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# Parent-Child Autonomic Synchrony During Vicarious Extinction Learning in Pediatric PTSD

Running Title: Vicarious Parent-Child Synchrony in Pediatric PTSD

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29

30 Abstract

31 Children must learn basic functional processes directly from their caregivers and child  
32 psychopathology may disrupt this transmission. This transmission may be seen through  
33 biological measures like peripheral nervous system outputs like skin conductance  
34 (SCR). Fear learning deficits have been seen in affective disorders like PTSD and are  
35 useful for studying parent-child learning transmission. Our study uses a vicarious fear  
36 extinction paradigm to study if biological synchrony (SCR and heart rate variability  
37 (HRV)) are potential mechanisms in which children learn safety cues from their parents.  
38 There were 16 dyads (PTSD n=11, TD n=5) undergoing a vicarious fear extinction  
39 paradigm. We used cross-recurrence quantification analysis (CRQA) to assess SCR  
40 and HRV synchrony between parent-child dyads. We then used a linear model looking  
41 at group differences between PTSD dyads and typically developing (TD) dyads. For  
42 SCR, we saw a significant group difference ( $p=.037$ ) indicating that TD dyads had  
43 higher SCR synchrony compared to PTSD dyads. For HRV, there were no group  
44 differences between PTSD and TD dyads ( $p=.325$ ). These results suggest that SCR  
45 synchrony, but not HRV, may be a potential mechanism that allows for fear and safety  
46 learning in youth. While this is preliminary, it may give the first insights on how therapies  
47 such as Trauma-Focused Cognitive Behavioral Therapy critically rely on parental  
48 coaching to model appropriate fear responses to help their child to recover from trauma.

## 49 Introduction

50 Fear extinction learning has been widely used to understand affective disorders  
51 like anxiety, depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD; Herringa et al.,  
52 2013; Milad et al., 2014). In PTSD, previous studies have indicated disruptions in proper  
53 fear extinction learning like enhanced acquisition, stimulus generalization, and impaired  
54 extinction learning (for a review see Milad et al., 2014). While this has been studied  
55 more frequently in adults (Blecher et al., 2007; Helpman et al., 2016; Milad et al.,  
56 2008), few have looked at how extinction learning may be altered in youth with PTSD  
57 (Heyn et al., 2022).

58 Children's ability to learn emotional content from their parents and caregivers is  
59 one of the most important pieces of child development (Debiec & Olsson, 2017).  
60 However, when parents or children suffer from internalizing disorders, like PTSD, these  
61 signals can be disrupted or difficult to interpret. Having reliable transmission of  
62 emotional content is imperative, especially for therapy including trauma focused  
63 cognitive behavioral therapy (TF-CBT) which utilizes dyadic treatment to help youth with  
64 trauma disorders (Golkar et al., 2016). Therefore, it is important to study how children  
65 vicariously learn fear and safety from their caregivers to better understand how to  
66 effectively use this transmission. Youth's use of vicarious, or observational, fear learning  
67 from their caregivers has been shown to influence their own fear development indicating  
68 that this is an important learning mechanism (Rachman, 1977). Previous studies have  
69 further shown that parents expressions of fears and anxieties can lead to the  
70 development of specific fears in the child (Dunne & Askew, 2018; Marin et al., 2020).  
71 During acquisition of fear, one study found that children that were more sensitive to  
72 anxiety and had lower father-child relationship security had increased reactivity to fear  
73 conditioning compared to children that did not, demonstrating that psychopathology and  
74 relationship quality may both influence vicarious fear learning (Bilodeau-Houle et al.,  
75 2020). While fear learning may be enhanced in youth that have anxiety or trauma  
76 related disorders, healthy fear extinction or extinction recall may be disrupted, which  
77 has also been seen in adults (Marusak et al., 2020; Pitman et al., 2012). Therefore, it is  
78 important to study extinction and recall of fear, in addition to acquisition, to fully  
79 understand the impact of psychopathology of vicarious fear learning in youth.

