

Neural mechanisms underlying heterogeneity in the presentation of anxious temperament

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Children with an anxious temperament (AT) are at risk for developing psychiatric disorders along the internalizing spectrum, including anxiety and depression. Like these disorders, AT is a multidimensional phenotype and children with extreme anxiety show varying mixtures of physiological, behavioral, and other symptoms. Using a well-validated juvenile monkey model of AT, we addressed the degree to which this phenotypic heterogeneity reflects fundamental differences or similarities in the underlying neurobiology. The rhesus macaque is optimal for studying AT because children and young monkeys express the anxious phenotype in similar ways and have similar neurobiology. Fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)-positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) in 238 freely behaving monkeys identified brain regions where metabolism predicted variation in three dimensions of the AT phenotype: hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) activity, freezing behavior, and expressive vocalizations. We distinguished brain regions that predicted all three dimensions of the phenotype from those that selectively predicted a single dimension. Elevated activity in the central nucleus of the amygdala and the anterior hippocampus was consistently found across individuals with different presentations of AT. In contrast, elevated activity in the lateral anterior hippocampus was selective to individuals with high levels of HPA activity, and decreased activity in the motor cortex (M1) was selective to those with high levels of freezing behavior. Furthermore, activity in these phenotype-selective regions mediated relations between amygdala metabolism and different expressions of anxiety. These findings provide a framework for understanding the mechanisms that lead to heterogeneity in the clinical presentation of internalizing disorders and set the stage for developing improved interventions.

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There is substantial heterogeneity in the clinical presentation of anxiety disorders, both within and across diagnostic categories. Anxiety often emerges early in development and, here too, there is considerable variation in presentation. Clinically relevant anxiety is often accompanied and preceded by an anxious temperament (AT). AT is a trait-like phenotype that is evident early in life, stable over time, associated with increased amygdala reactivity to novelty and potential threat, and expressed similarly in children and young nonhuman primates (1–6). Extreme dispositional anxiety and behavioral inhibition in childhood is a well-established risk factor for the internalizing spectrum of psychiatric disorders, including anxiety and major depression (5, 7, 8). These disorders are highly prevalent and associated with substantial morbidity and mortality (9, 10). Like the internalizing disorders, childhood AT is a complex, multidimensional phenotype and children with extreme AT show varying mixtures of peripheral physiological, behavioral, and other kinds of anxiety-related symptoms (5, 11, 12). This diversity manifests as weak covariation among these features (2, 13, 14). From the perspective of diagnosis and treatment, an important unresolved question is the degree to which heterogeneity in anxious individuals' symptoms reflects fundamental differences or similarities in the underlying neurobiology.

To address this question, we used a well-validated nonhuman primate model of early-life AT in combination with high-resolution ¹⁸fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)-positron emission tomography (FDG-PET) (2, 15).

Young rhesus macaques are ideal for understanding the neurobiology of dispositional anxiety in human children. Reflecting the two species recent evolutionary divergence, the brains of monkeys and humans are genetically, anatomically, and functionally similar (16–18). Homologous neurobiological substrates endow monkeys and humans with a shared repertoire of complex cognitive and socio-emotional behaviors (18). In particular, juvenile monkeys and young children express anxiety in similar ways, and in both species there are considerable individual differences in the presentation of the anxious phenotype. In monkeys, the AT phenotype can be elicited using the No-Eye Contact (NEC) condition of the Human Intruder Paradigm (15). During the NEC challenge, a human “intruder” enters the test room and presents his or her profile to the monkey while avoiding direct eye contact (15), similar to procedures used for assessing dispositional anxiety and behavioral inhibition in children (19). Using this challenge, individual differences in three fundamental dimensions of the anxious phenotype were assessed: hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) activity (increased plasma cortisol), behavior (increased freezing), and expressive communication (reductions in spontaneous vocalizations). All three dimensions show robust changes in response to the NEC challenge (15), paralleling observations made in dispositionally anxious and shy children (5).

A key advantage of the juvenile monkey AT model is that it permits concurrent measures of neural activity and naturalistic responses to an ethologically relevant potential threat, an opportunity not afforded by research in children. Here, FDG-PET was used to quantify brain metabolic activity in 238 freely behaving juvenile monkeys. FDG-PET, which provides a measure of regional brain metabolism integrated over the entire 30-min NEC challenge, is ideally suited for assessing sustained, trait-like neural responses (1).

