Genotype and dose-frequency may critically determine the

therapeutic efficacy of chronic oxytocin treatment in humans

Authors: Juan Kou[1], Yingying Zhang[1], Feng Zhou[1], Cornelia Sindermann[2], Christian

Montag[2], Benjamin Becker[1], Keith M Kendrick[1*]

Affiliations:

[1]The Clinical Hospital of Chengdu Brain Science Institute, MOE Key Laboratory for

Neuroinformation, University of Electronic Science and Technology of China,

Chengdu 611731, China.

[2]Department of Molecular Psychology, Institute of Psychology and Education, Ulm

University, Ulm, Germany.

[*]Corresponding author: Keith M. Kendrick

Institute: The Clinical Hospital of Chengdu Brain Science, MOE Key Laboratory for

NeuroInformation

University: University of Electronic Science and Technology of China,

Street Name & Number: No. 2006, Xiyuan Ave, West Hi-tech Zone, Chengdu,

611731, China.

Tel: 86-28-83201358. Fax: 86-28-83201358.

E-mail: kkendrick@uestc.edu.cn

Abstract

Chronic intranasal oxytocin administration daily is increasingly proposed as a therapy

for social dysfunction but some clinical trials have reported small or no beneficial

outcomes. No empirical evidence proves that this is optimal therapeutically or

whether oxytocin receptor genotype influences treatment sensitivity. In a randomized,

placebo-controlled pre-registered trial on 138 adult male subjects we investigated

effects of single and repeated oxytocin treatment (24IU daily or alternatively days for

5 days). Primary neural outcomes assessed core therapeutic mechanisms of action, i.e.

amygdala fear reactivity and amygdala-prefrontal intrinsic functional connectivity and

modulation by oxytocin receptor polymorphisms (rs53576, rs2254298). The expected

oxytocin-induced reduction in amygdala fear reactivity and associated

anxious-arousal following single-dose administration was abolished after daily

treatment but maintained when administered every other day. Oxytocin selectively

reduced amygdala and arousal fear reactivity in AA homozygotes of rs53576 and A+

carriers of rs2254298. By contrast, oxytocin-enhanced intrinsic amygdala-prefrontal

coupling was maintained independent of dose frequency and genotype. Together the

findings provide the first evidence that infrequent rather than daily oxytocin

administration protocols may be therapeutically most efficient and that its neural and

behavioral anxiolytic actions are highly genotype-dependent.

Introduction

Intranasal oxytocin (OT) has been proposed as novel treatment to attenuate social

dysfunctions and anxiety in autism spectrum disorder, social anxiety and

schizophrenia (Kendrick et al., 2017; Meyer-Lindenberg et al., 2011; Young and

Barrett, 2015) as well as an augmentative strategy to facilitate fear extinction

(Eckstein et al., 2015) and working memory performance (Zhao et al., 2018).

Preclinical studies consistently suggest that effects on amygdala functioning

(attenuated fear reactivity, increased amygdala-prefrontal intrinsic connectivity,

(Eckstein et al., 2015; Meyer-Lindenberg et al., 2011) represent the primary

therapeutic-relevant neural mechanism of action of intranasal OT. The proposed

neural mechanisms have been validated using single dose administration protocols

(with 24 International Units (IU) being established as optimal (Spengler et al., 2017)),

however, in contrast initial clinical trials with chronic (twice daily) administration

protocols over longer intervals reported inconsistent, or at best modest therapeutic

efficacy on social-emotional dysfunctions (Guastella et al., 2015; Halverson et al.,

2019; Jarskog et al., 2017; Kendrick et al., 2017; Watanabe et al., 2015; Yamasue et

al., 2018).

G-protein-coupled neuropeptide receptors typically exhibit internalization

following even a relatively short period of constant exposure to their target peptides

and cannot subsequently respond (desensitized) until they are recycled back the

surface of the cell membrane (Pierce et al., 2002; Lohse and Hofmann, 2015). Indeed,

neuroendocrine neurons in the hypothalamus regulating pituitary peptide release tend

to exhibit phasic discharge patterns resulting in a pulsatile pattern of release which

may serve to reduce internalization of their target receptors (Russell, 2018). Growing

evidence from both in vitro and animal studies suggest there may be extensive

internalization and subsequent desensitization of OT receptors (OXTR) following

chronic OT administration (Smith et al., 2006; Stoop, 2012). In terms of neural OXTR

receptors those in the amygdala may be particularly susceptible to desensitization

(Terenzi and Ingram, 2005) and this region critically mediates many of the effects of

intranasal OT on social cognition and anxiety (Kendrick et al., 2017). Moreover,

rodent models have reported that in contrast to single doses, chronic administration of

OT can actually produce social impairment (Bales et al., 2013; Du et al., 2017; Huang

et al., 2014) in the context of reduced receptor expression in the amygdala and

nucleus accumbens (Du et al., 2017). Furthermore, an initial study reported that

chronic versus single administration of OT results in divergent neurochemical

changes in both the rodent and human frontal cortex (Benner et al., 2018),

emphasizing high translational relevance of the preclinical animal models for clinical

trials employing chronic treatment protocols. Thus, empirically evaluated optimal

treatment protocols for chronic intranasal OT administration in humans are urgently

needed to determine the therapeutic potential of OT for social-emotional dysfunctions

in psychiatric disorders.

A further unresolved issue which may impede the therapeutic efficacy of

intranasal OT is that different OT receptor (OXTR) genotypes have been associated

with social behaviors and may also influence sensitivity of behavioral and neural

responses to intranasal OT. In particular, OXTR polymorphisms rs53576 and

rs2254298 have been associated with autism (Cataldo et al., 2018) and deficits in

social and emotional processing and anxiety (Jurek and Neumann, 2018; Parker et al.,

2014; Yang et al., 2017) as well as individual variations in behavioral and neural

responses to intranasal OT (Chen et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2015a). Indeed, variants of

rs2254298 may represent a trans-diagnostic biomarker for social dysfunctions (Brüne,

2012). It is therefore imperative to establish whether OXTR polymorphisms critically

determine sensitivity to the key neural mechanisms of intranasal OT in order to

identify treatment-responsive individuals likely to exhibit therapeutic benefits.

Although single doses of OT have been reported to produce numerous functional

effects, those on amygdala functioning have been most consistently determined as

promising key neural mechanisms: attenuated amygdala fear responses and increased

resting state functional connectivity between the amygdala and medial prefrontal

cortex (Kendrick et al., 2017; Spengler et al., 2017). Both neural markers have been

primarily associated with attenuated anxiety in terms of reduced responses to social

threat and enhanced top-down control of emotion (Zhao et al., 2019), although OT

effects on the amygdala may also mediate its actions on a range of social cognition

domains (Kendrick et al., 2017; Meyer-Lindenberg et al., 2011; Spengler et al., 2017;

Young and Barrett, 2015).

In order to determine optimal treatment protocols for chronic intranasal OT

administration the current pre-registered double-blind, randomized between subject

placebo (PLC)-controlled pharmacological neuroimaging trial (see Fig. 1) in 138

adult male subjects therefore aimed at determining the effects of acute (single dose)

and repeated doses (daily or every other day for 5 days) of 24IU OT versus PLC on

amygdala-centered neural and behavioral (valence, arousal and intensity ratings of

fear faces) mechanisms of OT. To identify individuals with the most promising

treatment sensitivity we additionally assessed the influence of OXTR rs53576 and

rs2254298 polymorphisms on acute and repeated dose OT effects.

