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1 **Delta-beta correlation as a candidate endophenotype of social anxiety: A two-generation**  
2 **family study**

3

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## 1 Abstract

### 2 Background

3 Social anxiety disorder (SAD) is characterized by an extreme and intense fear and avoidance  
4 of social situations. In this two-generation family study we examined delta-beta correlation  
5 during a social performance task as candidate endophenotype.

### 6 Methods

7 Nine families with a target participant (diagnosed with SAD), their spouse and children, as  
8 well as target's siblings with spouse and children performed a social performance task in  
9 which they gave a speech in front of a camera. EEG was measured during resting state,  
10 anticipation, and recovery. Our analyses focused on two criteria for endophenotypes: co-  
11 segregation within families and heritability.

### 12 Results

13 Co-segregation analyses revealed increased negative delta-low beta correlation during  
14 anticipation in participants with (sub)clinical SAD compared to participants without  
15 (sub)clinical SAD. Heritability analyses revealed that delta-low beta and delta-high beta  
16 correlations during anticipation were heritable. Delta-beta correlation did not differ between  
17 participants with and without (sub)clinical SAD during resting state or recovery, nor between  
18 participants with and without SAD during all phases of the task.

### 19 Limitations

20 It should be noted that participants were seen only once, they all performed the EEG tasks in  
21 the same order, and some participants were too anxious to give a speech.

### 22 Conclusions

23 Delta-low beta correlation during anticipation of giving a speech might be a candidate  
24 endophenotype of SAD, possibly reflecting increased crosstalk between cortical and  
25 subcortical regions. If validated as endophenotype, delta-beta correlation during anticipation

1 could be useful in studying the genetic basis, as well as improving treatment and early  
2 detection of persons at risk for developing SAD.

3

4

5 Key words: delta-beta correlation, EEG, endophenotype, social anxiety disorder, social

6 performance task

7



1 Keller, 2006; Glahn et al., 2007). Endophenotypes could also yield better understanding of the  
2 biological mechanisms underlying SAD (Glahn et al., 2007; Iacono et al., 2016; Miller and  
3 Rockstroh, 2013), that could help in interpreting genetic findings (Flint et al., 2014). Finally,  
4 endophenotypes could be used to identify individuals at risk for developing SAD.

5 Electrocortical endophenotypes are specifically useful because they are presumably more  
6 closely related to genes than cognitive-behavioral endophenotypes (Cannon and Keller,  
7 2006).

8         A putative electrocortical endophenotype of SAD is delta-beta cross-frequency  
9 correlation (further referred to as ‘delta-beta correlation’) during socially stressful situations  
10 (Harrewijn et al., in revision). Delta-beta correlation has been hypothesized to reflect the  
11 crosstalk between cortical (as reflected in beta power [14-30 Hz]) and subcortical brain  
12 regions (as reflected in delta power [1-4 Hz]) (Miskovic et al., 2011; Putman et al., 2012;  
13 Schutter and Knyazev, 2012; Schutter et al., 2006; Schutter and Van Honk, 2005; Velikova et  
14 al., 2010), which is increased at elevated levels of anxiety (Knyazev, 2011; Knyazev et al.,  
15 2006; Schutter and Knyazev, 2012). Source-localization analyses have revealed that delta-  
16 beta correlation was associated with a neural network that comprised the orbitofrontal cortex  
17 and the anterior cingulate cortex (Knyazev, 2011), key neural structures playing an important  
18 role in affective control processes (Bechara et al., 2000; Devinsky et al., 1995). The  
19 endophenotype criterion ‘association’ has already been confirmed in previous studies: social  
20 anxiety is associated with stronger delta-beta correlation during anticipation of (Harrewijn et  
21 al., 2016; Miskovic et al., 2010; Miskovic et al., 2011) and recovery from giving a speech  
22 (Harrewijn et al., 2016). Results during resting state appear to be mixed (Harrewijn et al.,  
23 2016; Miskovic et al., 2010; Miskovic et al., 2011).