Using these measures, we identified brain regions where metabolism predicts variation in one or more of the three AT dimensions. To understand the degree to which heterogeneity in the presentation of AT reflects invariant or distinct neural mechanisms, we distinguished “common” and “selective” substrates. Common neural substrates are those shared by individuals with varying expressions of anxiety; that is, a core set of brain regions where metabolism predicts variation in all three dimensions of the

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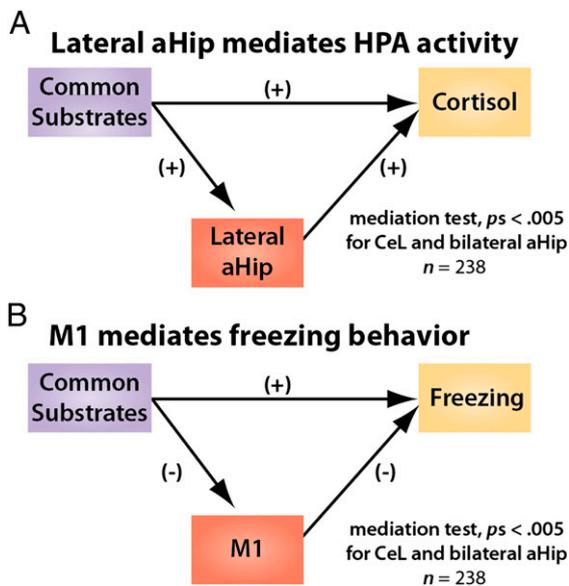


Fig. 5. Linking common and selective substrates: Brain-phenotype relations are selectively mediated. (A) Metabolism in the cortisol-selective region of lateral anterior hippocampus mediates relations between the common substrates (CeL and aHip) (Fig. 3) and HPA activity, $P < 0.005$ (uncorrected). (B) Metabolism in the freezing-selective region of M1 mediates relations between the common substrates and freezing behavior, $P < 0.005$ (uncorrected). The plus and minus symbols indicate the sign of the partial correlation (see Table S5).

anxious phenotype strongly depend upon regions that are dimension-specific.

Discussion

Like the internalizing disorders, there is marked variation in the presentation of AT during early development. Our observations provide compelling evidence that this heterogeneity reflects the joint contribution of common substrates, a core set of brain regions that are shared by individuals with different manifestations of extreme anxiety, and selective substrates, regions that are specifically associated with particular expressions. Consistent with prior work (2, 13, 14), the endocrine, behavioral, and communicative dimensions of the anxious phenotype were weakly correlated and continuously distributed, suggesting that AT represents a multidimensional spectrum of closely related phenotypes (Fig. 1). Using a dimensional analytic approach that circumvented the need to impose artificial categorical boundaries on the data, we identified a number of regions where metabolic activity predicts one or more dimensions of the AT phenotype (e.g., amygdala, hippocampus, PAG, AI, and OFC) (Fig. 2). We demonstrated that variation in each dimension of the phenotype—increased HPA activity, more freezing behavior, and fewer expressive vocalizations—was independently predicted by activity in the CeL and anterior hippocampus (Fig. 3). Elevated activity in this core set of brain regions was consistently found in individuals who displayed high levels of any of these dimensions (Fig. S2). We identified a second set of regions that specifically predict particular dimensions of the anxious phenotype, including the lateral anterior hippocampus and M1, and vIPFC (Fig. 4). Activity in these phenotype-selective regions distinguished individuals with high levels of HPA activity, freezing behavior, and vocal reductions, respectively. Finally, we demonstrated that these regions selectively mediate the association between the shared substrates, such as the CeL, and the endocrine and behavioral dimensions of the AT phenotype (Fig. 5). In sum, these observations suggest that variation in the expression of dispositional anxiety

reflects the activity of a neurobiological system comprised of both shared and phenotype-selective components. As described below, these findings have mechanistic, translational, and theoretical implications.

With respect to mechanism, our results show that the CeL and anterior hippocampus are consistently engaged by individuals with divergent presentations of anxiety (Fig. 3 and Fig. S2). This finding is in accord with evidence that the amygdala and anterior hippocampus show exaggerated activation to potentially threat-relevant cues in individuals with a variety of anxiety disorders or a childhood history of extreme AT (6, 21). Similarly, lesions of either region attenuate many signs of anxiety (20, 22, 23, 25). Interestingly, recent work in rodents suggests that the CeL plays a key role in gating the output of the amygdala (26, 27). In particular, the CeL is poised to modulate both acute fear and sustained anxiety via inhibitory projections to the two major output stations of the extended amygdala: the medial division of the Ce and the lateral division of the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (26, 27).

Our results indicate that individual differences in the expression of anxiety reflect the proximal contribution of phenotype-selective regions. In particular, we observed a double dissociation: M1 mediated freezing behavior, but not cortisol, whereas the lateral anterior hippocampus showed the opposite profile. The selective role of the lateral anterior hippocampus in the endocrine dimension of dispositional anxiety is consistent with mechanistic evidence that the hippocampus regulates the HPA axis (28). This result may reflect the dense distribution of mineralocorticoid receptors in the primate hippocampus (29), which are involved in more trait-like or basal aspects of HPA activity (28). The involvement of M1 in the behavioral dimension of AT is consistent with its well-established role in voluntary action. We obtained more limited evidence that the vIPFC is selectively involved in the reduction of expressive vocalizations, consistent with work implicating ventral premotor areas in vocalizations and other orofacial behaviors (30).