Results

Acute effects of OT on neural responses to emotional faces

In accordance with the primary outcome measure of the trial analyses focused on the

neural responses to fearful faces, however no significant effects of OT were found for

happy or angry faces. Comparison of single-dose OT- (combined OT_3 and OT_5 groups)

and PLC-treated subjects (1st day) revealed significantly decreased right amygdala

reactivity towards fearful faces on the whole brain level (k = 78, p_{FWE} = 0.043, x=27,

y=-4, z=-13) (**Fig.2A**). Cytoarchitectonic probabilistic localization (Anatomy toolbox

V1.8 (Eickhoff et al., 2005)) mapped the peak coordinate with >80% probability to

the basolateral amygdala sub-region. In addition, OT also decreased fear-reactivity in

the right superior frontal gyrus and bilateral primary visual cortex (see **SI** and **Table**

S1). There were no significant differences between the OT_3 and OT_5 groups on the 1st

day.

Primary outcome measures: effects of repeated doses on OT-evoked

changes

Mixed ANOVAs with treatment (PLC, OT_3, OT_5) and time point (1st day, acute

effects; 5th day, chronic effects) as factors and right amygdala fear reactivity as

dependent variable revealed a significant main effect of treatment ($F_{2, 135} = 7.85$, p =

0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.104$) and a treatment x time point interaction ($F_{2, 135} = 5.74$, p = 0.004,

$\eta^2_p = 0.078$). Post-hoc Bonferroni corrected comparisons between groups on the 5th

day revealed that the OT_3 group exhibited a suppression of right amygdala fear

reactivity relative to both the PLC (p = 0.001, Cohen's $d = 0.70$, 95% CI, -0.833 to

-0.224) and OT_5 groups (p = 0.018, $d = 0.52$, 95% CI, -0.662 to -0.062) but the OT_5

group did not (p = 0.266, relative to the PLC group). Within group comparisons

showed that whereas amygdala reactivity did not change on day 1 relative to day 5 in

the PLC group (p = 0.090, $d = 0.29$, 95% CI, -0.035 to 0.487), its suppression was

significantly enhanced in the OT_3 group (p = 0.019, $d = 0.40$, 95% CI, 0.054 to 0.595)

and attenuated in the OT_5 one (p = 0.044, $d = 0.38$, 95% CI, -0.514 to -0.007) (**Fig.**

2B).

For the behavioral ratings mixed ANOVAs with treatment and time point as

within-subject factors revealed a significant main effect of treatment for arousal, but

not intensity ratings (arousal: $F_{1, 135} = 4.99$, p = 0.008, $\eta^2_p = 0.07$, intensity: $F_{1, 135} =$

2.60, p = 0.078, $\eta^2_p = 0.04$), and time point for both emotional arousal and intensity

ratings (arousal: $F_{1, 135} = 12.09$, p = 0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.082$, intensity: $F_{1, 135} = 10.81$, p =

0.001, $\eta^2_p = 0.74$) although no significant two-way interactions (arousal: $F_{1, 135} = 1.85$,

p = 0.162, $\eta^2_p = 0.03$, intensity: $F_{1, 135} = 2.97$, p = 0.055, $\eta^2_p = 0.04$). An exploratory

post hoc analysis showed that both emotional arousal and intensity ratings for fear

faces in the OT_3 group were decreased on the 5th day (arousal: p = 0.001 versus PLC,

$d = 0.63$, 95% CI, -1.544 to -0.420, p = 0.033 versus OT_5, $d = 0.42$，95% CI, -1.158 to

-0.051; intensity: p = 0.004 versus PLC, 95% CI, -1.299 to -0.247, $d = 0.87$, p = 0.088

versus OT_5, $d = 0.35$, 95% CI, -0.968 to 0.068). Although there was a significant

decrease in arousal ratings in the OT_3 group on the 1st day compared to the PLC group

there was no difference between the OT_3 and OT_5 groups (arousal: p = 0.015 versus

PLC, $d = 0.31$, 95% CI, 0.129 to 1.175, p = 0.355 versus OT_5, 95% CI, -0.268 to

0.744). If we combined the two OT groups on the 1st day to increase statistical power

there was a marginal effect of decreased arousal but not intensity ratings (arousal: p =

0.060 versus PLC, d=0.35; intensity p = 0.150) (**Fig.3**). No significant main effects or

interactions were found for valence ratings (all ps > 0.120).

Although not included in our primary outcome measures the (calcarine) visual

cortex showed the same reduced responsivity to daily OT as the amygdala, and a

similar pattern of association with behavioral intensity and arousal ratings, whereas

the superior frontal gyrus did not (see **SI**). Voxel based morphometry analysis

revealed no evidence for acute or repeated dose effects of OT on gray matter volume

(see **SI**).

Associations between amygdala responses and behavioral ratings to fear faces

Significant associations between right amygdala activation and emotional arousal and

intensity scores were observed in the PLC group on the 1st day (arousal: r = 0.44, p =

0.003; intensity: r = 0.54, p < 0.001) demonstrating that greater amygdala activation

by fear faces was associated with increased anxiety. This association was absent in

both OT groups and significantly different from the PLC group on the 1st day (arousal:

OT$_3$, r = -0.21 p = 0.181; Fisher's z = 3.08, p = 0.002; OT$_5$, r = 0.09, p = 0.555; z =

1.79, p = 0.073; intensity: OT$_3$, r = -0.13 p = 0.399; Fisher's z = 3.33, p < 0.001; OT$_5$,

r = 0.12, p = 0.413; z = 2.35, p = 0.024). The same effect was also seen on the 5th day

for arousal ratings (PLC: r = 0.33 p = 0.024; OT$_3$, r = -0.21 p = 0.187; z = 2.52, p =

0.012; OT$_5$ group, r = -0.15 p = 0.317; z = 2.33, p = 0.020) although slightly weaker

for intensity ratings (PLC: r = 0.25 p = 0.092; OT$_3$, r = -0.29 p = 0.057; z = 2.53, p =

0.011; OT$_5$ group, r = -0.03 p = 0.847; z = 1.34, p = 0.180) (**Fig.4**).

Effects of repeated oxytocin doses on resting-state functional connectivity

Right-amygdala seed-to-whole brain fMRI resting-state analysis by mixed-effect

ANOVA revealed a main effect of treatment (OT$_3$, OT$_5$ and PLC) on amygdala

functional coupling with vmPFC (peak MNI x = -3, y =53, z = -19, F$_{2, 135}$ = 16.55,

p$_{FWE}$ = 0.001, k = 88) before subjects underwent the face paradigm, whereas no brain

regions showed a significant time point x treatment interaction. Post-hoc analyses

demonstrated that right amygdala intrinsic connectivity with the vmPFC was stronger

in both the OT_3 (k = 74, p_{FWE} = 0.014, x = -3, y = 53, z = -19) and OT_5 groups (k =

127, p_{FWE} = 0.001, x = -3, y = 53, z = -19) relative to PLC. Subsequent confirmatory

analyses of resting state functional connectivity in this pathway acquired after the face

task paradigm also revealed a significant main effect of treatment ($F_{2, 135}$ = 7.08, p =

0.001, η^2_p = 0.095). Post hoc comparisons showed both groups exhibited increased

connectivity in this pathway after a single OT dose on the 1st day (OT_3, p = 0.001, d =

0.71; OT_5, p = 0.063, d = 0.40; relative to PLC) and after repeated doses on the 5th

day (OT_3 p = 0.047, d = 0.46; OT_5, p = 0.001, d = 0.69; relative to PLC). The OT_3 and

OT_5 groups did not differ significantly on the 1st (p = 0.140) or 5th (p = 0.208) day

(**Fig. 5B**).

