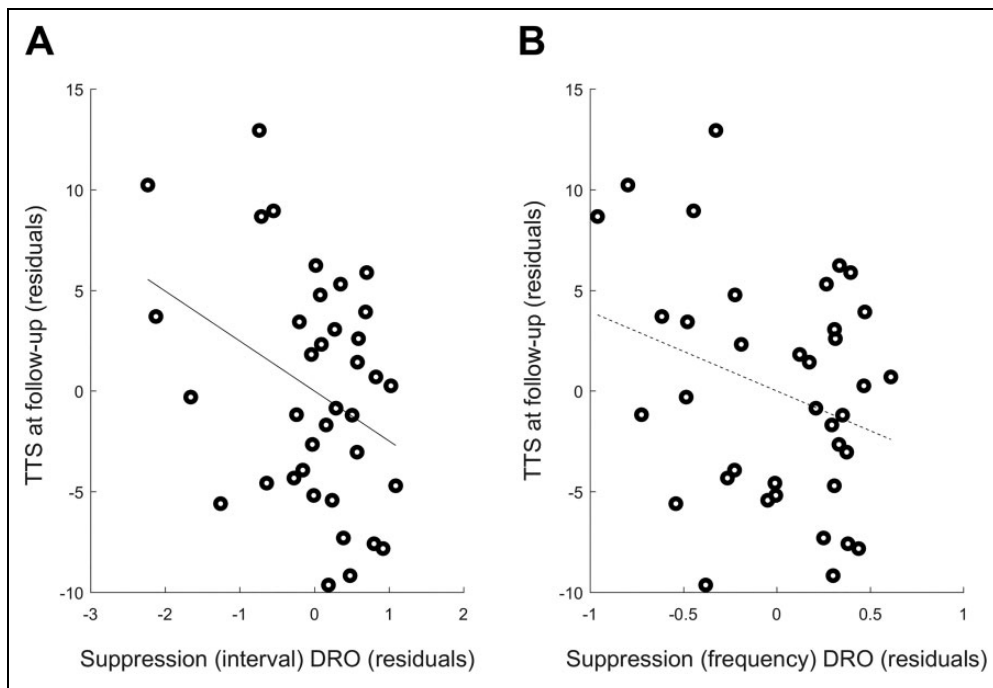


Figure 2. The partial residual plot showing the relationship between the residuals of the regression of Yale Global Tic Severity Scale total tic score at 12-month follow-up on total tic score at baseline visit and age, and the residuals of the regression of Suppression in DRO condition ([A] Suppression_{interval}; [B] Suppression_{frequency}) on total tic score at baseline visit and age. The solid line indicates a significant relationship and the dashed line indicates nonsignificant relationship. (DRO, Differential Reinforcement of Other behavior.)

only a small subset of children who experience tics go on to develop TS/CTD. Although our own study showed a somewhat different finding in that tics do not completely remit in most children by the 1-year anniversary of tic onset,¹⁹ the majority of children experienced only mild tic severity and minimal impairment, if any, by that point. Still, some children do experience worsening of tic symptoms and marked distress or impairment due to tics. Therefore, identifying a behavioral predictor of future tic outcome, as we do here, is quite promising for prognosis of a chronic disorder in children when tics first begin.

Tics are often described as the result of faulty inhibitory control.²⁷ Indeed, previous fMRI and EEG studies suggest that voluntary tic suppression involves activation of brain regions that support inhibitory control.^{28,29} Additionally, TS/CTD has been associated with impaired inhibition of a different response to a natural urge, namely, the urge to blink during voluntary blink suppression.³⁰ Our study shows that despite this possible impairment in inhibitory function, children could suppress tics without years of tic suppression practice. In addition, if better tic suppression at the baseline visit is due to better overall inhibitory control, this lessened impairment may explain why

Table 3. Multiple Linear Regression Analysis Results Predicting TTS at 12-Month Follow-up Visit.

Variable	B	SE _B	β	P
DRO condition, tic-free intervals				
Suppression	-2.48	1.15	-0.35	.04
Age	0.97	0.55	0.28	.09
Baseline TTS	0.39	0.17	0.34	.03
INTERCEPT	12.12	6.77		.08
DRO condition, tic frequency				
Suppression	-3.94	2.25	-0.28	.09
Age	0.85	0.55	0.25	.13
Baseline TTS	0.39	0.17	0.34	.03
Intercept	2.15	4.99		.67
Verbal condition, tic-free intervals				
Suppression	-1.52	1.02	-0.23	.15
Baseline TTS	0.43	0.18	0.38	.02
Intercept	13.35	5.84		.03
Verbal condition, tic frequency				
Suppression	0.15	2.27	0.01	.95
Baseline TTS	0.44	0.18	0.39	.02
Intercept	6.02	3.28		.08
Free tic condition, tic-free intervals				
Average number of tic-free intervals	-1.6	1.17	-0.23	.18
Baseline TTS	0.35	0.19	0.31	.07
Intercept	14.38	6.85		.043