80 One possible mechanism through which vicarious extinction can occur is through  
81 parent-child biological synchrony. Synchrony is the temporally-matched coordination of  
82 behavior, feelings, or biological responses between two people (Feldman, 2012). For  
83 parent-child dyads, synchrony is a critical method of learnt emotion regulation in children  
84 and a way to foster healthy attachments (Davis et al., 2017). Physiological synchrony, a  
85 subset of biological synchrony, uses peripheral nervous system methods like skin  
86 conductance response (SCR), heart rate variability (HRV) or cortisol activity to evaluate  
87 the degree to which caregivers and their children are coupled (Feldman, 2012). It has  
88 been documented that youth with PTSD tend to have differences in both autonomic and  
89 behavioral synchrony with their parents indicating that this may be a potential

90 mechanism that may lead to the inability to learn cues from their parent (Feldman, 2007;  
91 Motsan et al., 2020). Understanding the biological mechanism behind vicarious learning  
92 is crucial for understanding transmission of fear and safety cues between caregivers and  
93 children, especially in those with fear related disorders like PTSD.

94 For this study we will be using a three-day vicarious fear extinction paradigm.  
95 During this paradigm, children go through both direct extinction and a vicarious  
96 extinction which includes watching their parent undergo direct extinction. While this is a  
97 pilot study, preliminary evidence from our main analyses suggest that youth with PTSD  
98 have increased arousal (SCR) during vicarious fear learning compared to typically  
99 developing youth (Heyn et al., 2022). This demonstrates that there maybe be a  
100 biological mechanism at play when youth are learning fear and safety cues from their  
101 caregivers, and potentially this is disrupted in youth with PTSD. We want to expand on  
102 this finding and understand if biological synchrony during vicarious fear extinction is  
103 different in youth with PTSD and if this is related to recall of the fear.

104 We will be using two biological metrics to assess fear learning: SCR and HRV.  
105 SCR is a widely used measure of physiological arousal and is one of the most common  
106 biological metrics of fear condition and extinction (Faghih et al., 2015). Another common  
107 metric is HRV and has been found to be linked to vmPFC and amygdala modulation  
108 which are important in the regulation of fear responses (Milad et al., 2007; Schiller et al.,  
109 2008). To measure how well the child is learning from the parent, we will use these two  
110 measures to assess biological synchrony between the dyads.

111 In this study, we will be assessing if there are group differences in biological  
112 synchrony during vicarious learning and if this is related to fear extinction recall and  
113 dyadic psychopathology symptoms. We predict that PTSD dyads will have lower  
114 biological synchrony compared to their TD counterparts. Further, we predict that PTSD  
115 related symptoms will be related to synchrony. Lastly, in exploratory analyses, we expect  
116 that synchrony will predict biological responses during recall, but only for the vicarious  
117 conditioned stimulus and not for either the direct or non-conditioned stimuli.

## 118 Methods

119 In this pilot study, we had 16 parent-child dyads with youth ranging from ages 7-  
120 17. 11 of those dyads included a child with PTSD and five that were typically developing  
121 (TD). Exclusion criteria for our youth participants included past or present brain injury,  
122 unstable or sever medical conditions, substance abuse, acute suicidality, or ongoing  
123 abuse. Each parent-child dyad was assessed for past and current psychopathology  
124 diagnosis, including PTSD status, using the Mini-International Neuropsychiatric  
125 Interview Screen (MINI; Sheehan et al., 1998). Further psychopathology questionnaires  
126 for the child included the Mood and Feelings Questionnaire (MFQ) for depression, the  
127 Screen for Child Anxiety-Related Emotional Disorder (SCARED) for anxiety, and the  
128 UCLA PTSD Reaction Index (PTSD-RI) for PTSD symptoms. The PTSD-RI for the

129 DSM-V and DSM-IV were given to different participants, and was therefore converted  
130 using a validated conversion tool (Cheng et al., 2021).