Associations with OXTR genotype

The number of G-carriers and G-non-carriers of rs53576 as well as A-carriers and

A-non-carriers of rs2254298 did not differ between the three groups and both SNPs

satisfied the Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium (see **Tables S2 and S3**). With

Bonferroni-correction for the multiple SNPs and alleles (i.e. 2 x 2 = 4), p < 0.0125

was considered significant. For amygdala responses there was a significant treatment

x genotype interaction for rs53576 ($F_{2, 105}$ = 6.01, p = 0.003, η^2_p = 0.10). Post-hoc

analysis revealed that OT-induced amygdala suppression on the 1st day was only

significant in G-non-carriers (p < 0.001, d = 0.99, 95% CI, 0.432 to 1.333) and also on

the 5th day in the OT_3 group (p < 0.001, d = 1.41, 95% CI, 0.638 to 1.483). While the

interaction between treatment and genotype did not achieve significance for

rs2254298 ($F_{2, 105}$= 1.48, p = 0.232, η^2_p = 0.03) an exploratory post hoc analysis

revealed that OT-induced suppression on the 1st day across treatment groups (OT$_3$ and

OT$_5$ groups combined to increase power) was only significant in A-carriers (p = 0.001,

d = 0.91, 95% CI, 0.337 to 1.244) and also on the 5th day in the OT$_3$ group (p = 0.004,

d =0.81, 95% CI, 0.218 to 1.122) (see **Fig. 6**). Similar patterns of genotype association

were found for the visual cortex but not superior frontal gyrus responses to fear faces

(see **SI**).

For both arousal and intensity ratings there was a significant treatment x genotype

interaction for rs2254298 (arousal: $F_{2, 105}$= 9.70, p < 0.001, η^2_p = 0.16, intensity: $F_{2,}$

$_{105}$= 7.42, p = 0.001, η^2_p = 0.12). To increase the statistical power, we combined the

OT$_3$ and OT$_5$ groups on the 1st day. Post hoc analysis showed a significant decrease in

ratings on the 1st day in the OT group only in A-carriers (arousal: p = 0.014 versus

PLC, d = 0.64, 95% CI, 0.177 to 1.542; intensity: p = 0.024 versus PLC, d = 0.60,

95% CI, 0.109 to 1.478). There was a significant decrease in ratings on the 5th day in

the OT$_3$ group only in A-carriers (arousal: p < 0.001 versus PLC, d = 1.69, 95% CI,

-2.780 to -1.231; p < 0.001 versus OT$_5$, d = 1.10, 95% CI, -2.414 to -0.865; intensity:

p < 0.001 versus PLC, d = 1.56, 95% CI, -2.531 to -1.075; p = 0.001 versus OT$_5$, d =

0.97, 95% CI, -1.993 to -0.536).There was also a significant difference between the 1st

and 5th days in the OT$_3$ group only in A-carriers (arousal: p=0.002, d =1.72, 95% CI,

0.201 to 0.862, intensity: p<0.001, d=0.42, 95% CI, 0.272 to 0.914) not the other two

groups (ps > 0.06) and there was a significant difference between A-carriers and

A-non carriers in the OT_3 group (arousal: p=0.001, d =1.07, 95% CI, 0.578 to 2.172,

intensity: p=0.001, d=1.01, 95% CI, 0.483 to 1.982) and in PLC group (arousal:

p=0.032, d =0.92, 95% CI, -1.783 to -0.084, intensity: p=0.021, d = 0.88, 95% CI,

-1.742 to -0.144) on the 5th day but not in OT_5 (ps>0.088)

There was no significant treatment x genotype interaction for rs53576 (arousal: $F_{2,}$

$_{105}$= 1.28, p = 0.283, η^2_p = 0.02, intensity: $F_{2, 105}$= 0.52, p = 0.599, η^2_p = 0.01).

However, an exploratory post hoc analysis found that the reductions in arousal and

intensity ratings in the OT_3 group were only significant in G-non carriers on the 5th

day (arousal: p = 0.006 versus PLC, d = 0.87, 95% CI, -1.980 to -0.348; p = 0.012

versus OT_5, d = 0.84, 95% CI, -2.102 to 0.265; intensity: p = 0.008 versus PLC, d =

0.72, 95% CI, -1.810 to -0.285; p = 0.193 versus OT_5) (**Fig. 6**).

Since comparable patterns of OT effects were observed on pre- and post-task

resting state data right amygdala-vmPFC functional connectivity values were pooled

to increase power (**Fig. 4B**). However, no significant main or interaction effects of

genotype for either SNP (rs 2254298 all ps > 0.262; rs53576 all ps > 0.396) were

found.

Discussion

Overall, our findings firstly validate the use of OT-reductions in amygdala responses

to fear-faces and associated emotional intensity and arousal ratings together with

increased resting state functional connectivity between the amygdala and vmPFC as

robust markers for its putative therapeutic mechanisms of action. Intriguingly, these

task-dependent and resting-state effects of OT show a markedly different sensitivity

to repeated intranasal doses and OXTR genotype, although our results indicate that to

achieve both maximal task and resting-state changes an optimal protocol using the

standard 24IU dose may be to administer it every other day rather than daily. Indeed,

both amygdala and behavioral anxiolytic responses to fearful faces were even more

pronounced after 5 days when OT was administered every other day and with

resting-state functional connectivity changes there was no advantage in terms of their

magnitude when OT was administered daily as opposed to every other day.

Our findings are therefore highly consistent with preclinical animal models

demonstrating OXTR desensitization following repeated doses of OT in some brain

regions (Terenzi and Ingram, 2005; Smith et al., 2005; Stoop, 2012) and that chronic

administration can reduce brain OXTR expression (Du et al., 2017) and alter patterns

of neurochemical release (Benner et al., 2018). Importantly, chronic doses of OT in

rodents fail to produce anxiolytic effects normally seen with single doses (Du et al.,

2017) which mirrors our present observations and suggests a translational mechanism

of high clinical relevance. The apparent long-lasting desensitization effects of daily

OT administration may be contributed to by the magnitude of the doses being

administered and if so it is possible that lower daily doses might produce reduced

effects.

The amygdala is one of the main neural substrates mediating OT's functional

effects and its attenuation of fear of reactivity in this region is considered as a core

therapeutic mechanism of action (Jurek and Neumann, 2018, 2018; Kendrick et al.,

2017). Importantly, we have additionally demonstrated that the magnitude of

amygdala responses to fear faces are positively associated with intensity and arousal

ratings in the PLC group and that OT exerts an anxiolytic action by reducing both

these ratings and abolishing their correlation with amygdala activation.