Although noninvasive techniques, such as FDG-PET, cannot establish causation, our results are in accord with mechanistic research demonstrating that the Ce orchestrates many of the peripheral physiological, behavioral, and expressive dimensions of anxiety and that these effects are mediated by functional interactions with response-specific targets (22–24). Our results address the proximal substrates of individual differences in the presentation of anxiety. Individuals characterized by high levels of freezing, for example, are distinguished by attenuated activity in M1. However, the distal determinants of this heterogeneity remain unclear; it may reflect variation in the strength of functional connectivity between the CeL and anterior hippocampus and particular phenotype-specific regions. Another possibility is that it reflects individual differences in subpopulations of phenotype-specific neurons that are intermingled at a level beyond the resolution of conventional imaging techniques (31). Indeed, evidence for distinct subpopulations of freezing- and cardiovascular-specific neurons in the Ce has led some investigators to suggest the possibility of developing therapeutic interventions targeting disorder-specific or patient-specific differences in symptom profiles (31), consistent with earlier suggestions in the translational literature (32).

Between one-third and two-thirds of anxiety patients are treatment-resistant or refractory (33), underscoring the need to develop more efficacious interventions. The present results highlight the potential utility of broad-spectrum (i.e., multisymptom) approaches. In particular, our findings suggest that therapeutics aimed at molecular targets within the CeL and anterior hippocampus, particularly when administered early in life, could ameliorate a variety of maladaptive or excessive responses to potential threat. Over time, such responses likely promote more complex and chronic symptoms (e.g., avoidance, anticipatory worry) and neurobiological alterations (34, 35). This suggestion is reinforced

by evidence that anxiety disorders with distinct presentations—including posttraumatic stress disorder, social anxiety disorder, specific phobias, and generalized anxiety disorder—are all characterized by elevated amygdala reactivity to aversive or potentially threatening stimuli (21, 36). Targeting upstream regions that are poised to regulate the CeL and anterior hippocampus (37), such as the OFC, represents another approach to broad-spectrum treatment. In this regard, cognitive-behavioral therapy, which is thought to be mediated by emotion regulatory processes implemented in the prefrontal cortex (38, 39), or cognitive-behavioral therapy combined with novel pharmacological interventions that increase neuroplasticity, may be particularly effective (40). Developing more effective early-life interventions is particularly important for minimizing the cumulative social and interpersonal damage associated with extreme anxiety and behavioral inhibition during early development (5).

These data also have implications for general theories of emotion. The peripheral physiological and behavioral features that are the hallmarks of emotion have traditionally been cast as tightly synchronized (41, 42). However, faced with growing evidence of weak response coupling, theorists have speculated that no single brain region could orchestrate all of these responses—that the alterations in the face, voice, body, and mental experience characteristic of emotional states and traits reflect the activity of segregated neural circuits (14, 43). This possibility is not addressed by prior imaging studies, which have typically measured only one or two concurrent responses or composite anxiety measures. Nor has it been directly addressed by lesion studies, which lack the statistical power required to investigate phenotypic heterogeneity. Therefore, the present observation that activity in the CeL and anterior hippocampus explains independent variation in endocrine, behavioral, and communicative responses to the NEC challenge provides unique grounds for rejecting strict claims of neural segregation. More generally, this finding indicates that a lack of strong covariation among different dimensions of anxiety does not preclude the existence of a response-independent substrate (44); individuals can vary in the strength and predominance of different anxiety dimensions, yet rely on the same core set of shared substrates.

In summary, using a well-validated nonhuman primate model of AT and high-resolution functional imaging, the present study demonstrates that striking diversity in the presentation of anxiety reflects the distinct contributions of both shared and phenotype-selective substrates. Individuals characterized by high levels of HPA activity, high levels of freezing behavior, or low levels of expressive vocalizations all exhibit elevated metabolic activity in the CeL and anterior hippocampus. These brain-phenotype associations were dependent upon a second set of regions, including the lateral anterior hippocampus and M1, which selectively mediate particular dimensions of the anxious phenotype. Importantly, these results were obtained using a relatively large unselected sample and robust analytic procedures, increasing the likelihood of replication. More broadly, these observations provide a framework for understanding the neurobiology of early-life anxiety and other emotional traits and set the stage for mechanistic studies aimed at identifying more effective interventions for the internalizing spectrum of disorders.

Methods

Subjects received FDG before testing. The AT phenotype was elicited by the presentation of a human intruder's profile (30-min). An observer quantified freezing behavior and expressive vocalizations. Following testing, plasma was collected and subjects were scanned. Higher FDG-PET signals indicate greater metabolism during testing. Plasma cortisol was quantitated by radioimmunoassay. MRI and PET images were processed using standard methods and normalized to a stereotaxic template (0.625 mm³). Robust regressions identified regions where activity predicted the unique variance in cortisol, freezing, and vocal reductions. Analyses controlled for nuisance variation in mean-centered age, sex, and voxelwise gray matter probability. Common and phenotype-selective substrates were identified using criteria described in the text. Mediation analyses used standard analytic techniques.

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