131 In the current study, parent-child dyads underwent a three-day vicarious and  
132 direct fear learning paradigm. We used an adaptation from Milad and colleagues' (2007)  
133 and is described in detail in Heyn et al., 2022 (Milad et al., 2007). Briefly, each dyad  
134 completed a fear learning paradigm separately. On day one, both parent and child were  
135 conditioned to colored stimuli, for the parent, they had one conditioned stimuli CS+D  
136 while the child was conditioned to two different stimuli (CS+D and CS+V). Then on the  
137 second day, the parent went through direct extinction while the child went through both  
138 direct extinction and vicarious extinction which consisted of watching their parent going  
139 through direct extinction. Then the dyad each went through recall on the third day. All  
140 three task days were approximately 24 hours apart. For conditioning, we used tactile  
141 electrodermal stimulation. Each participant was allowed to manually select their level of  
142 stimulation. No participants dropped out of the pilot study due to problems of the  
143 stimulation. Further discussion of experimental design can be found in Heyn et al. 2022.

144 During vicarious learning, we measured SCR, heart rate (HR), and respiration of  
145 each dyad. For the synchrony analyses, we used SCR and HRV. For both SCR and  
146 HRV, we cut each timeseries at the beginning of the first fixation to the beginning of the  
147 last fixation. SCR analyses including a low-pass filter of 1 Hz and down sampling to 8  
148 Hz using Ledalab (Benedek & Kaernbach, 2010). HRV analyses used HR and  
149 respiration to create time and frequency domains using MindWare software (MindWare  
150 Technologies Inc., Westerville, OH).

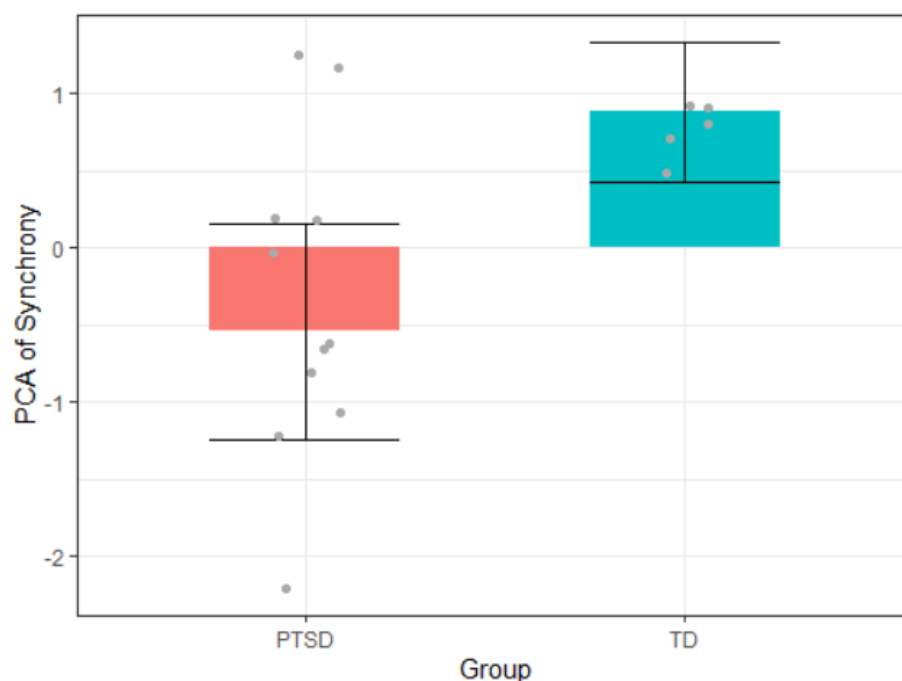
151 Statistical analyses were performed in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2012). For each  
152 synchrony analysis, we used cross-recurrence quantification analysis (CRQA) using the  
153 R package *crqa* (Coco & Dale, 2014). In brief, CRQA captures recurring properties and  
154 patterns of two distinct time series. Increased CRQA measures, or synchrony, indicates  
155 that the two time-series, for example parent-child SCR, resemble each other or mimic  
156 each other over time. We followed Pärnamets et al. (2019) parameters for the CRQA  
157 analysis. We then picked three metrics (Determinism, Entropy, and Laminarity) that  
158 were highly correlated  $r > .90$  and conducted a Principal Component Analysis with  
159 varimax rotation to find a single composite score of synchrony using the *psych* package  
160 in R. For our main analyses, we ran a linear regression for group (TD vs PTSD) while  
161 covarying for child age and sex. We then ran post-hoc analyses on significant group  
162 differences. To ensure that this was due to vicarious learning, we also ran group  
163 differences on synchrony when both the child and parent were undergoing direct  
164 extinction. We then conducted Pearson correlations between child symptoms from the  
165 PTSD-RI, MFQ, SCARED, and synchrony with FDR correction. We further covaried for  
166 parent age and lifetime or current psychopathology diagnosis of the parent on the group  
167 differences. Lastly, we conducted three exploratory repeated measures analyses to  
168 understand if synchrony was related to fear extinction outcomes measures. First, to  
169 assess if synchrony was related to fear learning responses, we did a repeated

