

# EEG Variability in Anxiety Disorders

Dr. Steven Rondeau BCN (EEG), QEEG-DC | January 2021

*Anxiety is one among the most prevalent mental health problems in the United States [1]. Anxiety disorders include the following five subclasses:*



## **Social anxiety disorder (SAD)**

Another leading cause of impairment and distress in the general population is **social anxiety disorder (SAD)** [6, 7]. SAD has a high economic burden on the self, family and society, because it negatively affects social life, academic performance, and work productivity [8].

## **Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD)**

Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD) is characterized by unwanted thoughts (obsessions) and/or regularly occurring behaviors (compulsions). Repetitive behaviors such as hand washing, searching for patterns in the environment, and house cleaning are often performed in the hope of releasing or at least calming the feeling of uneasiness associated to the obsessive thoughts.

Performing these behaviors as some sort of rituals, however, offers only temporary relief from anxiety, which increases if the patient is forced not to act on the obsessive thoughts [9].

## **Panic disorder**

Panic disorder is an anxiety disorder where patients experience unexpected intense fear, with dramatic changes in normal physiology. Symptoms may include chest pain, heart palpitations, high blood pressure, sweating, shortness of breath, dizziness, or greatly increased bowel activity [10].

## **Generalized anxiety disorder (GAD)**

Generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) is a highly disabling condition whose disrupting effects on day-to-day living are often underestimated. In the United States, GAD affects 3.1% of the general population every year and can affect up to 5.7% of a patient's lifetime [1], with women receiving a diagnosis almost twice as often as men [2].

Research shows that GAD can be associated with **altered cardiovascular function** [3], **increased risk for suicide** [4] and **increased risk for death** [5].

**Symptoms of GAD** include continued, difficult to control worry (e.g., about finances, family, health, and the future), accompanied by restlessness, chronic fatigue, reduced attention, irritability, chest pain, headache, shortness of breath, muscle tension, increased sweating or sleep disturbances).

---

## Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) can develop after the exposure to inescapable psychological or physical challenges. Traumatic events include violent assaults to the self, disasters, accidents, or wars [11].

### Treatments of anxiety disorders: Advantages and limitations

Treatments of anxiety disorders considered to be effective include **psychotherapy** (e.g., cognitive behavioral therapy) and **pharmacotherapy**, employing selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), serotonin- norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs), or benzodiazepines [12].

However, **in many cases, these treatments have only limited or no effect** on anxiety symptoms [13, 14] and can **induce adverse effects** [12], increasing patient's distress [15]. In particular, the use of benzodiazepines for more than 6 months has been associated greater risk of death [16], dependency [17] and dementia. Further, **benzodiazepines have no significant effects on depression**, which is often a comorbid condition in anxiety disorders in which case, their use has been linked to an increased risk for suicide [18].

Finally, studies with ketamine have shown that while there is some evidence of ameliorating effects on anxiety levels [19], in other cases it exerts only partial effects on the overall range of symptoms [19].

### Using electroencephalogram (EEG) to monitor or predict the outcome of pharmacotherapy in anxiety and depressive disorders

Anxiety and depression share similar features in terms of associated EEG changes [20] and antidepressant treatment has mixed effects on EEG activity. Overall, however, there is evidence that **specific EEG changes are linked to a positive treatment outcome** [21].

For example, measuring alpha band (frequency range: 8-12 Hz) changes in the posterior (occipital) brain region, Ulrich and colleagues [22] found differences between responders and non-responders after four weeks of treatment with tricyclic antidepressants (TCA). Responders showed greater activity before treatment and a decrease after week 4. In a follow-up study with major depression patients, the same group compared EEG activity after the administration of TCAs with different mechanisms of action (clomipramine and maprotiline) and found that **early changes in alpha band EEG activity after the first TCA dose were associated with a favorable treatment response at three weeks** [23, 24]. In another study with depressed subjects, increases in alpha activity and decreases in theta activity were found in responders to a six-week treatment with paroxetine [25]

In a study by Bruder and colleagues [25, 26] only non-responders exhibited reduced alpha activity over the right hemisphere before treatment with fluoxetine for 12 weeks. Importantly, this study also suggested a significant gender effect, suggesting that this biomarker is more likely to distinguish responders and non-responders in women but not in men.