Dysregulations in amygdala and behavioral responses to fear stimuli have been

observed across major psychiatric disorders, particularly those characterized by

marked social impairments and anxiety (Hennessey et al., 2018; Neumann and

Slattery, 2016). Furthermore, our finding that both neural and behavioral anxiolytic

effects of OT are stronger after repeated compared to single doses in the group

receiving OT every other day supports the assumption that optimal therapeutic effects

should be obtained following chronic treatment.

Our second major finding is that OT's attenuations of neural and behavioral

responses to fear faces are highly dependent on OXTR genotype. Only G-non-carriers

of rs53576 (i.e. AA) and A-carriers of rs2254298 (i.e. AA and AG) and AA

homozygotes for rs53576 and A+ carriers of rs2254298 were significantly responsive

to OT. A-carriers of both SNPs have frequently, although not universally, been

associated with social dysfunction in autism as well as social anxiety (Cataldo et al.,

2018; Jurek and Neumann, 2018). A recent haplotype-based analysis of OXTR SNPs

including rs53576 and rs2254298 also indicated that individually they have some

association with sensitivity to OT-effects on face recognition (Chen et al., 2015).

While the current study clearly indicates that OT modulation of amygdala and visual

cortex responses to fear are strongly associated with the AA genotype (Cohen's *ds*

from 0.81-1.41), it remains to be seen whether other OT-dependent effects exhibit the

same association. Limitations to the current findings are that subject numbers are still

relatively low for establishing robust genetic associations and that the AA allele of

rs53576 occurs more frequently in Asian compared with Caucasian populations

(Butovskaya et al., 2016). Also, rs53576 exhibits some sex-dependent differences in

social cooperation effects of OT (Feng et al., 2015b) and our current study focused

only on males to avoid potential menstrual cycle effect issues.

Interestingly, task-related and intrinsic network changes produced by OT showed

a strikingly different sensitivity to repeated doses and OXTR genotype. However,

importantly on the fifth day of treatment there was no advantage of giving OT daily as

opposed to every other day. Intrinsic networks may be less influenced by repeated

doses of OT or OXTR genotype than those activated by tasks, although arguably in

the context of OT's putative therapeutic effects its task-dependent impact of neural

circuitry engaged during social interactions should be of greatest importance. Future

studies should measure differential OT effects on both task-related and intrinsic

networks.

In conclusion, the current study provides the first evidence for an important

influence of dose frequency and receptor genotype on the neural and behavioral

actions of intranasal OT in response to fear faces in healthy human subjects. Dose

frequency therefore requires further empirical evaluation in patient populations given

that it can critically determine treatment efficacy in clinical trials employing chronic

administration as an intervention in psychiatric disorders.

Material and Methods

Study design

The main objectives of the study were to firstly investigate the effects of acute (single

dose) and repeated doses (daily or every other day for 5 days) of 24IU OT versus PLC

on two biomarkers: (1) amygdala and behavioral responses to fearful faces and (2)

resting state functional connectivity between the amygdala and mPFC. Secondly we

investigated modulatory influences of OXTR rs53576 and rs2254298 polymorphisms

on sensitivity to intranasal OT.

Participants. A total of 147 healthy, right-handed healthy adult male subjects were

enrolled according to common inclusion and exclusion criteria for human

OT-administration studies. This subject number was determine a priori based on

achieving 85% power for an expected medium effect size of 0.5. A total of 9 subjects

were excluded due to failure to complete the study or excessive head movement (see

Fig 1). Subjects were randomly assigned to repeated intranasal treatment (single daily

dose on five consecutive days) of (1) placebo (PLC; n = 46, M ± SD, 22.46± 2.3

years), (2) oxytocin (OT$_5$; n = 49, M ± SD, 21.78 ± 2.3 years), or interleaved OT and

PLC (OT on days 1, 3, 5, PLC on days 2, 4; OT$_3$; n = 43, M ± SD, 21.02 ± 2.0 years)

(see **SI**). To ensure compliance all subjects were required to come to the center every

day and supervised during self-administration of nasal sprays. To control for

between-group differences in potential confounders pre-treatment levels of anxiety,

depression, and empathy and trait autism were assessed using validated scales. There

were no significant differences between the OT and PLC groups (**Table S4**). The

study was approved by the local ethics committee (Institutional Review Board,

University of Electronic Science and Technology of China) and subjects provided

written informed consent. The study was in accordance with the latest revision of the

Declaration of Helsinki, pre-registered at Clinical Trials.gov (NCT03610919 -

https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03610919) and in line with recommendations for

trials in psychological experiments (Guidi et al., 2018) (see **Fig. 1** for Consort flow

diagram). Subjects received monetary compensation for participation.

Experimental procedures.

The study employed a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled, between-subject

design. The OT and PLC sprays used in the 3 groups were both supplied by Sichuan

Meike Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd, Sichuan, China in identical dispenser bottles

containing identical ingredients (glycerine and sodium chloride) other than OT. In line

with recommended guidelines experiments started 45 minutes after intranasal

administration (Guastella et al., 2013). In post-treatment interviews collected on days

1 and 5 subjects were unable to identify better than chance whether they had received

OT or PLC ($\chi^2 < 0.1$, ps > 0.2, **Table S5**) confirming successful blinding over the

entire study period. For OXTR genotyping subjects provided buccal swaps on the 1st

day for analysis of OXTR rs2254298, rs53576 SNPs (see **SI** and (Montag et al.,

2017)).

For the implicit face-emotion processing task 208 grayscale facial stimuli

displaying happy, neutral, angry or fearful facial expressions (n = 26 per category,

50% female) were used. Stimuli were initially rated with respect to arousal and

valence by an independent group of subjects and two matched independent sets of

stimuli were produced for use on the 1st and 5th days (all ps > 0.3, see **SI** for details

and **Table S6**). The presentation order of the two sets was counter balanced. To

ensure attentive processing subjects were required to identify the gender of each face

picture (see **Figure S2**).

Primary outcomes and analysis plan.

Face emotion-related amygdala responses were assessed using the event-related

implicit face processing fMRI paradigm on treatment days 1 and 5. Intrinsic amygdala

connectivity was assessed by means of two resting state fMRI assessments (before

and after the task-paradigm). Valence, arousal and intensity ratings (scale: 1-9) for the

facial stimuli were collected immediately after MRI acquisition as additional

behavioral outcomes (further details see **SI**). In line with the main aim of the study

changes in amygdala fear reactivity and amygdala intrinsic connectivity between the

1st and 5th day served as primary outcome measures. Changes in valence, arousal and

intensity ratings for the fear faces represented an associated behavioral outcome

measure.

Imaging acquisition and analysis.

MRI data was acquired using standard sequences on a 3T GE MR750 system. In

addition to the functional time series high resolution T1-weighted structural MRI data

was acquired at both time points to improve normalization and control for acute and

chronic effects of treatment on brain structure. MRI data was preprocessed using

validated procedures in SPM12 (Friston et al., 1994) (Statistical Parametric Mapping;

http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm) and Data Processing Assistant or Resting-State

fMRI(Yan, 2010) (DPARSFA; http://rfmri.org/DPARSF) (for details see **SI**). First

level General Linear Models (GLM) for the task-related fMRI data included separate

regressors for the four emotional conditions, gender identity rating period and 6

movement parameters and appropriate contrasts were subjected to a second level

random effects analysis.