24         The present study was designed to investigate whether delta-beta correlation during  
25 anticipation and recovery meets the endophenotype criteria ‘co-segregation within families’

1 and ‘heritability’. We used a two-generation family design, because examining extended  
2 families is better to identify genetic variability and therefore heritability than examining twins  
3 or sib-pairs (Gur et al., 2007; Williams and Blangero, 1999). In addition, we selected families  
4 based on two probands (adult with SAD and child with (sub)clinical SAD; ascertainment), to  
5 ensure we did not focus on a spurious or nongenetic form of SAD and to increase the chance  
6 that endophenotypes were related to the genetic factors that influence SAD (Fears et al., 2014;  
7 Glahn et al., 2010). To our knowledge, no studies exist that have used a two-generation family  
8 design to examine electrocortical endophenotypes of SAD. Adults with SAD and their family  
9 members participated in a SPT to elicit social stress (Van Veen et al., 2009; Westenberg et al.,  
10 2009). We measured EEG in all participants during resting state, anticipation and recovery  
11 from this socially stressful situation. We expected that delta-beta correlation would be an  
12 endophenotype of SAD during anticipation and recovery, but not during resting state  
13 (Harrewijn et al., in revision).

14

## 1 **Methods**

### 2 **Participants**

3 This was the first study to intensively investigate patients with SAD and their family  
4 members – their spouse and children, and the target’s siblings with spouse and children. We  
5 investigated extended pedigrees instead of nuclear families since larger families result in more  
6 power than smaller families (Dolan et al., 1999; Gur et al., 2007; Rijdsdijk et al., 2001;  
7 Williams and Blangero, 1999). In total, 9 families (total n = 132, on average 14.67 members  
8 per family, range 4-35) participated in the Leiden Family Lab study on SAD. Families were  
9 recruited via media exposure (newspapers, TV, radio) calling for participation of entire  
10 families in a study on ‘extreme shyness’.

11 We selected families based on two probands: one ‘target participant’ with SAD and  
12 one child of the ‘target participant’ with clinical or subclinical SAD (further referred to as  
13 ‘(sub)clinical SAD’). SAD was diagnosed based on the Mini-Plus structured interview  
14 (Sheehan et al., 1998; Van Vliet and De Beurs, 2007), using the DSM-IV-R criteria for SAD  
15 generalized subtype. In addition, the psychiatrist made sure that these patients also satisfied  
16 DSM-5 criteria. Subclinical SAD was defined as meeting the criteria for SAD, without  
17 showing impairment in important areas of functioning (criterion G in the DSM-5 (APA,  
18 2013)).

19 Nine participants did not participate in the EEG session, and data of 10 participants  
20 were excluded due to technical problems. Of the 113 participants taking part in the EEG  
21 session, several participants did not finish because of different reasons (e.g. some participants  
22 only wanted to participate in resting state measures, others did not want to give a speech, a  
23 few children were too tired). Supplementary table 1 displays the number of participants per  
24 measure. Of these 113 participants 18 were diagnosed with SAD (15.9%), and 25 were



1 diagnosed with subclinical SAD (22.1%), thus, 43 participants were diagnosed with  
2 (sub)clinical SAD.

3

#### 4 **Procedure**

5 Figure 1 depicts a flow-chart of the inclusion and assessment procedures of our Leiden  
6 Family Lab study on SAD, and lists the inclusion criteria. All participants provided informed  
7 consent, according to the Declaration of Helsinki (1991). Both parents signed the informed  
8 consent form for their children, and children between 12 and 18 years signed themselves as  
9 well. Every participant received €75 for their participation and we reimbursed travel  
10 expenses. The procedure was approved by the medical ethics committee of the Leiden  
11 University Medical Center.

12

13 [Insert Figure 1 about here]

14

#### 15 **Social performance task**

16 The SPT (Harrewijn et al., 2016) comprised five phases in a fixed order: instruction,  
17 video, anticipation, speech, and recovery (Figure 2). We added an extended recovery phase to  
18 allow for cortisol measures (the results will be reported elsewhere). Participants did not know  
19 beforehand about this task, so we started with an instruction. Participants then viewed a video  
20 of a peer, who talked about her positive and negative qualities (see Supplementary data 1 for  
21 validation of the videos in an independent sample). Thereafter, participants were asked to  
22 evaluate this peer (Supplementary figure 1). During the anticipation phase, participants  
23 prepared a speech about their own positive and negative qualities. Then, participants indicated  
24 on a VAS how they expected that their speech would be evaluated by a peer (Supplementary  
25 figure 1). Participants gave a three-minute speech in front of a video camera, and were told

1 that their speech would be evaluated by a peer at a later moment. However, this was a cover  
2 story to induce social evaluative stress. The SPT ended with the recovery phase in which  
3 participants had five minutes to relax, and a neutral nature film that the participants watched  
4 for 20 minutes. After the EEG procedure, participants were debriefed and asked not to tell  
5 their family members about the SPT, and all but one participant reported that they did not  
6 know beforehand about the SPT.

