The neuromodulatory and hormonal effects of transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation as evidenced by salivary alpha amylase, salivary cortisol, pupil diameter, and the P3 event-related potential

C. M. Warren<sup>a,b,</sup>, K. D. Tona<sup>a,b</sup>, L. Ouwerkerk<sup>a</sup>, J. van Paridon<sup>a,c</sup>, F. Poletiek<sup>a,c</sup>, J. A. Bosch<sup>d,e</sup>, S. Nieuwenhuis $a,b$ ;

<sup>a</sup>Institute of Psychology, Leiden University, Leiden, 2333 AK, Netherlands.

<sup>b</sup>Leiden Institute for Brain and Cognition, Leiden University, Leiden, 2300 RC, Netherlands.

<sup>c</sup>Max Planck Institute of Psycholinguistics, Nijmegen, 6525 XD, Netherlands

<sup>d</sup>Department of Clinical Psychology, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, 1018 XA, Netherlands.

<sup>e</sup>Mannheim Institute of Public Health, Heidelberg University, Mannheim, 68167, Germany.

Corresponding Author:

Christopher M. Warren $1$ 

Institute of Psychology, Leiden University

Leiden, 2333 AK

The Netherlands

E-mail: chris.warren@usu.edu

Phone: 435 265 5704

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Present Address: Utah State University, Department of Psychology, Logan, UT 84322; e-mail: chris.warren@usu.edu

# 1 **Abstract**



1 Invasive vagus nerve stimulation (VNS) is a somewhat promising treatment for depression [1–3] 2 and epilepsy [4,5] that likely exerts part of its therapeutic effect by increasing norepinephrine (NE) 3 release from the locus coeruleus (LC). The vagus nerve projects to the nucleus tractus solitarius, which 4 projects both directly and indirectly to the LC [1–3]. Transcutaneous VNS can be achieved by delivering 5 electrical impulses to the cervical or the auricular branches of the vagus nerve, which are situated close 6 to the surface of the skin of the neck and outer ear respectively [4]. Functional magnetic resonance 7 imaging (fMRI) studies in healthy humans demonstrate that the more commonly applied transcutaneous 8 auricular VNS (taVNS) elicits widespread changes in cortical and brainstem activity [5–8]. In light of the 9 clinical potential of taVNS, it would be valuable to establish if taVNS, like invasive VNS, affects NE, using 10 relatively inexpensive and easy-to-use biomarkers of NE. Here we evaluated the effect of taVNS on NE 11 levels using three accepted biomarkers and one putative biomarker of central NE activity: salivary alpha 12 amylase (SAA), salivary cortisol, pupil size, and the P3 component of the event-related brain potential 13 (ERP), respectively.

14 SAA is a digestive enzyme that is released by the saliva glands in response to local sympathetic 15 nervous system activity [9]. SAA secretion is increased during stress and correlates with blood plasma NE 16 during exercise [10,11]. SAA is a proxy marker of sympathetic-adreno-medullary activation [9,12], which 17 is driven by central NE, leading to the assumption that SAA marks central NE activity [13–16]. One 18 preliminary study [17] has reported suggestive evidence that taVNS increases SAA relative to sham 19 stimulation—reason to be optimistic that a larger study with a more targeted methodology might reveal 20 a robust effect of taVNS on SAA.

21 Salivary cortisol is a glucocorticoid stress hormone that correlates with hypothalamo-pituitary-22 adrenal axis activation [12,18]. Salivary cortisol may likewise be a reliable index of central NE activity, 23 mediated in part by noradrenergic inputs to the hypothalamus [12,18,19]. Salivary cortisol is sensitive to 24 pharmacologically induced changes in central NE activity [16,20].

1 Pupil size is correlated with activity of NE-releasing neurons in the LC [21–24]. This relationship 2 may be mediated by activity in the rostral ventrolateral medulla, which projects to the LC and also 3 innervates the peripheral sympathetic ganglia regulating the pupil [25]. Studies of primates and rodents 4 show that LC activity correlates with baseline pupil diameter [21,24] and the magnitude of task-evoked 5 pupil dilations [21,23]. In human participants, BOLD activity in the LC covaries with pupil size at rest and 6 during simple decision-making tasks [22,26]. In rats, direct stimulation of the central stump of the vagus 7 nerve provokes pupil dilation [27], but results in humans have been mixed [28,29].