Statistical analyses

To identify OT-sensitive regions and confirm previous findings on suppression of

amygdala reactivity following single-dose OT-administration (Young and Barrett,

2015) a voxel-wise whole-brain two-sample t-test was conducted in SPM comparing

neural activity in OT- and PLC-treated subjects on the1st day. For all subsequent

analyses a 6-mm sphere centered at the maximum t-values of the acute OT effects in

the amygdala served as target region to determine different trajectories of amygdala

functioning following acute versus repeated treatment (for similar approach see

(Spengler et al., 2017)).

Primary outcomes: amygdala and behavioral fear-face reactivity and intrinsic

connectivity.

Differences in stimulus-induced amygdala and behavioral responses to fear faces were

examined by means of mixed ANOVAs with treatment (PLC, OT$_3$, OT$_5$) as

between-subject factor, time point (1st day, acute effects; 5th day, chronic effects) as

within-subject factor. Dependent variables were extracted target region

amygdala-reactivity towards (parameter estimates extracted using Marsbar,

http://marsbar.sourceforge.net) and subsequent valence, intensity and arousal ratings

of fearful faces. Bonferroni-corrected post-hoc comparisons were used to explore

significant interactions. Associations between amygdala activation in response to fear

faces and subsequent behavioral ratings of their valence, intensity and arousal were

assessed using Pearson correlation and group differences calculated using Fishers-z

tests.

Differences in resting state amygdala functional connectivity were determined

using a voxel-wise seed-to-whole-brain ANOVA as implemented in the SPM flexible

factorial design with treatment (PLC, OT$_3$, OT$_5$) as between-subject factor, time point

(1st day, acute effects; 5th day, chronic effects) as within-subject factor and amygdala

connectivity maps as dependent variable. To account for potential effects of

task-engagement on intrinsic amygdala connectivity the primary analysis focused on

pre-task resting state maps. A subsequent ROI analysis on the post-task data (focusing

on extracted estimates from a 6mm sphere centered at vmPFC determined by the

pre-task data) served as a replication and further validation.

Secondary outcome measures: influence of OXTR genotype

For rs2254298 subjects were divided into A+ carriers (AA and AG) and A-

non-carriers (GG) and rs53576 into G+ carriers (GG and GA) and G- non-carriers

(AA). To explore effects of genotype as a secondary outcome measure, OXTR group

was included as additional between-subject factor in the corresponding ANOVAs and

amygdala fear reactivity, amygdala-vmPFC intrinsic functional connectivity and

behavior rating response served as dependent variables.

Control for treatment effects on brain structure.

To control for potential confounding effects of single- and repeated

OT-administration on brain structure, a voxel-based morphometry (VBM) analysis

was conducted on the T1-weighted images acquired on both testing days using

SPM12 standard procedures (Ashburner, 2007; Ashburner and Friston, 2005). Effects

of single- and repeated dose administration were explored concordant with the fMRI

analyses (see **SI**).

Thresholding and statistical implementation.

Voxel-wise whole brain analyses in SPM were thresholded at a cluster-based

Family-wise error (FWE) corrected level (p < .05) with an initial cluster forming

threshold of p < .001 (in line with recent recommendations (Eklund et al., 2016;

Mueller et al., 2017)). Behavioral and neural (extracted parameter estimates) indices

were analyzed using SPSS 22.0 and appropriate ANOVA models. Partial eta squared

(η^2_p) and Cohen's *d* were computed as measures of effect size. Group differences in

parameter estimates extracted from significant main effect in SPM were further

evaluated using two-sample t tests. All reported p values were Bonferroni-corrected,

two-tailed, and p ≤ 0.05 considered significant.

Acknowledgement: We thank the reviewers and editor for their comments and

suggestions for improving the manuscript. **Funding:** This project was supported by

National Natural Science Foundation of Science (NSFC) grant numbers 31530032

(KMK) and 91632117 (BB). **Author contributions:** JK and KMK designed the

experiment. JK, YZ and CS carried out the experiment. JK, KMK, CM, FZ and BB

analyzed the experiment and JK, KMK, CM and BB wrote the paper. All authors

contributed to the conception of the study and approved the paper. **Competing**

interests: The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References

Ashburner J. 2013. Symmetric diffeomorphic modeling of longitudinal structural MRI. *Frontiers in Neuroscience* **6**. doi:10.3389/fnins.2012.00197

Ashburner J. 2007. A fast diffeomorphic image registration algorithm. *NeuroImage* **38**:95–113. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2007.07.007

Ashburner J, Friston KJ. 2005. Unified segmentation. *NeuroImage* **26**:839–851. doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2005.02.018

Bales KL, Perkeybile AM, Conley OG, Lee MH, Guoynes CD, Downing GM, Yun CR, Solomon M, Jacob S, Mendoza SP. 2013. Chronic Intranasal Oxytocin Causes Long-Term Impairments in Partner Preference Formation in Male Prairie Voles. *Biological Psychiatry* **74**:180–188. doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2012.08.025

Baron-Cohen S, Wheelwright S, Skinner R, Martin J, Clubley E. n.d. The Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ): Evidence from Asperger Syndrome/High-Functioning Autism, Malesand Females, Scientists and Mathematicians 13.

Beck AT, Steer RA, Carbin MG. 1988. Psychometric properties of the Beck Depression Inventory: Twenty-five years of evaluation. *Clinical Psychology Review* **8**:77–100. doi:10.1016/0272-7358(88)90050-5

Benner S, Aoki Y, Watanabe T, Endo N, Abe O, Kuroda M, Kuwabara H, Kawakubo Y, Takao H, Kunimatsu A, Kasai K, Bito H, Kakeyama M, Yamasue H. 2018.

Neurochemical evidence for differential effects of acute and repeated oxytocin

administration. *Molecular Psychiatry*. doi:10.1038/s41380-018-0249-4

Brüne M. 2012. Does the oxytocin receptor polymorphism (rs2254298) confer

"vulnerability" for psychopathology or "differential susceptibility"? insights

from evolution. *BMC Medicine* **10**:38. doi:10.1186/1741-7015-10-38

Butovskaya PR, Lazebny OE, Sukhodolskaya EM, Vasiliev VA, Dronova DA,

Fedenok JN, Rosa A, Peletskaya EN, Ryskov AP, Butovskaya ML. 2016.

Polymorphisms of two loci at the oxytocin receptor gene in populations of

Africa, Asia and South Europe. *BMC Genetics* **17**.

doi:10.1186/s12863-015-0323-8

Cataldo I, Azhari A, Esposito G. 2018. A Review of Oxytocin and

Arginine-Vasopressin Receptors and Their Modulation of Autism Spectrum

Disorder. *Frontiers in Molecular Neuroscience* **11**.

doi:10.3389/fnmol.2018.00027

Chen FS, Kumsta R, Dvorak F, Domes G, Yim OS, Ebstein RP, Heinrichs M. 2015.

Genetic modulation of oxytocin sensitivity: a pharmacogenetic approach.