7

8 **Task-induced mood.** To validate whether the SPT indeed elicited more social stress  
9 in participants with SAD or (sub)clinical SAD, we asked participants to report on a VAS from  
10 0 ('not at all') to 100 ('very much') how nervous they felt at six time points and how much  
11 they felt like doing the next part of the experiment at five time points (Figure 2). This latter  
12 question was used to indirectly measure avoidance, because in our view it was not ethical to  
13 ask participants five times if they wanted to avoid the situation and do nothing about it.

14

15 [Insert Figure 2 about here]

16

### 17 **EEG recording and signal processing**

18 We used the same procedure for EEG recording and signal processing as in Harrewijn  
19 et al. (2016). EEG was recorded from 64 Ag-AgCl electrodes mounted in an electrode cap  
20 (10/20 placement) using the BioSemi Active Two system (Biosemi, Amsterdam, The  
21 Netherlands). Sampling rate was set at 1024 Hz. The common mode sense and driven right  
22 leg replaced the conventional ground electrode, and common mode sense was used as online  
23 reference. Two electrodes above and below the left eye measured vertical eye movements,  
24 and two electrodes at left and right canthus measured horizontal eye movements. Two  
25 electrodes were placed at left and right mastoid for offline re-referencing. Two electrodes

1 (under the right collar bone and between the ribs on the left side) measured heart rate via the  
2 modified lead-2 placement (data will be reported elsewhere).

3 EEG data was offline analyzed with BrainVision Analyzer (BVA, Brain Products  
4 GmbH, Gilching, Germany). EEG channels were re-referenced to the average of all EEG  
5 electrodes, and filtered between 0.1-50 Hz (24 dB/oct), with a 50 Hz notch filter. We created  
6 epochs of 4 sec (4096 samples) with 1 sec (1024 samples) overlap, and manually inspected  
7 for artifacts. Noisy channels were interpolated, and eye movements were subtracted from the  
8 data with the ocular independent component analysis as implemented in BrainVision  
9 Analyzer Epochs were automatically excluded based on the following criteria: maximal  
10 allowed voltage step: 50  $\mu\text{V}/\text{ms}$ ; minimum/maximum amplitude: -200/200  $\mu\text{V}$ ; lowest  
11 allowed activity in 100 ms intervals: 0.5  $\mu\text{V}$ . If an artifact was found in one channel, the entire  
12 epoch was removed during both manual and automatic artifact rejection. Participants with and  
13 without (sub)clinical SAD did not differ in their number of clean epochs per phase of the task,  
14 all  $p$ s > 0.19 (Supplementary table 2)<sup>2</sup>. Finally, we ran a fast Fourier transform analysis with a  
15 50% Hanning window to extract relative power ( $\mu\text{V}^2$ ) from the delta (1-4 Hz), total beta (14-  
16 30 Hz), low beta (14-20 Hz), and high beta (20-30 Hz) frequency bands per epoch. Power  
17 values for electrodes F3, Fz, F4 were averaged into composite frontal delta and frontal beta  
18 power values (Harrewijn et al., 2016; Putman, 2011; Putman et al., 2012). For each  
19 participant separately, we calculated the correlation between log-transformed delta power and  
20 log-transformed total, low, or high beta power across all epochs per phase of the SPT.

21

## 22 **Statistical analysis**

---

<sup>2</sup> The number of clean epochs during the second resting state was related to delta-high beta correlation during the second resting state, there were no other correlations between the number of clean epochs and personal characteristics, task-induced mood or EEG measures.