8 Phasic changes in cortical NE levels are associated with the scalp-recorded P3 component [30– 9 37]. Events that lead to increased phasic firing of the LC also lead to increased P3 amplitude [30]. 10 Noradrenergic drugs influence P3 amplitude in both animals [38] and humans [39–41], and lesion of the 11 LC eliminates the P3 in monkeys [42]. Of interest here, the amplitude of the P3 is increased by invasive 12 VNS [29,31,35].

13 Although LC-NE activity is associated with changes in SAA, salivary cortisol, pupil size and the P3, 14 these psychophysiological measures are not exclusively diagnostic of changes in LC-NE activity. For 15 example, fluctuations in pupil size have been shown to track activity in a number of neuromodulatory 16 brainstem centers, including the LC, the dopaminergic ventral tegmental area, and the cholinergic basal 17 forebrain [24,26]. Also, P3 amplitude can be modulated by dopaminergic and cholinergic 18 pharmacological manipulations, suggesting a role for those systems in P3 generation [30]. Thus, 19 although our study is well-equipped to pick up converging evidence for taVNS effects on the 20 noradrenergic system, it does not allow us to fully discriminate between noradrenergic and other 21 neuromodulatory and hormonal effects of taVNS.

22 To explore the claim that taVNS increases central NE, we assayed SAA, salivary cortisol, pupil 23 size and P3 amplitude across three experiments. In Experiments 1A and 2, we collected saliva samples



1 sample was taken halfway through the task, and a final sample taken after task completion. Participants 2 did not report any notable adverse after-effects of taVNS.

#### 3 **Stimulation.**

4 We applied taVNS (NEMOS®, Cerbomed, Germany) with an intensity of 0.5 mA and a pulse 5 width of 200–300 μs at 25 Hz, alternating between on and off periods every 30 s [44–46]. In the taVNS 6 condition, the electrodes were applied to the cymba conchae region, which is heavily innervated by the 7 auricular branch of the vagus nerve [47,48] (**Fig. 1B**). In the sham condition, the electrodes were placed 8 on the left ear lobe (**Fig. 1C**), which should not induce any significant brainstem or cortical activation 9 [5,44–46].

10 **Saliva sample collection.**

# 11 Saliva samples were collected at three points in time: five minutes before taVNS began 12 (baseline, t=-5), at t=45 and t=75 minutes after taVNS began. Whole saliva was collected by instructing 13 participants to let saliva collect passively in their mouth and spit the accumulated saliva into a 14 polypropylene tube once per minute, over a three-minute period [49–51]. We calculated SAA and 15 salivary cortisol secretion as the flow rate multiplied by the concentration values, as in our previous 16 work [16] and as is considered the "gold standard" in the field [9,51].

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# 2 **Task.**



1 were re-referenced offline to the right mastoid, and band-pass filtered (0.1 Hz-20.0 Hz). Ocular artifacts 2 were removed [56]. Epochs were extracted from the EEG from -200 ms to 800 ms relative to stimulus 3 onset, using the first 200 ms for baseline correction. Trials in which the change in voltage at any channel 4 exceeded 35μV per sampling point were removed as were trials with slow drifts (>300 μV/200 ms) and 5 low activity  $\frac{\text{S}}{\text{S}} = \frac{1}{2}$  low activity  $\frac{\text{S}}{\text{S}} = \frac{1}{2}$ 

6 We created difference waves to simplify figures and analyses, to isolate the topography of the 7 P3, and to distinguish the P3 to oddballs ("oddball P3") and the P3 to novel stimuli ("novelty P3"). To 8 isolate the oddball P3 we subtracted the standard ERP from the oddball ERP, and to isolate the novelty 9 P3 we subtracted the standard ERP from the novelty ERP. In each case P3 amplitude was quantified as 10 the most positive mean amplitude from a 200-ms sliding window across the entire difference wave.

11 The oddball P3 was analyzed using an ANOVA including the factors treatment (taVNS vs sham), 12 modality (visual vs auditory), task (classic oddball vs novelty oddball) and electrode (Fz, Cz, Pz). The 13 novelty P3 obtained in the novelty oddball task was analyzed using an ANOVA including the factors 14 treatment (taVNS vs sham), modality (visual vs auditory) and electrode (Fz, Cz, Pz). In addition, 15 treatment order was added as a between-subjects variable-of-no-interest, to account for additional 16 error variance.