Abbreviations: B, unstandardized coefficients; β , standardized coefficients; DRO, Differential Reinforcement of Other behavior; SE, standard error; TTS, total tic score.

these children have better tic outcomes later, perhaps because of better management of tics. However, findings are inconsistent as to whether inhibitory function—as measured by traditional behavioral tasks, such as the stop signal task—is actually impaired in individuals with tic disorders.^{31,32} Thus, it will be important for future work to examine how much tic suppression is related to inhibitory function as measured by these standard laboratory tests. We also found that tic suppression measured in the absence of reward did not significantly predict future tic outcome. This differential result based on the presence or absence of a reward may be due to motivation. Without immediate reward, children may exert less effort to suppress their tics.

Although the most important finding in the present study is about predicting future tic outcome, we also extend our previous results demonstrating that children with recent-onset tics can suppress tics within months of tic onset¹⁷ to a sample twice as large. We found reductions in tic frequency and increases in the number of tic-free intervals when children were simply asked verbally to suppress their tics. When an immediate, contingent reward was delivered for successful tic suppression, tic suppression was enhanced. With this larger sample, we also detected a significant association between age and rewarded tic suppression. Conelea et al¹⁵ suggested that such age effects might be due to the fact that older children have experienced longer illness duration, leading to more opportunity to practice tic suppression strategies. However, that explanation does not account for our present results, as all but one of our participants had experienced tics for less than 6 months. Rather, we contend

that the age-dependent effects found in the current study are more likely due to inhibitory control maturation during development. Age-dependent effects in inhibitory control have been repeatedly reported in healthy children in both behavioral and brain imaging studies. (See Luna³³ for a review.)

We also explored the relationship between tic suppression and other characteristics commonly associated with tics. Tics are often described as being preceded by a “premonitory urge”³⁴; however, findings on the relationship between the premonitory urge and tic suppression are inconsistent. Although Brandt et al³⁵ showed that premonitory urges build up during tic suppression, Banaschewski et al³⁶ suggested that premonitory urges are not prerequisites for tic suppression in children and adolescents with TS. Here, we found a significant relationship between the Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale score and Suppression_{frequency} in the presence of reward. Children with higher Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale scores showed relatively successful tic suppression, whereas children with lower Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale scores showed varying degrees of tic suppression ranging from minimal to maximal. Thus, our results are consistent with the idea that experiencing the premonitory urge may help tic suppression. Our finding does have the limitation that the Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale can be less reliable in children under 10 years old.^{22,37} Age may explain part of the association of premonitory urges and suppression (see Supplemental Material S3). Continued research may help to further elucidate the relationship between the premonitory urge and tic suppression.

Although one previous study reported a possible relationship between parent-reported attentional problems in children with tics and tic suppression ability,¹¹ we found no significant relationship between our measure of ADHD symptoms (ADHD Rating Scale score) and tic suppression. We also explored the relationship between Social Responsiveness Scale score and Suppression. Our previous work¹⁹ suggested baseline-visit Social Responsiveness Scale scores as a candidate clinical feature for predicting 12-month tic outcome. One possible explanation for this finding was that children with higher Social Responsiveness Scale scores are less sensitive to negative social feedback about their tics and make less effort to suppress tics in social settings. However, we did not find a significant relationship between baseline visit Social Responsiveness Scale scores and tic suppressibility. Of course, we measured tic suppression in a laboratory setting, and tic suppression in real-world social settings may be different.

Limitations

Previous studies have shown that behavioral measurements of tic suppression were unrelated to self-rated tic suppression ability.¹⁵ Also, the expression of tics often differs depending on the setting (eg, home vs office) or the presence of others.^{38,39} In the present study, we quantified tic suppression using a standardized protocol with video recording of the child sitting alone in a room. Therefore, further studies need to be conducted to understand how tic suppression in a laboratory setting compares to tic

suppression in daily life. The current study focused on tic severity as the predicted clinical outcome. Previous work in children with pre-existing TS may also be relevant; such work has examined childhood predictors of adult quality of life⁴⁰ or of tic severity and other comorbid conditions.^{6,41-43}

Acknowledgments

We thank Vicki Martin for help with recruiting and data collection and Dr Jimin Ding for advising on the statistical analysis.

Author Contributions

SK, DJG, and KJB performed the formal analysis and prepared the original draft of the article. SK, DJG, A R-V, ECB, JMK, BLS, and KJB undertook the investigation. BLS and KJB conceptualized the study, acquired the funds, and supervised the study. KJB was responsible for project administration. All authors took part in the review and editing of the manuscript.


Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: Research reported in this publication was supported by National Institutes of Health, awards K24 MH087913 to KJB; R21 NS091635 to BLS and KJB; K01 MH104592 to DJG; R01 MH104030 to KJB and BLS; the Washington University Institute of Clinical and Translational Sciences grants UL1 RR024992 and UL1 TR000448; and the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health & Human Development of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number U54 HD087011 to the Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities Research Center at Washington University. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official view of the NIH.

ORCID iD

Soyoung Kim, PhD  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2983-604X>

Data Availability

The supplementary data file provides individual participant data.

Supplemental Material

Supplemental material for this article is available online.

Note

- i. The first 36 participants performed an additional condition: Noncontingent Reinforcement (NCR), in which they were asked to suppress their tics and told that they would receive tokens regardless of their tic behavior. As the NCR condition was not conducted in the remaining participants, the results from this condition are not reported here.

Ethical Approval

The study was approved by the Washington University Human Research Protection Office (IRB), protocol numbers 201109157 and 201707059. Each child assented and a parent (guardian) gave

informed consent prior to study participation. All participants were compensated for their time.

References

1. American Psychiatric Association. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5®)*. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association; 2013.
2. Cubo E, Trejo Gabriel Y, Galán JM, Villaverde VA, et al. Prevalence of tics in schoolchildren in central Spain: a population-based study. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2011;45:100-108.
3. Cubo E. Review of prevalence studies of tic disorders: methodological caveats. *Tremor Other Hyperkinet Mov (N Y)*. 2012;2.
4. Kurlan R, Como PG, Miller B, et al. The behavioral spectrum of tic disorders: a community-based study. *Neurology*. 2002;59:414-420.
5. Snider LA, Seligman LD, Ketchen BR, et al. Tics and problem behaviors in schoolchildren: prevalence, characterization, and associations. *Pediatrics*. 2002;110(2):331-336.
6. Black KJ, Black ER, Greene DJ, Schlaggar BL. Provisional tic disorder: what to tell parents when their child first starts ticcing. *F1000Res*. 2016;5:696.
7. Jackson GM, Draper A, Dyke K, Pépés SE, Jackson SR. Inhibition, disinhibition, and the control of action in Tourette syndrome. *Trends Cogn Sci*. 2015;19(11):655-665.
8. Plessen KJ, Bansal R, Peterson BS. Imaging evidence for anatomical disturbances and neuroplastic compensation in persons with Tourette syndrome. *J Psychosom Res*. 2009;67(6):559-573.
9. Singer HS. Tourette syndrome and other tic disorders. *Handb Clin Neurol*. 2011;100:641-657.
10. Woods DW, Himle MB. Creating tic suppression: comparing the effects of verbal instruction to differential reinforcement. *J Appl Behav Anal*. 2004;37:417-420.
11. Himle MB, Woods DW. An experimental evaluation of tic suppression and the tic rebound effect. *Behav Res Ther*. 2005;43(11):1443-1451.
12. Himle MB, Woods DW, Conelea CA, Bauer CC, Rice KA. Investigating the effects of tic suppression on premonitory urge ratings in children and adolescents with Tourette's syndrome. *Behav Res Ther*. 2007;45(12):2964-2976.
13. Conelea CA, Woods DW. The influence of contextual factors on tic expression in Tourette's syndrome: a review. *J Psychosom Res*. 2008;65:487-496.
14. Specht MW, Woods DW, Nicotra CM, et al. Effects of tic suppression: ability to suppress, rebound, negative reinforcement, and habituation to the premonitory urge. *Behav Res Ther*. 2013;51(1):24-30.
15. Conelea CA, Wellen B, Woods DW, et al. Patterns and predictors of tic suppressibility in youth with tic disorders. *Front Psychiatry*. 2018;9:188.
16. Woods DW, Himle MB, Miltenberger RG, et al. Durability, negative impact, and neuropsychological predictors of tic suppression in children with chronic tic disorder. *J Abnorm Child Psychol*. 2008;36(2):237-245.
17. Greene DJ, Koller JM, Robichaux-Viehoever A, Bihun EC, Schlaggar BL, Black KJ. Reward enhances tic suppression in