1           We performed all analyses separately for SAD and (sub)clinical SAD, because only  
2 few people ( $n = 18$ ) were diagnosed with SAD, which might influence power. First, we  
3 verified the differences between participants with and without SAD or (sub)clinical SAD by  
4 modeling the relation between SAD or (sub)clinical SAD and self-reported symptoms of  
5 social anxiety and depression. Z-scores based on means and standard deviations of normative  
6 samples (Fresco et al., 2001; Inderbitzen-Nolan and Walters, 2000; Roelofs et al., 2010;  
7 Roelofs et al., 2013) were calculated to enable comparisons between adult and child  
8 questionnaires. Regression models were fitted in R (R Core Team, Vienna, Austria) with self-  
9 report questionnaires as dependent variable and SAD, age, age<sup>2</sup>, and sex as independent  
10 variables. Because the participants in this study were not independent, we modeled genetic  
11 correlations between family members by including random effects.

12           Second, we validated whether the SPT elicited more social stress in participants with  
13 SAD or (sub)clinical SAD by modeling the relation between SAD or (sub)clinical SAD and  
14 task-induced mood across several time points during the SPT. One regression model was  
15 fitted with task-induced mood as dependent variable and time (as a factor), age, age<sup>2</sup> and sex  
16 as independent variables. An additional regression model also included the interaction time X  
17 SAD or (sub)clinical SAD. We included random effects for taking into account genetic  
18 correlations between family members and existing correlations between measurements at  
19 various time points within a person. The effect of SAD or (sub)clinical SAD was tested using  
20 a likelihood ratio test statistic comparing the likelihoods of the regression models with and  
21 without SAD or (sub)clinical SAD. Significance of SAD or (sub)clinical SAD at a specific  
22 time point was assessed by using Wald tests.

23           Third, we tested whether delta-beta correlation during the SPT was a candidate  
24 endophenotype of SAD, using the two criteria ‘co-segregation within families’ and  
25 ‘heritability’ (Glahn et al., 2007). For the co-segregation analysis, one regression model was

1 fitted with delta-beta correlation as dependent variable, and time (as a factor), age, age<sup>2</sup>, sex  
2 as independent variables. An additional regression model also included the interaction time X  
3 SAD or (sub)clinical SAD. We included random effects for taking into account genetic  
4 correlations between family members and existing correlations between measurements at  
5 various time points within a person. The effect of SAD or (sub)clinical SAD was tested using  
6 a likelihood ratio test statistic comparing the likelihoods of the regression models with and  
7 without SAD or (sub)clinical SAD. This was performed separately for task data (anticipation  
8 and recovery – eyes open), and resting state data (first and second – eyes closed). Individual  
9 delta-beta correlations were transformed using the Fisher transformation ( $0.5 \cdot \ln(1+r/1-r)$ ) and  
10 then standardized to zero mean and unit variance variables. Note that to assess the relationship  
11 between SAD or (sub)clinical SAD and the self-report questionnaires, task-induced mood, or  
12 delta-beta correlation no additional ascertainment-corrections were needed because SAD was  
13 included as an independent variable which is sufficient to correct for ascertainment (Monsees  
14 et al., 2009).

15 Heritability analyses were performed using SOLAR (Almasy and Blangero, 1998).  
16 Briefly, SOLAR decomposes the total variance of the phenotype into genetic and  
17 environmental components. This is estimated using maximum likelihood techniques, based on  
18 a kinship matrix for the genetic component and an identity matrix for the unique  
19 environmental component (with ones on the diagonal and zeros everywhere else, implying  
20 that the environment is unique to every person). We did not include a shared environmental  
21 component (household) in the final analysis, because this did not influence the effects.  
22 Heritability is defined as the ratio of the additive genetic component and the total phenotypic  
23 variance (after removal of variance explained by covariates) (Almasy and Blangero, 2010).  
24 Age, age<sup>2</sup> and sex were used as covariates, and removed from the final model if  $p > 0.05$ .  
25 Correction for ascertainment was necessary because we selected families based on specific

1 criteria (SAD) that are related to the candidate endophenotypes and SAD was not included in  
2 the heritability analyses. In SOLAR this is implemented as subtracting the likelihood for the  
3 probands (target participant with SAD and child with (sub)clinical SAD) from the likelihood  
4 of the rest of the sample (De Andrade and Amos, 2000; Hopper and Mathews, 1982). Since  
5 the assumptions for SOLAR (trait standard deviation higher than 0.5, residual kurtosis  
6 normally distributed) were not met for most variables, we applied an inverse normal  
7 transformation to all EEG variables in this step, as implemented in SOLAR (Almasy and  
8 Blangero, 1998, 2010). For candidate endophenotypes that showed significant heritability, we  
9 also performed a bivariate analysis in SOLAR to estimate the genetic correlation between the  
10 candidate endophenotype and SAD or (sub)clinical SAD, including only the significant  
11 covariates. A Bonferroni correction was applied to correct for performing multiple (12) tests  
12 (i.e.  $\alpha = 0.004$  as threshold for declaring statistical significance). We did not exclude the few  
13 outliers, since these were mostly participants with (sub)clinical SAD, of whom we expected  
14 extreme scores.