There is evidence that specific EEG changes are linked to a positive treatment outcome [21].

Other evidence indicates a **link between antidepressant treatment and changes in frontal EEG measures in the theta band (4–8 Hz)** [24, 25], in line with earlier research suggesting a role of this frequency band in emotion regulation [27-29].

---

Further, in patients treated with the antidepressant paroxetine [25], a positive treatment outcome was associated with a reduction of beta band activity (frequency range, 12 to 30 Hz), a measure that has been proposed to be linked to focus in the lower range (12-15 Hz) and to active, busy, or anxious thinking in the higher range (15-40 Hz) [30].

Finally, some studies suggest that baseline parameters acquired using quantitative EEG (qEEG) may predict the occurrence of treatment adverse effects, including suicidal ideation [31-33].

A question pertains then to how EEG-based technology can be employed by clinicians to optimize treatment response in patients with anxiety disorders and often comorbid depression.

Although the technology may not directly assist clinicians in the selection of the most appropriate treatments, it may still offer crucial information on treatment responses to quickly evaluate the effects of pharmacotherapy and ultimately reach an acceptable treatment outcome.

## **Conclusions**

Anxiety disorders widely occur in the general population, with significant disruption of the quality of life. While psychotherapy can offer some support in the treatment of anxiety symptoms, pharmacotherapy requires careful calibration, which is most often achieved through a trial and error approach. EEG-based technologies offer the advantage to improve the prediction of treatment response and to more effectively optimize treatment outcome.