Translational Psychiatry **5**:e664–e664. doi:10.1038/tp.2015.163

Du P, He Z, Cai Z, Hao X, Dong N, Yuan W, Hou W, Yang J, Jia R, Tai F. 2017.

Chronic central oxytocin infusion impairs sociability in mandarin voles.

Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior **161**:38–46.

doi:10.1016/j.pbb.2017.09.006

Eckstein M, Becker B, Scheele D, Scholz C, Preckel K, Schlaepfer TE, Grinevich V,

Kendrick KM, Maier W, Hurlemann R. 2015. Oxytocin Facilitates the

Extinction of Conditioned Fear in Humans. *Biological Psychiatry* **78**:194–202.

doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2014.10.015

Eickhoff SB, Stephan KE, Mohlberg H, Grefkes C, Fink GR, Amunts K, Zilles K.

2005. A new SPM toolbox for combining probabilistic cytoarchitectonic maps

and functional imaging data. *NeuroImage* **25**:1325–1335.

doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2004.12.034

Eklund A, Nichols TE, Knutsson H. 2016. Cluster failure: Why fMRI inferences for

spatial extent have inflated false-positive rates. *Proceedings of the National*

Academy of Sciences **113**:7900–7905. doi:10.1073/pnas.1602413113

Feng C, Lori A, Waldman ID, Binder EB, Haroon E, Rilling JK. 2015a. A common

oxytocin receptor gene (*OXTR*) polymorphism modulates intranasal oxytocin

effects on the neural response to social cooperation in humans: OXTR

polymorphism and oxytocin effects. *Genes, Brain and Behavior* **14**:516–525.

doi:10.1111/gbb.12234

Feng C, Lori A, Waldman ID, Binder EB, Haroon E, Rilling JK. 2015b. A common

oxytocin receptor gene (*OXTR*) polymorphism modulates intranasal oxytocin

effects on the neural response to social cooperation in humans: OXTR

polymorphism and oxytocin effects. *Genes, Brain and Behavior* **14**:516–525.

doi:10.1111/gbb.12234

Friston KJ, Holmes AP, Worsley KJ, Poline J-P, Frith CD, Frackowiak RSJ. 1994.

Statistical parametric maps in functional imaging: A general linear approach.

Human Brain Mapping **2**:189–210. doi:10.1002/hbm.460020402

Guastella AJ, Gray KM, Rinehart NJ, Alvares GA, Tonge BJ, Hickie IB, Keating CM,

Cacciotti-Saija C, Einfeld SL. 2015. The effects of a course of intranasal

oxytocin on social behaviors in youth diagnosed with autism spectrum

disorders: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Child Psychology and*

Psychiatry **56**:444–452. doi:10.1111/jcpp.12305

Guastella AJ, Hickie IB, McGuinness MM, Otis M, Woods EA, Disinger HM, Chan

H-K, Chen TF, Banati RB. 2013. Recommendations for the standardisation of

oxytocin nasal administration and guidelines for its reporting in human

research. *Psychoneuroendocrinology* **38**:612–625.

doi:10.1016/j.psyneuen.2012.11.019

Guidi J, Brakemeier E-L, Bockting CLH, Cosci F, Cuijpers P, Jarrett RB, Linden M,

Marks I, Peretti CS, Rafanelli C, Rief W, Schneider S, Schnyder U, Sensky T,

Tomba E, Vazquez C, Vieta E, Zipfel S, Wright JH, Fava GA. 2018.

Methodological Recommendations for Trials of Psychological Interventions.

Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics **87**:276–284. doi:10.1159/000490574

Halverson T, Jarskog LF, Pedersen C, Penn D. 2019. Effects of oxytocin on empathy,

introspective accuracy, and social symptoms in schizophrenia: A 12-week

twice-daily randomized controlled trial. *Schizophrenia Research* **204**:178–182.

doi:10.1016/j.schres.2018.09.013

Hennessey T, Andari E, Rainnie DG. 2018. RDoC-based categorization of amygdala

functions and its implications in autism. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral*

Reviews **90**:115–129. doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2018.04.007

Huang H, Michetti C, Busnelli M, Managò F, Sannino S, Scheggia D, Giancardo L,

Sona D, Murino V, Chini B, Scattoni ML, Papaleo F. 2014. Chronic and

Acute Intranasal Oxytocin Produce Divergent Social Effects in Mice.

Neuropsychopharmacology **39**:1102–1114. doi:10.1038/npp.2013.310

Jarskog LF, Pedersen CA, Johnson JL, Hamer RM, Rau SW, Elliott T, Penn DL. 2017.

A 12-week randomized controlled trial of twice-daily intranasal oxytocin for

social cognitive deficits in people with schizophrenia. *Schizophrenia Research*

185:88–95. doi:10.1016/j.schres.2017.01.008

Jurek B, Neumann ID. 2018. The Oxytocin Receptor: From Intracellular Signaling to

Behavior. *Physiological Reviews* **98**:1805–1908.

doi:10.1152/physrev.00031.2017

Kendrick KM, Guastella AJ, Becker B. 2017. Overview of human oxytocin

researchBehavioral Pharmacology of Neuropeptides: Oxytocin. Springer. pp.

321–348.

Kvaal K, Ulstein I, Nordhus IH, Engedal K. 2005. The Spielberger State-Trait

Anxiety Inventory (STAI): the state scale in detecting mental disorders in

geriatric patients. *International Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry* **20**:629–634.

doi:10.1002/gps.1330

Lohse MJ, Hofman KP. 2015. Spatial and temporal aspects of signaling by

G-protein-coupled receptors. *Molecular Pharmacology* **88:**572-578.

doi:10.1124/mol.115.100248

Meyer-Lindenberg A, Domes G, Kirsch P, Heinrichs M. 2011. Oxytocin and

vasopressin in the human brain: social neuropeptides for translational

medicine. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* **12**:524–538. doi:10.1038/nrn3044

Montag C, Sindermann C, Melchers M, Jung S, Luo R, Becker B, Xie J, Xu W,

Guastella AJ, Kendrick KM. 2017. A functional polymorphism of the *OXTR*

gene is associated with autistic traits in Caucasian and Asian populations.

American Journal of Medical Genetics Part B: Neuropsychiatric Genetics

174:808–816. doi:10.1002/ajmg.b.32596

Mueller K, Lepsien J, Möller HE, Lohmann G. 2017. Commentary: Cluster failure:

Why fMRI inferences for spatial extent have inflated false-positive rates.