17 **Results** 

18 *Oddball P3.* 

19 The amplitude of the oddball P3 showed significant main effects of electrode, indicating a 20 typical parietal distribution (**Fig. 2**), *F*(2,44)=60.82, *p<*.001, task (classic oddball: 7.7 μV; novelty oddball: 21 7.0 μV; **Fig. 3**), *F*(1,22)=13.36, *p=*.001, and modality (visual: 7.7 μV; auditory: 6.4 μV), *F*(1,22)=28.65, 22 *p<*.001. In addition, electrode interacted with task, *F*(2,44)=5.15, *p*=.010, and exhibited a three-way 23 interaction with task and modality, *F*(2,44)=3.56, *p*=.037. Treatment did not significantly affect oddball



## **EXPERIMENT 1B**





1 these participants the bad electrode was removed before ocular correction, and its signal interpolated





- 1 cortisol was determined only for the saliva samples from Experiment 2. All seventeen participants 2 provided sufficient samples to include cortisol secretion data in every cell of the design.
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## 3 **Saliva sample processing (Experiments 1A and 2).**

4 Fresh saliva samples were stored in ice for a maximum of 2.5 hours. Before freezing, samples 5 were centrifuged at room temperature for 4 min at 4000 x *g* to force debris and bacteria to the bottom 6 of the tube. The clear supernatant was pipetted into a smaller polypropylene tube and frozen at −60◦C 7 until the assay procedure.

### 8 **Hormonal analyses.**

9 SAA was assayed using a quantitative kinetic determination kit (IBL, Hamburg, Germany)[50].

10 The assay has a sensitivity of 12.5 U/ml. The CV% was 2.5. Each participant's samples were assayed for

11 SAA at the same time. 25/222 samples gave values outside the sensitivity range of the SAA assay on two

12 successive attempts. These samples were considered outliers and not assayed a third time.

13 Cortisol was assayed using a competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay, according to the

14 manufacturer's instructions (IBL, Hamburg, Germany), with a sensitivity of 0.045 μg/mL, and intra-assay

15 variability (CV%) was 2.4. All samples of the same participant were assayed for cortisol simultaneously.

16 Treatment order and experiment (1a vs. 2) were included as between-subjects variables. Here we report

17 statistical terms involving treatment order because it allows us to deconstruct the omnibus ANOVA in a

18 way that demonstrates a potentially important effect of treatment on this measure. Note that the

19 direction of the main effect of time (Fig. 4, 5a, and 5b) may reflect the influence of treatment, activities

20 the participants carried out during each session (see Fig. 1A), mental fatigue and other factors.

21 **Results** 

22 **Saliva alpha amylase secretion.** 



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## 15 **Salivary cortisol secretion.**

16 Treatment affected salivary cortisol secretion, exhibited as an interaction of treatment with 17 time, *F*(2,30)=3.6, *p=.*040. There were no other significant effects in the omnibus ANOVA. Separate 18 ANOVAs for each treatment revealed that salivary cortisol did not change from baseline in the taVNS 19 condition, *F*(2,30)=0.5, *p*=.63, but significantly *decreased* in the sham condition, *F*(2,30)=4.5, *p*=.020, 20 (**Fig. 5B**). This suggests that taVNS worked against a general tendency for salivary cortisol secretion to 21 decrease over the course of a session.

22 **Salivary flow rate.** 

1 As with the SAA analysis, we pooled flow rate data from Experiments 1a and 2 for a single 2 analysis**.** Participants tended to provide more saliva as they became practiced and comfortable with the 3 collection method, both within sessions (*Mt1*=.35, *Mt2*=.39, *Mt3*=.40), *F*(2,68)=6.5, *p=.*003, and between 4 sessions (Ms1=.36, *Ms2*=.40), *F*(1,34)=4.5, *p=.*042. There was no significant effect of treatment on flow 5 rate (*p*=.46).

#### 6 **GENERAL DISCUSSION**

7 We examined the neuromodulatory and hormonal effects of taVNS, analyzing several putative 8 markers of central NE activity. Relative to baseline, taVNS increased SAA and attenuated a decrease in 9 salivary cortisol that was observed with sham stimulation. We also found that baseline pupil size was 10 not affected by taVNS, and that taVNS did not affect P3 amplitude. Thus, two of our four physiological 11 markers responded sensitively to taVNS, consistent with increases in central NE.