## Results

### Participant characteristics

First, we verified the differences between participants with and without SAD or (sub)clinical SAD. Table 1 shows the characteristics of the participants with SAD, subclinical SAD and participants without (sub)clinical SAD. The analyses focusing on SAD revealed that participants with SAD were older than participants without SAD,  $\beta = 10.75$ ,  $p = 0.01$ . There was no difference in estimated IQ,  $\beta = -0.52$ ,  $p = 0.85$ . Participants with SAD showed more social anxiety and depressive symptoms than participants without SAD, respectively  $\beta = 3.08$ ,  $p < 0.001$  and  $\beta = 0.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . The analyses focusing on (sub)clinical SAD (clinical and subclinical together) revealed no differences in age,  $\beta = -1.01$ ,  $p = 0.74$ , and estimated IQ,  $\beta = -1.74$ ,  $p = 0.39$ . Furthermore, participants with (sub)clinical SAD showed more social anxiety and depressive symptoms than participants without (sub)clinical SAD, respectively  $\beta = 1.83$ ,  $p < 0.001$  and  $\beta = 0.51$ ,  $p < 0.001$ .

[Insert Table 1 about here]

### Task-induced mood

Second, we analyzed task-induced mood to validate whether the SPT elicited more social stress in participants with SAD or (sub)clinical SAD. Indeed, both SAD and (sub)clinical SAD were related to nervousness during the task, respectively  $X^2(6) = 49.33$ ,  $p < 0.001$  and  $X^2(6) = 34.17$ ,  $p < 0.001$  (Figure 3). Nervousness was not influenced by age,  $age^2$  or sex, all  $ps > 0.11$ . Furthermore, both SAD and (sub)clinical SAD were related to avoidance, respectively  $X^2(5) = 25.97$ ,  $p < 0.001$  and  $X^2(5) = 16.98$ ,  $p = 0.005$ . Avoidance was not influenced by age and  $age^2$ , all  $ps > 0.63$ , but females felt less like doing the SPT than males in models with SAD and (sub)clinical SAD, respectively  $\beta = -12.88$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , and  $\beta =$

1 -12.78,  $p < 0.001$ . Figure 3 shows the time points on which participants with and without  
2 (sub)clinical SAD differ significantly.

3

4 [Insert Figure 3 about here]

5

### 6 **Delta-beta correlation**

7 Third, we tested whether delta-beta correlation during the SPT was a candidate  
8 endophenotype of SAD by focusing on co-segregation within families and heritability. Since  
9 we found no co-segregation within families between SAD and delta-beta correlation, we only  
10 reported the findings of (sub)clinical SAD (Figure 4). See Supplementary data 2 for results of  
11 frontal alpha asymmetry.

12

13 **Social performance task.** Co-segregation analyses showed that (sub)clinical SAD  
14 was related to delta-low beta correlation during anticipation and recovery,  $X^2(2) = 6.04$ ,  $p =$   
15  $0.049$ . Age,  $age^2$ , and sex also influenced delta-low beta correlation during the SPT. Females  
16 show more negative delta-beta correlation than males,  $\beta = -0.38$ ,  $p = 0.01$ . Age is positively  
17 related to delta-low beta correlation,  $\beta = 0.07$ ,  $p = 0.01$ , and also in a non-linear way,  $\beta = -$   
18  $0.001$ ,  $p = 0.001$ , revealing more negative delta-beta correlation in the youngest and oldest  
19 participants. Individual betas indicated that participants with (sub)clinical SAD showed  
20 significantly more negative delta-low beta correlation during anticipation,  $\beta = -0.47$ ,  $p = 0.01$ ,  
21 but not during recovery,  $\beta = -0.09$ ,  $p = 0.63$ . Delta-total beta and delta-high beta correlation  
22 showed the same pattern, but did not significantly co-segregate with (sub)clinical SAD within  
23 families, respectively  $X^2(2) = 2.33$ ,  $p = 0.31$ , and  $X^2(2) = 0.97$ ,  $p = 0.62$ .