170 measures regression to see if synchrony and CS type predicted extinction retention  
171 index (ERI). ERI was calculated by taking the average SCR of the first 2 recall trials and  
172 dividing it by the highest SCR during the conditioning trials. Second, we wanted to know  
173 if synchrony was related to SCR responses during the first four trials recall and if these  
174 responses were moderated by CS type. Lastly, we wanted to understand if synchrony  
175 was related to expectancy of the shocks during the first trial of recall and if this was  
176 moderated by CS type. All models, besides the correlations, were covaried with child  
177 age and sex and Z-scored. Due to the skew of the recall data, all recall SCR data was  
178 log transformed and then Z-scored.

179

## 180 Results

181 There was a significant SCR group synchrony difference between the PTSD and  
182 TD groups during vicarious extinction learning  $b = 1.25$ ,  $t(13) = 2.34$ ,  $p = .037$  and an  
183 effect size of  $\eta^2 = .31$  (Figure 1). There was no significant difference between groups  
184 during direct extinction for SCR synchrony  $b = -0.18$ ,  $t(13) = .35$ ,  $p = .62$ . For HRV, there  
185 was no group synchrony differences during vicarious extinction  $b = .40$ ,  $t(13) = 1.03$ ,  
186  $p = .325$ ,  $\eta^2 = .08$ .