- children within months of tic disorder onset. *Dev Cogn Neurosci*. 2015;11:65-74.
18. Piacentini J, Woods DW, Scahill L, et al. Behavior therapy for children with Tourette disorder. *JAMA*. 2010;303(19):1929.
 19. Kim S, Greene DJ, Bihun EC, et al. Provisional tic disorder is not so transient. *Sci Rep*. 2019;9(1):3951.
 20. Leckman JF, Riddle MA, Hardin MT, et al. The Yale Global Tic Severity Scale: initial testing of a clinician-rated scale of tic severity. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 1989;28(4):566-573.
 21. Robertson MM, Banerjee S, Kurlan RM, et al. The Tourette syndrome diagnostic confidence index. *Neurology*. 1999;53:2108-2112.
 22. Woods DW, Piacentini J, Himle MB, Chang S. Premonitory Urge for Tics Scale (PUTS): initial psychometric results and examination of the premonitory urge phenomenon in youths with tic disorders. *J Dev Behav Pediatr*. 2005;26(6):397-403.
 23. Conners CK, Sitarenios G, Parker JDA, Epstein JN. The revised Conners' Parent Rating Scale (CPRS-R): factor structure, reliability, and criterion validity. *J Abnorm Child Psychol*. 1998;26:257-268.
 24. Constantino JN, Davis SA, Todd RD, et al. Validation of a brief quantitative measure of autistic traits: comparison of the social responsiveness scale with the Autism Diagnostic Interview-Revised. *J Autism Dev Disord*. 2003;33:427-433.
 25. Black JK, Koller JM, Black KJ. TicTimer software for measuring tic suppression. Version 2. *F1000Res*. 2017;6:1560.
 26. Nomoto F, Machiyama Y. An epidemiological study of tics. *Psychiatry Clin Neurosci*. 1990;44(4):649-655.
 27. Mink JW. Neurobiology of basal ganglia circuits in Tourette syndrome: faulty inhibition of unwanted motor patterns? *Adv Neurol*. 2001;85:113-122.
 28. Peterson BS, Skudlarski P, Anderson AW, et al. A functional magnetic resonance imaging study of tic suppression in Tourette syndrome. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 1998;55(4):326-333.
 29. Hong HJ, Sohn H, Cha M, et al. Increased frontomotor oscillations during tic suppression in children with Tourette syndrome. *J Child Neurol*. 2013;28(5):615-624.
 30. Botteron HE, Richards CA, Nishino T, et al. The urge to blink in Tourette syndrome. *bioRxiv*. 2019:477372.
 31. Morand-Beaulieu S, Grot S, Lavoie J, Leclerc JB, Luck D, Lavoie ME. The puzzling question of inhibitory control in Tourette syndrome: a meta-analysis. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*. 2017;80:240-262.
 32. Kalsi N, Tambelli R, Aceto P, Lai C. Are motor skills and motor inhibitions impaired in Tourette syndrome? A review. *J Exp Neuropsychol*. 2015;9:JEN.S25095.
 33. Luna B. Developmental changes in cognitive control through adolescence. *Adv Child Dev Behav*. 2009;37:233-278.
 34. Houghton DC, Capriotti MR, Conelea CA, Woods DW. Sensory phenomena in Tourette syndrome: their role in symptom formation and treatment. *Curr Dev Disord Rep*. 2014;1(4):245-251.
 35. Brandt VC, Beck C, Sajin V, et al. Temporal relationship between premonitory urges and tics in Gilles de la Tourette syndrome. *Cortex*. 2016;77:24-37.
 36. Banaschewski T, Woerner W, Rothenberger A. Premonitory sensory phenomena and suppressibility of tics in Tourette syndrome: developmental aspects in children and adolescents. *Dev Med Child Neurol*. 2003;45(10):700-703.
 37. Steinberg T, Shmuel Baruch S, Harush A, et al. Tic disorders and the premonitory urge. *J Neural Transm*. 2010;117:277-284.
 38. Goetz CG, Tanner CM, Wilson RS, Shannon KM. A rating scale for Gilles de la Tourette's syndrome: description, reliability, and validity data. *Neurology*. 1987;37(9):1542-1544.
 39. Goetz CG, Leurgans S, Chmura TA. Home alone: methods to maximize tic expression for objective videotape assessments in Gilles de la Tourette syndrome. *Mov Disord*. 2001;16:693-697.
 40. Cavanna AE, David K, Orth M, Robertson MM. Predictors during childhood of future health-related quality of life in adults with Gilles de la Tourette syndrome. *Eur J Paediatr Neurol*. 2012.
 41. Bloch MH, Leckman JF, Zhu H, et al. Caudate volumes in childhood predict symptom severity in adults with Tourette syndrome. *Neurology*. 2005;65(8):1253-1258.
 42. Bloch MH, Peterson BS, Scahill L, et al. Adulthood outcome of tic and obsessive-compulsive symptom severity in children with Tourette syndrome. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med*. 2006;160(1):65-69.
 43. Groth C, Mol Debes N, Rask CU, Lange T, Skov L. Course of Tourette syndrome and comorbidities in a large prospective clinical study. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2017;56:304-312.