24 Heritability analysis showed that delta-low beta and delta-high beta correlations during  
25 anticipation were heritable (Table 2). However, if we corrected for performing multiple tests,



1 these results did not remain significant. Bivariate analyses showed that the genetic correlation  
2 between delta-low beta correlation during anticipation and (sub)clinical SAD was not  
3 significantly different from zero,  $r = -0.77$ ,  $SE = 0.46$ ,  $p = 0.24$ .

4

5 **Resting state.** Co-segregation analysis showed that (sub)clinical SAD did not co-  
6 segregate with delta-total beta, delta-low beta, nor delta-high beta correlation within families  
7 during the two resting state phases, all  $X^2$ s  $< 1.53$  and  $p$ s  $> 0.46$ . Heritability analysis showed  
8 that only delta-total beta correlation during the second resting state was heritable (Table 2).  
9 However, this did not remain significant after correction for performing multiple tests.

10

11 [Insert Figure 4 about here]

12 [Insert Table 2 about here]

1

## Discussion

2           The goal of the current study was to investigate whether delta-beta correlation during  
3 anticipation of and recovery from a socially stressful situation is a candidate electrocortical  
4 endophenotype of SAD. We used a unique two-generation family design to investigate the  
5 endophenotype criteria ‘co-segregation within families’ and ‘heritability’ for SAD. Target  
6 participants with SAD and their family members participated in a SPT to elicit social stress.  
7 We validated our groups and SPT by showing that participants with SAD or (sub)clinical  
8 SAD showed increased symptoms of SAD, and increased task-related nervousness and  
9 avoidance. Co-segregation analyses for SAD or resting state did not reveal significant effects  
10 on delta-beta correlation. Co-segregation analyses revealed that participants with (sub)clinical  
11 SAD showed stronger negative delta-beta correlation during anticipation than participants  
12 without (sub)clinical SAD. Heritability analyses showed that delta-low beta and delta-high  
13 beta correlations during anticipation were heritable, suggesting that delta-low beta correlation  
14 might be a candidate endophenotype of SAD.

15           Delta-beta correlation is often interpreted as the crosstalk between slow delta waves  
16 from subcortical regions and fast beta waves from cortical regions (Miskovic et al., 2011;  
17 Putman et al., 2012; Schutter and Knyazev, 2012; Schutter et al., 2006; Schutter and Van  
18 Honk, 2005; Velikova et al., 2010). The current study showed stronger negative delta-beta  
19 correlation in (sub)clinical SAD, similar to our previous research (Harrewijn et al., 2016),  
20 whereas some other studies showed stronger positive delta-beta correlation (Miskovic et al.,  
21 2010; Miskovic et al., 2011). This might be explained by the use of relative power in this  
22 study, whereas other studies have not specified whether they have used absolute or relative  
23 power). Or, this might suggest that the relation between delta-beta correlation and stress is not  
24 linear but U-shaped, and our SPT is possibly be more stressful than other tasks (indeed, low  
25 socially anxious participants also showed increased nervousness during this SPT). These two

1 explanations are described in more detail in Harrewijn et al. (2016). Previously, we argued  
2 that negative delta-beta correlation could still be interpreted as increased crosstalk, only in a  
3 different direction (Harrewijn et al., 2016). That is, a negative correlation corroborates studies  
4 showing an imbalance between cortical and subcortical brain regions in general anxiety  
5 (Bishop, 2007) and SAD (Bruhl et al., 2014; Cremers et al., 2015; Miskovic and Schmidt,  
6 2012). This imbalance might be related to increased worrying or rumination, as is often found  
7 in cognitive-behavioral studies in SAD (Clark and McManus, 2002; Heinrichs and Hofmann,  
8 2001; Hirsch and Clark, 2004). Delta-beta correlation was not related to (sub)clinical SAD  
9 during resting state, like in previous studies with high and low socially anxious participants  
10 (Harrewijn et al., 2016; Miskovic et al., 2010) and patients with SAD and controls (Miskovic  
11 et al., 2011). This might illustrate that a certain social threat is needed to induce worrying or  
12 rumination to measure delta-beta correlation as an endophenotype of SAD.