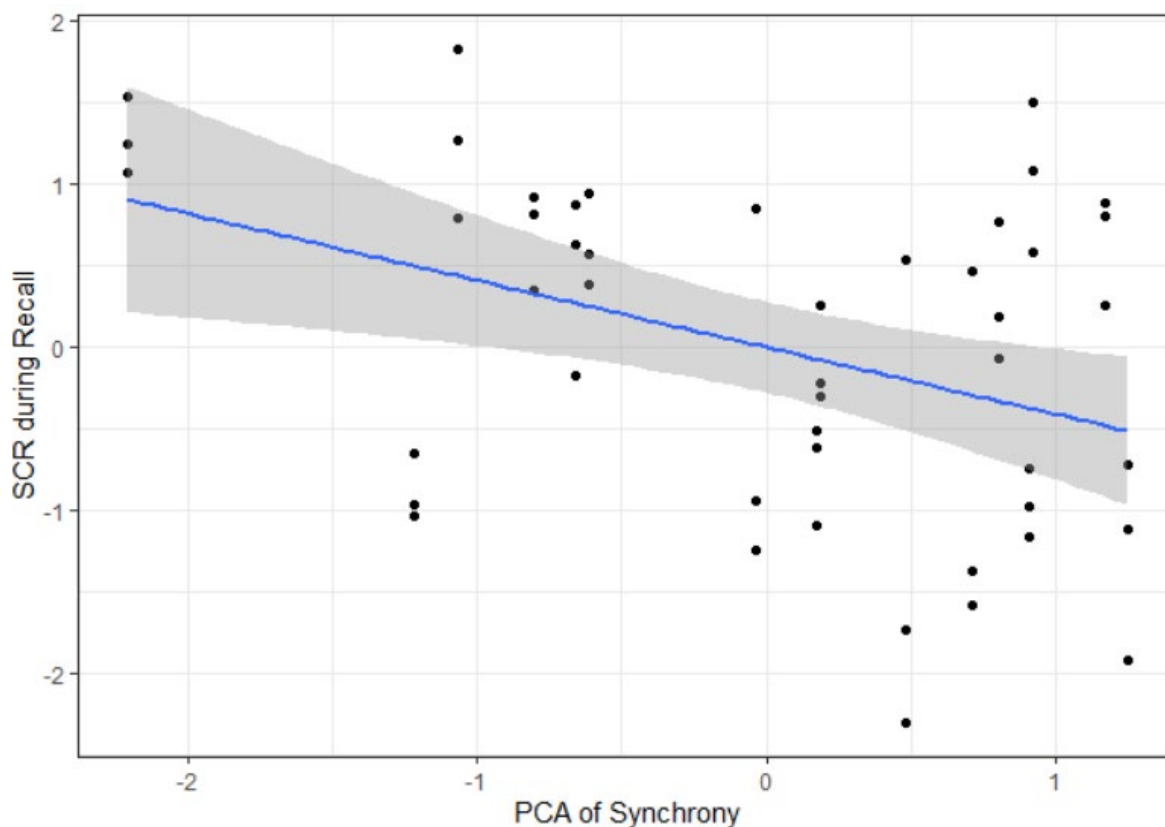


188 **Fig 1. Group synchrony differences between PTSD and TD dyads.** Using a linear  
189 model, we found a significant group differences between PTSD and TD dyads. Overall,  
190 we see that TD dyads showed higher synchrony compared to PTSD dyads.

191 Due to the group differences, we wanted to test if synchrony was also related to  
192 any child symptoms. There were no correlations between synchrony and any of the  
193 child symptom measures  $p > .27$  (Table 1). When covarying for parent's age ( $b = 0.72$ ,

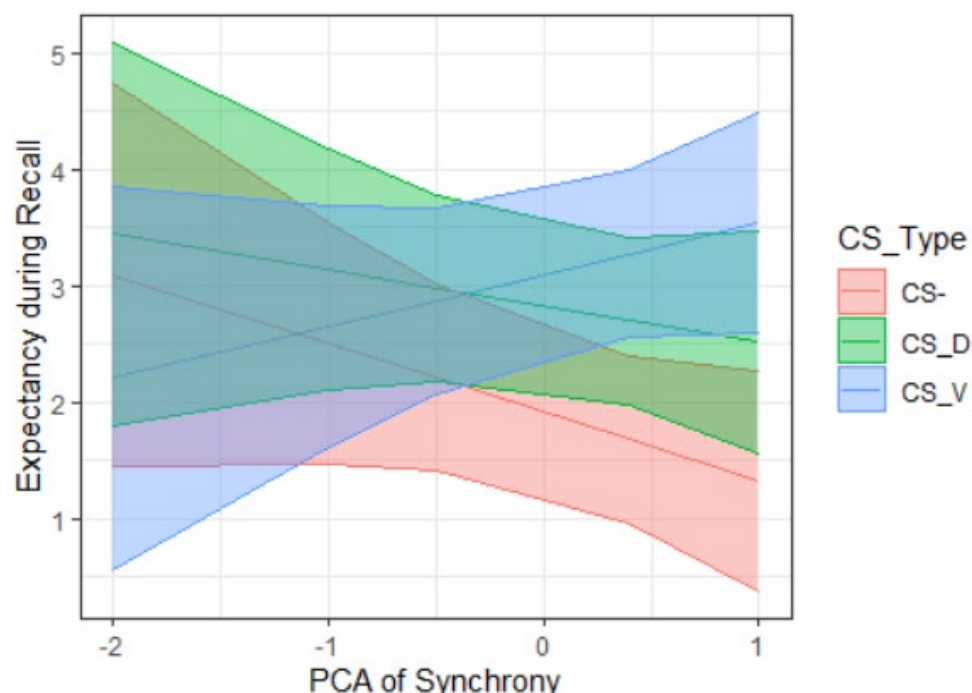


194  $t(12) = 1.27, p = .23$ ), lifetime diagnosis ( $b = 1.06, t(12) = 1.01, p = .08$ ), and current  
195 diagnosis ( $b = 1.04, t(12) = 1.9, p = .09$ ), while group differences went above .05 with  
196 parent covariates, the sample size would indicate that likely there group differences  
197 would stay with a larger sample size. These results should be taken with caution due to  
198 the marginal significance.