Frontiers in Human Neuroscience **11**. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2017.00345

Neumann ID, Slattery DA. 2016. Oxytocin in General Anxiety and Social Fear: A

Translational Approach. *Biological Psychiatry* **79**:213–221.

doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2015.06.004

Parker KJ, Garner JP, Libove RA, Hyde SA, Hornbeak KB, Carson DS, Liao C-P,

Phillips JM, Hallmayer JF, Hardan AY. 2014. Plasma oxytocin concentrations

and OXTR polymorphisms predict social impairments in children with and

without autism spectrum disorder. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*

Sciences **111**:12258–12263. doi:10.1073/pnas.1402236111

Pierce KL, Premont RT, Lefkowitz RJ. 2002. Seven-transmembrane receptors. *Nature*

Reviews Molecular Cell Biology **3:**639-650

Power JD, Barnes KA, Snyder AZ, Schlaggar BL, Petersen SE. 2012. Spurious but

systematic correlations in functional connectivity MRI networks arise from

subject motion. *NeuroImage* **59**:2142–2154.

doi:10.1016/j.neuroimage.2011.10.018

Russell JA. 2018. 50 years of advances in neuroendocrinology. *Brain and*

Neuroscience Advances. **2:**1-20. doi:10.1177/2398212818812014

Siu AMH, Shek DTL. 2005. Validation of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index in a

Chinese Context. *Research on Social Work Practice* **15**:118–126.

doi:10.1177/1049731504270384

Smith MP, Ayad VJ, Mundell SJ, McArdle CA, Kelly E, López Bernal, A. 2006.

Internalization and desensitization of the oxytocin receptor is inhibited by

dynamin and clathrin mutants in human embryonic kidney 293 cells.

Molecular Endocrinology **20:**379-388. doi:10.1210/me.2005-0031

Spengler FB, Schultz J, Scheele D, Essel M, Maier W, Heinrichs M, Hurlemann R.

2017. Kinetics and Dose Dependency of Intranasal Oxytocin Effects on

Amygdala Reactivity. *Biological Psychiatry* **82**:885–894.

doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2017.04.015

Stoop R. 2012. Neuromodulation by Oxytocin and Vasopressin. *Neuron* **76**:142–159.

doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2012.09.025

Terenzi MG, Ingram CD. 2005. Oxytocin-induced excitation of neurones in the rat

central and medial amygdaloid nuclei. *Neuroscience* **134:**345-354.

doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2005.04.004

Watanabe T, Kuroda M, Kuwabara H, Aoki Y, Iwashiro N, Tatsunobu N, Takao H,

Nippashi Y, Kawakubo Y, Kunimatsu A, Kasai K, Yamasue H. 2015. Clinical

and neural effects of six-week administration of oxytocin on core symptoms of

autism. *Brain* **138**:3400–3412. doi:10.1093/brain/awv249

Yamasue H, Okada T, Munesue T, Kuroda M, Fujioka T, Uno Y, Matsumoto K,

Kuwabara H, Mori D, Okamoto Y, Yoshimura Y, Kawakubo Y, Arioka Y,

Kojima M, Yuhi T, Owada K, Yassin W, Kushima I, Benner S, Ogawa N,

Eriguchi Y, Kawano N, Uemura Y, Yamamoto M, Kano Y, Kasai K,

Higashida H, Ozaki N, Kosaka H. 2018. Effect of intranasal oxytocin on the

core social symptoms of autism spectrum disorder: a randomized clinical trial.

Molecular Psychiatry. doi:10.1038/s41380-018-0097-2

Yan. 2010. DPARSF: a MATLAB toolbox for "pipeline" data analysis of resting-state

fMRI. *Frontiers in System Neuroscience*. doi:10.3389/fnsys.2010.00013

Yang S, Dong X, Guo X, Han Y, Song H, Gao L, Dai W, Su Y, Zhang X. 2017.

Serum Oxytocin Levels and an Oxytocin Receptor Gene Polymorphism

(rs2254298) Indicate Social Deficits in Children and Adolescents with Autism

Spectrum Disorders. *Frontiers in Neuroscience* **11**.

doi:10.3389/fnins.2017.00221

Young LJ, Barrett CE. 2015. Can oxytocin treat autism? *Science* **347**:825–826.

doi:10.1126/science.aaa8120

Zhao W, Becker B, Yao S, Ma X, Kou J, Kendrick KM. 2018. Oxytocin

Enhancement of the Placebo Effect May Be a Novel Therapy for Working

Memory Impairments. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics* 1–2.

doi:10.1159/000495260

Zhao Z, Yao S, Li K, Sindermann C, Zhou F, Zhao W, Li J, Lührs M, Goebel R,

Kendrick KM, Becker B. 2019. Real-Time Functional Connectivity-Informed

Neurofeedback of Amygdala-Frontal Pathways Reduces Anxiety.

Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics 1–11. doi:10.1159/000496057

650   **Figures:**

Juan Kou[1], Yingying Zhang[1], Feng Zhou[1], Cornelia Sindermann[2], Christian Montag[2], Benjamin Becker[1], Keith M Kendrick[1*]

Fig.1

652   **Fig.1** CONSORT flow diagram of the clinical trial.

Fig.2

Fig.2 The effect of intranasal oxytocin (OT) treatment on neural responses to fearful

faces on the 1st day. (A) The t-map of the treatment effect (FWE c = 78, t = 3.93, p =

0.043) showed an activated cluster peaking at the right amygdala (x = 27, y = −4, z =

−13). (B) Parameter estimates extracted using a 6-mm radius sphere centered at the

peak MNI coordinates at the right amygdala on the 1st and 5th day separately revealed

that OT treatment on alternate days (OT_3) decreased amygdala responses on both the

1st and 5th days whereas for the daily OT treatment group (OT_5) group the decrease

only occurred on the 1st day. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, two-tailed t-test. Bars indicate M

± SE.

Fig.3

665 **Fig.3** Oxytocin influenced intensity and arousal ratings. Oxytocin decreased intensity

666 and arousal ratings of fearful faces only on the 5th day of treatment in the group

667 receiving OT on alternate days (OT_3) compared with placebo (PLC). *$p< 0.05$.

668 **$p<0.01$. Bars depict M $\pm$ SE.

Fig.4

671   **Fig.4** Associations between intensity and arousal ratings of fear faces and amygdala

672   activation in the three treatment groups (PLC, OT_3 and OT_5) on days 1 and 5. *p<

673   0.05. **p<0.01

Fig.5

Fig.5 The effects of oxytocin (OT) on resting state functional connectivity (A)

schematic showing functional connection between the right amygdala and

ventromedial prefrontal cortex (vmPFC). Whole brain functional connectivity (FC)

used the right amygdala as a region of interest (6mm sphere, x=27, y=-4, z=-13) and

(B) revealed significant increased functional connectivity between vmPFC and right

amygdala (p_{FWE} <0.05, x=-3, y=53, z=-19) in both OT treatment groups (every day –

OT and every other day - OT on both days 1 and 5). Data for the two resting state

periods before and after the face emotion task were similar and are therefore showed

here combined. Bar graph illustrates the extraction of parameter estimates from right

amygdala connectivity with vmPFC (M ± SE). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, two-tailed

t-test. Bars indicate M ± SE.

Fig.6

Fig.6 Influence of oxytocin receptor genotype on right amygdala responses to fearful

faces (n = 111 subjects). (A)-(B): for rs 53576 only G-non carriers (i.e. AA) showed

reduced amygdala response to fearful faces and for rs2254298 only A-carriers (i.e.

AA and AG) in the groups with intranasal oxytocin treatment either daily (OT_5) or

every other day (OT_3). (C)-(D): A similar pattern was found for rs2254298, but not

rs53576 for arousal ratings of fearful faces although only on day 5 in the OT_3 group.

(E)-(F): A similar pattern was found for rs2254298, but not rs53576 for intensity

ratings of fearful faces although only on day 5 in the OT_3 group ** $p < 0.005$, * $p <$

0.0125, two-tailed t-test (Bonferroni corrected significance threshold of $p = 0.0125$).