13         The current study provided an important first step in investigating candidate  
14 endophenotypes of SAD. This unique two-generation family design allowed us to investigate  
15 two important endophenotype criteria: co-segregation within families and heritability.  
16 Although our results suggest that delta-beta correlation is a candidate electrocortical  
17 endophenotype of SAD, some caution is warranted with this interpretation. Namely, we did  
18 not find this effect for delta-high beta or delta-total beta correlation. Although, other studies  
19 focused only on delta-low beta correlation (not on delta-high beta or delta-total beta) and  
20 found an effect of social anxiety (Miskovic et al., 2010; Miskovic et al., 2011). In our  
21 previous study in high and low socially anxious participants, we did not find an effect on  
22 delta-low beta correlation, only on delta-total beta correlation (Harrewijn et al., 2016).  
23 However, this sample was not comparable to the current study in terms of age and gender. We  
24 also need to be careful because the results were not significant for SAD, nor after correction  
25 for performing multiple tests. This might be a power issue, since only few non-target

1 participants were diagnosed with SAD and participants with subclinical SAD varied in their  
2 severity of symptoms. Future studies should replicate our finding and investigate the  
3 remaining endophenotype criteria, for example by comparing results of families with SAD  
4 with the general population. Also, it should be studied whether this candidate endophenotype  
5 is specific to SAD, or also present in comorbid disorders (such as depression and other  
6 anxiety disorders).

7         If future research would confirm that delta-beta correlation during anticipation is an  
8 endophenotype of SAD, this might guide research into delineating the genetic basis of SAD.  
9 It is hypothesized that endophenotypes have a simpler genetic basis than complex psychiatric  
10 disorders (Cannon and Keller, 2006; Glahn et al., 2007). So, genes involved in the biological  
11 processes implicated in delta-beta correlation during anticipation might be easier to find and  
12 might be related to genes involved in SAD. In addition, the biological mechanisms underlying  
13 delta-beta correlation in SAD might be targeted in treatment, and might be used to identify  
14 people at risk for developing SAD. For example, future studies should investigate which  
15 factors influence the development of SAD in persons with increased negative delta-beta  
16 correlation during anticipation.

17         A few limitations of the present study should be taken into account. First, participants  
18 were seen once, so future research should investigate whether this candidate endophenotype is  
19 stable over time. Second, all participants performed the EEG tasks in the same order, so their  
20 experiences in the social judgment paradigm could have influenced the results in the SPT.  
21 Third, some participants were too anxious to do the speech, and these might be the people  
22 with the most extreme delta-beta correlations. Possibly, if these participants had participated,  
23 delta-beta correlation effects would have been stronger.

24         To conclude, delta-low beta correlation during anticipation of a stressful social  
25 situation might be a candidate endophenotype of SAD. Stronger negative delta-beta

1 correlation in participants with (sub)clinical SAD could reflect the alleged imbalance between  
2 cortical and subcortical brain regions (Bruhl et al., 2014; Cremers et al., 2015; Miskovic and  
3 Schmidt, 2012). Although more studies are needed to confirm the current findings and  
4 examine the specificity of delta-beta correlation for SAD, this candidate endophenotype  
5 during anticipation of a stressful event might be useful in studying the genetic basis of SAD,  
6 as well as improving treatment and early detection of persons at risk for developing SAD.

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1 Table/Figure Legends

2 Figure 1. Flow-chart of the inclusion and assessment procedures of the Leiden Family Lab  
3 study on SAD. All family members performed the same parts of the family study (as depicted  
4 in assessment procedure), but the order of the parts differed between family members,  
5 dependent on their preferences and availability of the labs. Mostly, family members came  
6 together to the lab.