200 **Fig 2. Increased synchrony relationship to decreased SCR during recall.** We found  
201 a significant main effect of synchrony on SCR during recall indicating that synchrony  
202 may be related to overall decreased in arousal, but not CS specific decreases.

203 For the exploratory analyses, synchrony by CS type and the main effects did not  
204 significantly predict ERI,  $p > .19$ . For the second analysis, there was a significant main  
205 effect of vicarious SCR synchrony on recall SCR  $F(11,12) = 4.62, p = 0.032$  indicating  
206 decreased synchrony was related to increased SCR during recall (Figure 2), but there  
207 was no significant interaction ( $p > .9$ ) between synchrony and CS type on SCR during  
208 recall. For the third analysis, there was a significant CS type by synchrony interaction  
209  $F(11,12) = 3.62, p = .02$  for expectancy (Figure 3). We also assessed if any of the CS  
210 types were significant from zero. The CS+D ( $t(11) = -.77, p = .46$ ) and CS+V ( $t(11) = 1.28,$   
211  $p = .23$ ) were not significantly different from zero, but CS- was marginally significant from  
212 zero ( $t(11) = -2.02, p = .068$ ).



214 **Fig 3. Significant CS type and synchrony interaction predicting expectancy.** We  
215 found a significant interaction of CS type and synchrony on expectancy during recall.  
216 Only the CS- is marginally significant from zero suggesting that synchrony may be a  
217 predictor of safety instead of fear learning.

### 218 Discussion

219 In this pilot study, we explored potential mechanisms that are related to vicarious  
220 fear and safety learning, specifically in a difficult group to recruit, youth with PTSD. We  
221 hypothesized that synchrony, or the coupling of two biological systems, in this case  
222 parent and youth psychophysiological outputs, may be an important mechanism of  
223 transmission of cues between each dyad. Overall, we found group differences in SCR  
224 synchrony between dyads that have youth with PTSD compared to typically developing  
225 dyads. In exploratory analyses, there was preliminary evidence that synchrony may  
226 lead, or be related to SCR reactivity during recall indicating the possibility that dyads  
227 with higher synchrony during extinction learning have lower overall arousal. Further,  
228 synchrony was moderated by CS type to predict expectancy. While both the CS+V and  
229 CS+D slopes were not different from zero, for the CS- ( $p=.068$ ), increased synchrony  
230 was marginally related to less expectancy of a stimulation. This possible indicates that  
231 increased synchrony is related to better learning of safety cues.

232 Overall, we found that youth with PTSD had lower SCR synchrony compared to  
233 their TD counterparts (Figure 1). However, we needed to account for the possibility that  
234 synchrony was not due to only similar familial reactions to extinction learning, but that it  
235 was accurately attributed to physically watching the parent. To account for this, we did  
236 the same analysis with the child's direct extinction SCRs and did not find this group



237 difference suggesting that it was not general reactions to extinction learning and that  
238 vicarious learning specifically was related to changes in autonomic processing.