12 Our results compliment work by Ventura-Bort and colleagues [17], who reported preliminary 13 evidence that taVNS increases SAA. We demonstrate a more robust effect, using a larger sample size (25 14 vs. 18 participants), more post-stimulation saliva samples (2 vs. 1), and a superior method of saliva 15 collection (whole saliva method vs. absorbent cotton sponges) [9,51]. In addition, we report the first 16 evidence that taVNS influences salivary cortisol. Together, these hormonal analyses add to an 17 accumulating pharmacological literature suggesting that SAA and salivary cortisol might be effective 18 markers of central NE activity [13–16,20].

19 The relationship between pupil size and NE activity has been supported by direct recordings 20 from the LC [21,23] , direct stimulation of the LC [24], and by fMRI data from human participants 21 [22,26]. We found no effect of taVNS on pupil size, suggesting that taVNS might not increase NE. An 22 alternative possibility is that our pupil experiment was underpowered in terms of sample size or 23 recording duration, or otherwise not sensitive enough to the taVNS manipulation. Our null result

1 resonates with Schevernels and colleagues [29], who found no effect on pupil size of invasive VNS. 2 Although two other invasive VNS studies found significant pupil effects, we know of no other taVNS 3 study that has measured pupil data. Thus, our work serves as a first exploration that should be revisited 4 with methods adjusted accordingly.

5 The LC-P3 hypothesis proposes that the P3 reflects the change in neural gain produced by a 6 phasic burst of NE release [30]. Only one research group has reported an effect of taVNS on P3 7 amplitude [17,59]. In one study [59] these researchers analyzed data from a Simon task and report that 8 taVNS increased both conflict adaptation and N2 amplitude on incompatible trials, but not P3 9 amplitude. In a separate study they found taVNS increased P3 amplitude [17]. This study was 10 exploratory, reporting significant simple effects in specific cells of their design, without justification from 11 interactions in the omnibus ANOVA. In light of their other null effect, and our Bayesian evidence in favor 12 of no effect, we must acknowledge that the evidence that the P3 is directly affected by invasive or 13 transcutaneous VNS is mixed at best.

14 We note some limitations to this work. Saliva data was pooled across two experiments. In 15 Experiment 1a participants were being set up with EEG between the baseline sample and subsequent 16 samples, whereas in Experiment 2 participants were practicing the task-switching experiment. The 17 stimulation protocols and collection methods were identical, and no statistical tests were interpreted 18 between experiments, but the difference likely introduced some variability to the data. This could have 19 contributed to the relatively weak statistical support for the effect of taVNS on SAA. That is, the two-way 20 interaction of treatment with time was not significant so we relied on the three-way interaction of 21 treatment with time and treatment order to justify decomposing the omnibus ANOVA. The salivary 22 cortisol results gave more straightforward evidence of an effect of taVNS, but the sample size was 23 smallish (n=17), though still within an appropriate range of sample sizes for investigating phasic changes 24 in salivary cortisol (for a review see [51]). An additional limitation of this work concerns the general

1 parameters and targets used for taVNS. We used a stimulation intensity of 0.5 mA for all participants. In 2 contrast, some studies titrate stimulus intensity to the participant's perceptual threshold (e.g. [60] 3 titrated to an intensity of 3.14 mA). In addition, if stimulation in the sham condition was painful, it could 4 have increased central NE, creating a ceiling effect that minimized our ability to detect a further increase 5 due to taVNS. Our stimulation intensity was low, but pre-treating with taVNS or sham first and then 6 running the oddball task with no simultaneous stimulation could address this concern. Finally, there is 7 an unresolved question as to whether the cymba conchae is the best target for taVNS, though both sites 8 yield significant changes in cortical activity [47,61,62]. It is possible that some of our null effects were 9 due to our use of a weak current, a ceiling effect, or a sub-optimal target. Nevertheless, our entire 10 protocol was based on previous work [44–46] and use of this protocol lead to significant effects on 11 salivary markers of NE activity. Keeping the discussed null effects and limitations in mind, our results 12 provide support for the clinical and experimental use of taVNS.

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14 Declarations of interest: none.

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