7  
8 Note: One target participant scored high on the autism questionnaire, but a psychiatrist  
9 confirmed that SAD was the correct diagnosis. Results of the social judgment paradigm (Van  
10 der Molen et al., 2014) will be reported elsewhere. SAD = social anxiety disorder; MINI Plus  
11 = Mini-Plus International Neuropsychiatric Interview (MINI Plus version 5.0.0) (Sheehan et  
12 al., 1998; Van Vliet and De Beurs, 2007); MINI Kid = MINI Kid interview (Bauhuis et al.,  
13 2013; Sheehan et al., 2010); FNE = Fear of Negative Evaluation (Carleton et al., 2006); AQ =  
14 Autism-Spectrum Quotient Questionnaire (Baron-Cohen et al., 2001); SRS = Social  
15 Responsiveness Scale  
16 (parent-rated) (Constantino et al., 2003); LSAS = Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale (Liebowitz,  
17 1987); SAS-A = Social Anxiety Scale – adolescents (La Greca and Lopez, 1998); BDI = Beck  
18 Depression Inventory (Beck et al., 1996); CDI = Child Depression Inventory (Kovacs, 1992);  
19 STAI = State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger et al., 1983); EHI = Edinburgh  
20 Handedness Inventory (Oldfield, 1971); BisBas = Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral  
21 Activation Scales (Carver and White, 1994); BisBas child version = Behavioral Inhibition and  
22 Behavioral Activation Scales, child version (Muris et al., 2005); PANAS = Positive and  
23 Negative Affect Scale (Watson et al., 1988); WAIS IV = Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale  
24 IV (Wechsler et al., 2008); WISC III = Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children III  
25 (Wechsler, 1991).

1 Figure 2. Overview of the social performance task. Adapted from Cognitive, Affective &  
2 Behavioral Neuroscience, Harrewijn, A., Van der Molen, M.J.W., & Westenberg, P.M.,  
3 Putative EEG measures of social anxiety: Comparing frontal alpha asymmetry and delta-beta  
4 cross-frequency correlation, Copyright (2016), with permission. Photo indicating neutral  
5 nature film from Matsubara, B. (Photographer). (2017, April 27). Spotted Towhee [digital  
6 image]. Retrieved from <https://www.flickr.com/photos/130819719@N05/33925138900/>



- 1 Figure 3. Task-induced nervousness (A) and avoidance (B) for participants with and without
- 2 (sub)clinical SAD (since analyses of delta-beta correlation also focused on (sub)clinical
- 3 SAD). Error bars represent standard error of the mean, means are uncorrected.
- 4 \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

- 1 Figure 4. Correlation between delta and total (A), low (B), and high (C) beta power in
- 2 participants with and without (sub)clinical SAD during the social performance task. Note:
- 3 analyses were done with transformed data, but non-transformed, uncorrected data are shown
- 4 for clarity. Error bars represent standard error of the mean.
- 5 \*  $p < 0.05$

- 1 Table 1  
 2 Uncorrected means (and standard deviations) of participants with SAD, subclinical SAD, and  
 3 without (sub)clinical SAD.

	Participants with SAD (12 females, 6 males)	Participants with subclinical SAD (10 females, 15 males)	Participants without (sub)clinical SAD (35 females, 35 males)
Age	39.67 (13.72)	21.36 (11.54)	29.99 (15.83)
Estimated IQ	106.67 (11.97)	103.00 (11.92)	105.96 (10.61)
Social anxiety (z-score)	3.83 (2.07)	0.69 (1.85)	0.24 (1.16)
Depression (z-score)	0.44 (0.83)	-0.38 (0.64)	-0.55 (0.67)

4

- 1 Table 2
- 2 Heritability estimates for the correlation between delta and total, low, and high beta during the
- 3 social performance task.

		Resting state 1	Anticipation	Recovery	Resting state 2
Delta -	$h^2$	0.00	0.30	0.06	<b>0.35</b>
total beta	$p(h^2)$	0.50	0.07	0.32	<b>0.04</b>
	$p(\text{age})$	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01
	$p(\text{age}^2)$	< 0.001	0.02	0.05	0.03
	$p(\text{sex})$	0.18	0.36	0.26	0.27
Delta -	$h^2$	0.02	<b>0.37</b>	0.04	0.24
low beta	$p(h^2)$	0.43	<b>0.04</b>	0.38	0.07
	$p(\text{age})$	0.12	0.01	0.01	0.13
	$p(\text{age}^2)$	< 0.001	0.13	0.04	0.01
	$p(\text{sex})$	0.17	0.31	0.12	0.44
Delta -	$h^2$	0.03	<b>0.33</b>	0.14	0.23
high beta	$p(h^2)$	0.38	<b>0.04</b>	0.16	0.11
	$p(\text{age})$	< 0.001	0.06	0.11	0.001
	$p(\text{age}^2)$	0.04	0.03	0.30	0.36
	$p(\text{sex})$	0.28	0.36	0.54	0.34

- 4 Note:  $h^2$  = heritability