239 While we predicted SCR and HRV to be significant in our main analyses, only  
240 SCR came back significantly different between groups. Previous studies have shown  
241 that SCR synchrony was associated with greater threat learning and that increased  
242 SCR synchrony during fear acquisition was related to fear conditioned responses in  
243 parent-child dyads (Marin et al., 2020; Pärnamets et al., 2020). Adult PTSD studies  
244 have found increased SCRs during recall suggesting a lack of fear extinction, however  
245 youth with PTSD has found mixed results indicating that much is still unknown about  
246 how youth with psychopathology learn and extinguish fear (Garfinkel et al., 2014;  
247 Marusak et al., 2020; McLaughlin et al., 2016; Milad et al., 2009). For example,  
248 McLaughlin and colleagues found blunted SCRs to the CS+ and poor differentiation of  
249 CS types during the conditioning and extinction in maltreated youth, while Marusak and  
250 colleagues found no differences in SCRs between TD and maltreated youth but did see  
251 behavioral differences of fear learning. Our pilot study specifically found group  
252 differences in SCR during *vicarious* but not direct extinction learning (Heyn et al. 2022).  
253 Social fear learning may be what is truly affected in trauma-related disorders. Our  
254 synchrony analyses strengthen that argument, as synchrony, which a known  
255 mechanism of learning, was blunted in dyads that had a child with PTSD (Davis et al.,  
256 2017).

257 Currently, there is less evidence to implicate HRV with synchrony and extinction  
258 learning. Previous studies looking at HRV synchrony found that it is often found within  
259 relationships with positive attributes such as in higher levels of closeness, trust, and  
260 prosocial behaviors (Danyluck & Page-Gould, 2019; Goldstein et al., 1989). Individuals  
261 with social anxiety disorder (SAD) were found to have difficulty in creating HR  
262 synchrony in more intimate social contexts compared to individuals without SAD, thus  
263 leading to the decreased ability in developing relationships (Asher et al., 2021).  
264 However, these studies used general play or free-roam behavioral tasks instead of  
265 structured fear extinction task like we used. This may lead to differences in our results.  
266 Further exploration on youth with PTSD and HRV is needed to understand how or if  
267 HRV is related to vicarious fear extinction.

268 For our exploratory analyses, we wanted to understand if synchrony could be  
269 used to predict specific outcomes of fear extinction learning, ERI, SCR during recall,  
270 and expectancy of stimulation, and if this was moderated by CS type (CS+D, CS+V,  
271 and CS-). ERI is used as a measure of extinction learning, as it takes into account  
272 baseline levels of autonomic reactivity during fear acquisition and compares it to outputs  
273 during recall (Milad et al., 2008). We did not see any significant main effects or  
274 interactions in this model. While others have shown that there are differences in ERI  
275 between combat veterans with PTSD and those without, our results did not support this.  
276 However, our results may differ due to our low sample size and our youth sample.

277           The second exploratory analysis was conducted to investigate is if there was a  
278 relationship between synchrony and CS type to SCR during recall. This analysis had a  
279 significant main effect of synchrony which showed increased synchrony being related to  
280 decreased SCR during recall, but not a significant synchrony by CS type interaction  
281 (Figure 2). It may be the case that youth overall learned that this was safe environment  
282 from their parent leading to overall decreases in arousal. Synchrony could also possibly  
283 be due to relationship quality between dyads. Relationship quality has previously been  
284 shown to be related to synchrony and therefore it is possible this is also related to  
285 overall lower arousal (Woody et al., 2016). In this pilot study, we were unable to collect  
286 parent-child relational measures, but future studies should consider adding these  
287 measures to parse apart why and how synchrony is related to overall arousal.

288           For our last exploratory analysis, we found a significant interaction between CS  
289 type and synchrony to predict expectancy of a stimulation, or the unconditioned stimulus  
290 (Figure 3). While the three CS types were significantly different from each other, we  
291 wanted to know if any of the CS types were different from zero. After running three  
292 linear models, only the CS- was marginally significant from zero. This, combined with  
293 our second exploratory analysis, may indicate the synchrony is more related to safety  
294 and overall arousal, than fear learning. If it was more related to fear learning, it would  
295 more likely be related to either just the CS+V or both the CS+D.

296           There are three limitations that must be considered in this pilot study. First,  
297 because of its nature as a pilot study, we have a small sample size. The original study  
298 was created to test feasibility of a three-day electrodermal stimulation fear extinction  
299 learning paradigm. We had minimal dropout and found that a three-day, instead of a  
300 two-day study, maintained extinction learning better in youth. Further, youth with PTSD  
301 is a difficult to recruit population. We hope these analyses will be used to guide future  
302 hypotheses, but all results in these preliminary analyses should be taken with caution.