## References

1. Stein, M.B. and J. Sareen, CLINICAL PRACTICE. Generalized Anxiety Disorder. *N Engl J Med*, 2015. **373**(21): p. 2059-68.
2. Silverman, N.S., et al., Hepatitis B prevalence in an unregistered prenatal population. Implications for neonatal therapy. *JAMA*, 1991. **266**(20): p. 2852-5.
3. DeMartini, J., G. Patel, and T.L. Fancher, Generalized Anxiety Disorder. *Ann Intern Med*, 2019. **170**(7):p.ITC49-ITC64.
4. Stanley, I.H., et al., Anxiety sensitivity and suicidal ideation/suicide risk: A meta-analysis. *J Consult Clin Psychol*, 2018. **86**(11): p. 946-960.
5. Denollet, J., et al., Anxiety predicted premature all-cause and cardiovascular death in a 10-year follow-up of middle-aged women. *J Clin Epidemiol*, 2009. **62**(4): p. 452-6.
6. Lipsitz, J.D. and F.R. Schneier, Social phobia. Epidemiology and cost of illness. *Pharmacoeconomics*, 2000. **18**(1): p. 23-32.
7. Kessler, R.C., et al., Prevalence, severity, and comorbidity of 12-month DSM-IV disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*, 2005. **62**(6): p. 617-27.
8. Leichsenring, F. and F. Leweke, Social Anxiety Disorder. *N Engl J Med*, 2017. **376**(23): p. 2255-2264.
9. Robbins, T.W., M.M. Vaghi, and P. Banca, Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder: Puzzles and Prospects. *Neuron*, 2019. **102**(1): p. 27-47.
10. Roy-Byrne, P.P., M.G. Craske, and M.B. Stein, Panic disorder. *Lancet*, 2006. **368**(9540): p. 1023-32.
11. Miao, X.R., et al., Posttraumatic stress disorder: from diagnosis to prevention. *Mil Med Res*, 2018. **5**(1): p. 32.
12. Bandelow, B., S. Michaelis, and D. Wedekind, Treatment of anxiety disorders. *Dialogues Clin Neurosci*, 2017. **19**(2): p. 93-107.
13. Kelly, J.M., E. Jakubovski, and M.H. Bloch, Prognostic subgroups for remission and response in the Coordinated Anxiety Learning and Management (CALM) trial. *J Clin Psychiatry*, 2015. **76**(3): p. 267-78.
14. Taylor, J.H., E. Jakubovski, and M.H. Bloch, Predictors of anxiety recurrence in the Coordinated Anxiety Learning and Management (CALM) trial. *J Psychiatr Res*, 2015. **65**: p. 154-65.
15. Liebowitz, M.R., et al., Efficacy of sertraline in severe generalized social anxiety disorder: results of a double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *J Clin Psychiatry*, 2003. **64**(7): p. 785-92.
16. Parsaik, A.K., et al., Mortality associated with anxiolytic and hypnotic drugs-A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Aust N Z J Psychiatry*, 2016. **50**(6): p. 520-33.
17. Seldenrijk, A., et al., [Systematic review of the side effects of benzodiazepines]. *Ned Tijdschr Geneesk*, 2017. **161**: p. D1052.
18. Dodds, T.J., Prescribed Benzodiazepines and Suicide Risk: A Review of the Literature. *Prim Care Companion CNS Disord*, 2017. **19**(2).
19. Glue, P., et al., Ketamine's dose-related effects on anxiety symptoms in patients with treatment refractory anxiety disorders. *J Psychopharmacol*, 2017. **31**(10): p. 1302-1305.
20. Pannekoek, J.N., et al., Investigating distinct and common abnormalities of resting-state functional connectivity in depression, anxiety, and their comorbid states. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol*, 2015. **25**(11): p. 1933-42.
21. Iosifescu, D.V., Electroencephalography-derived biomarkers of antidepressant response. *Harv Rev Psychiatry*, 2011. **19**(3): p. 144-54.
22. Ulrich, G., et al., Interrelation between changes in the EEG and psychopathology under pharmacotherapy for endogenous depression. A contribution to the predictor question. *Pharmacopsychiatry*, 1984. **17**(6): p. 178-83.
23. Ulrich, G., et al., EEG characteristics of clinically defined on-drug-responders and non-responders--a comparison clomipramine vs. maprotiline. *Pharmacopsychiatry*, 1988. **21**(6): p. 367-8.
24. Ulrich, G., H.J. Haug, and E. Fahndrich, Acute vs. chronic EEG effects in maprotiline- and in clomipramine-treated depressive inpatients and the prediction of therapeutic outcome. *J Affect Disord*, 1994. **32**(3): p. 213-7.
25. Knott, V., et al., Pre-treatment EEG and it's relationship to depression severity and paroxetine treatment outcome. *Pharmacopsychiatry*, 2000. **33**(6): p. 201-5.
26. Bruder, G.E., et al., Electroencephalographic and perceptual asymmetry differences between responders and nonresponders to an SSRI antidepressant. *Biol Psychiatry*, 2001. **49**(5): p. 416-25.
27. Feenstra, B.W. and J. Holsheimer, Dipole-like neuronal sources of theta rhythm in dorsal hippocampus, dentate gyrus and cingulate cortex of the urethane-anesthetized rat. *Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol*, 1979. **47**(5): p. 532-8.
28. Ishii, R., et al., Medial prefrontal cortex generates frontal midline theta rhythm. *Neuroreport*, 1999. **10**(4): p. 675-9.
29. Asada, H., et al., Frontal midline theta rhythms reflect alternative activation of prefrontal cortex and anterior cingulate cortex in humans. *Neurosci Lett*, 1999. **274**(1): p. 29-32.
30. Kropotov, J.D., Functional Neuromarkers for Psychiatry, in *Clinical Neurology for Psychiatrists (Sixth Edition)*, 2007. 2016, Clinical Neurology for Psychiatrists (Sixth Edition).
31. Hunter, A.M., et al., Neurophysiologic correlates of side effects in normal subjects randomized to venlafaxine or placebo. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, 2005. **30**(4): p. 792-9.
32. Iosifescu, D.V., et al., Pretreatment frontal EEG and changes in suicidal ideation during SSRI treatment in major depressive disorder. *Acta Psychiatr Scand*, 2008. **117**(4): p. 271-6.
33. Hunter, A.M., et al., Brain functional changes (QEEG cordance) and worsening suicidal ideation and mood symptoms during antidepressant treatment. *Acta Psychiatr Scand*, 2010. **122**(6): p. 461-9.