303           Another limitation is the minimal parent psychopathology measures. It is well  
304 known in the literature that parent psychopathology and other parental factors including  
305 parenting style and relationship affect the child's affinity for psychopathology (Zhang et  
306 al., 2020). In this study we had the parents fill out the MINI, which gave a binary of  
307 current or lifetime DSM-IV psychopathology diagnoses. In the future, it would be  
308 beneficial to utilize psychopathology symptom severity scores as well as presence of  
309 specific diagnosis. Further, it would be useful to see if parent styles or parent-child  
310 relationships were related to synchrony.

311           Lastly, it is important to include trauma-exposed controls in addition to youth with  
312 PTSD and TD dyads. This will account for general effect of trauma and its relationship  
313 to synchrony and vicarious extinction learning. This also may answer potential  
314 questions about if parenting styles or relationships may buffer the effect of trauma and if  
315 this can be shown through synchrony. Futures studies should include this important  
316 group to disentangle trauma, formal diagnosis, and synchrony.

317           This study gave us some of the first insight into potential mechanisms underlying  
318 vicarious extinction learning in youth with PTSD. Learning fear and safety cues from  
319 their caregivers may be disrupted in youth with a diagnosis of PTSD compared to their  
320 TD counterparts, and this could further disrupt fear or safety learning in general.

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447 Table 1

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<b>Table 1: Participant Demographics</b>				
		<b>Typically Developing</b>	<b>PTSD</b>	<b>Group Comparisons</b>
<b>Basic Demographic Variables</b>				
<b>N Dyads</b>		5	11	
<b>Child Sex (Female)</b>		4	10	$c^2(1, N = 16) = 0.37, p = 0.54$
<b>Parent Sex (Female)</b>		5	11	$c^2(1, N = 16) = 0.48, p = 0.49$
<b>Child Age</b>		11.19	13.86	$t(15) = -1.31, p = .21$
<b>Parent Age</b>		44.74	41.71	$t(14) = .75, p = .47$
<b>Did Parent Receive a Shock (No)</b>		7	1	$c^2(1, N = 15) = 1.64, p = 0.20$
<b>Race</b>	White	4	7	
	African American	0	1	
	Asian	0	0	
	Two or More	1	1	
	Hispanic or Latino	0	2	
	Not Hispanic Latino	5	7	
	Not Provided	0	2	
<b>Parent Education Level</b>	Some High School	0	0	
	High School Degree	0	3	
	Some College	1	2	
	College Degree	1	3	
	Graduate Degree	3	0	
	Not Provided	0	3	
<b>Trauma Variables</b>				
<b>PTSD-RI Total</b>		8.75(8.32)	31.09 (9.47)	$t(13) = -3.88, p = .002$
<b>PTSD-RI Reexperiencing</b>		2(2.92)	9.09 (4.29)	$t(13) = -2.85, p = .014$

<b>PTSD-RI Avoidance</b>		2.5(1.66)	10.82(4.93)	<b><math>t(13) = -3.08</math>, <math>p=.009</math></b>
<b>PTSD-RI Hyperarousal</b>		4.25(3.96)	11.18(4.32)	<b><math>t(13) = -2.61</math>, <math>p=.022</math></b>
<b>MFQ</b>		-	19.1(8.97)	
<b>SCARED</b>		-	32.5(11.91)	
<b>Parent Current Diagnosis (Presence)</b>		1	5	$c^2(1, N = 13) = 2.24, p = 0.13$
<b>Parent Lifetime Diagnosis (Presence)</b>		2	5	$c^2(1, N = 13) = 0.63, p = 0.43$
<b>Table 1: Full Sample Participant Demographics.</b> Both parent and youth groups did not differ significantly in sex or age. There was a significant difference between groups for the PTSD-RI but did not differ on parent diagnoses.				
<i>Abbreviations:</i> PTSD, Posttraumatic Stress Disorder; PTSD-RI, PTSD-Reaction Index; MFQ, Mood and Feelings Questionnaire; SCARED, Screen for Child Anxiety-Related Mood Disorders.				