Bars indicate $M \pm SE$.

719   **Supplementary information for**

720   **Kou et al., "Genotype and dose-frequency may critically determine the**

721   **therapeutic efficacy of chronic oxytocin treatment"**

723   **Supplementary Methods**

724   **Supplementary Results**

725   **Supplementary Tables**

726   **Supplementary Figures**

Supplementary Methods

Participants

147 healthy, right-handed healthy adult subjects were recruited by local advertisement.

All subjects had normal or corrected to normal vision and no history of or current

neurological or psychiatric disorders. Participants were free from current (one month

before the experiment) or regular use of medication and were required to abstain from

caffeine, alcohol and tobacco at least 24 hours before the experiment. Four subjects

were not able to attend all study appointments and 5 were excluded due to head

movement during the fMRI assessment (motion > 3.0mm translation or $3°$ and mean

frame-wise displacement (FD < 0.5 mm) (Power et al., 2012), Pre-treatment levels of

anxiety, depression, trait autism and empathy were assessed using validated scales

(State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) (Kvaal et al., 2005), Beck Depression

Inventory (Beck et al., 1988), Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ) (Baron-Cohen et al.,

n.d.), and Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Siu and Shek, 2005).

Stimuli and face task

208 gray scaled facial stimuli displaying happy, neutral, angry or fearful facial

expressions (n = 26 per category, 50% female) were used employed for the implicit

emotional face processing task. Stimuli were initially rated with respect to arousal and

valence by an independent group of participants (n = 24 participants, 10 females, age,

M ± SD, 21.3 ± 1.9 years). Based on these valence and arousal ratings two

independent sets of stimuli for the 1st day and 5th day were constructed with matched

arousal and valence (all ps > 0.3, see **Table S6**) and the order of the two sets are

counter balanced in the treatment group and control group.

Subjects were instructed to attentively process the presented facial stimuli and

were required to indicate the gender of the actor after presentation (left button press

for male, right button press for female face) to ensure attentive processing. Stimuli

were presented for 3s followed by a jittered fixation (1.5-2.1s) followed by the gender

discrimination task presented for 2s (2s) and followed by a jittered inter-trial interval

(4.5-6s) that served as low level baseline. Order of gender and emotion was

pseudo-randomized (see also **Fig. S2**).

Imaging acquisition of fMRI data

fMRI data employing blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) contrast was

acquired on a 3T GE MR750 system. Functional images for task-based and resting

state data assessments were acquired using EPI sequences (TR=2000ms, echo

time=30ms, flip angle=90°, FOV=240mm $\times$ 240mm, voxel size= $3.75 \times 3.75 \times 4$ mm,

resolution=64×64, the number of slices=39). T1-weighted anatomical images were

additionally acquired to improve normalization of the functional images and

additionally served to explore structural changes related to OT treatment (TR=6ms,

echo time=2ms, flip angle=9°, FOV=256mm $\times$ 256mm, voxel size =$1\times1\times1$mm,

number of slices=156).

fMRI data preprocessing (Implicit emotional face processing task part)

Task-related fMRI data analyzed using SPM12 (Friston et al., 1994) (Statistical

Parametric Mapping; http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm). The first 5 volumes were

discarded to allows T1 equilibration and the remaining images were applied to correct

for temporal slice acquisition differences and then realigned and unwarped to correct

for head motion (six-parameter rigid body algorithm), and slice-timing correction.

Tissue segmentation, bias-correction were applied to the high-resolution structural

images. After co-registration of the functional time-series with the skull-stripped

anatomical scan the transformation matrix was applied to normalized the functional

images to MNI space with a voxel size of $3 \times 3 \times 3$ mm. Normalized images were

spatially smoothed using a Gaussian kernel with full-width at half-maximum (FWHM)

of 5 mm. Participants with head motion exceeding 3.0mm translation or 3° rotation

and mean frame-wise displacement ($FD > 0.5$ mm) were excluded. Mean frame-wise

displacement (FD) were controlled between OT treatment group and PLC control

group (see **Table S7**)

fMRI data preprocessing (resting state)

Resting state data was analyzed using SPM12 (Statistical Parametric Mapping;

http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm) and Data Processing Assistant for Resting-State

fMRI(Yan, 2010) (DPARSFA; http://rfmri.org/DPARSF). After discarding the first 5

scans, preprocessing included slice-time correction, head motion correction using

six-parameter rigid body algorithm. Then they were co-registered with the anatomical

scan and normalized to MNI space with voxel size of $3 \times 3 \times 3$ mm. Normalized

images were then spatially smoothed using a Gaussian kernel with full-width at

half-maximum (FWHM) of 5mm. As for nuisance signal correction, the following

nuisance parameters were included as regressors, 6 head motion parameters, 6 head

motion parameters one time point before, and their squares, white matter (WM) and

cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). After filtering with the band of (0.01-0.1HZ) and linear

detrending, the functional connectivity of data has been calculated on the whole brain

level based on the region of activation during task. Participants with head motion

exceeding 3.0mm translation or 3° rotation and mean frame-wise displacement (FD >

0.5 mm) were excluded. Mean frame-wise displacement (FD) were controlled

between OT treatment and PLC control groups (see **Table S7**).

fMRI data preprocessing (voxel-based morphometry part)

To further control for potential confounding effects of single- and repeated dose

administration of OT on brain structure a voxel-based morphometry (VBM) analysis

was performed on the T1-weighted images acquired on both testing days. Processing

for longitudinal effects included unified segmentation, DARTEL preprocessing, and

Pairwise Longitudinal Registration (Ashburner, 2013) using in SPM12 according to

standard procedures(Ashburner, 2007; Ashburner and Friston, 2005) . Repeated

administration effects on gray matter (GM) were assessed using whole-brain analysis

across groups. For the acute effect identical preprocessing was applied without the

longitudinal registration step including T1 images from the 1st day and an independent

samples t test to compare OT and PLC treated participants.

Genotyping

A total of 120 subjects (samples could not be analyzed from 27 subjects either due to problems with buccal cell sampling or equivocal genotyping results) were successfully genotyped from buccal cell swabs. DNA was extracted by a MagNa Pure 96 robot (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) with a commercial Viral NA Small Volume Kit (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Polymorphisms were analyzed by means of a real time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and subsequent high resolution melting detection analysis with a LightCycler Cobas z480 (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Simple probe assay designs provided by TibMolBiol (Berlin, Germany) were conducted. The following SNPs were investigated for participants in the present study: OXTR rs2254298, rs53576 (see **Tables S2 and S3** for distribution and Hardy Weinberg details).

Supplementary Results

Bilateral calcarine cortex responses to fear faces and associations with OXTR genotype

Mixed ANOVAs with treatment (PLC, OT_3, OT_5) and time point (1st day, acute effects; 5th day, chronic effects) as factors revealed a significant main effect of treatment ($F_{2, 135} = 11.52$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2_p = 0.146$) and treatment x time point interaction ($F_{2, 135} = 3.22$, $p = .043$, $\eta^2_p = 0.046$). Post hoc comparisons confirmed that OT significantly decreased calcarine cortex responses in the OT_3 ($p < 0.001$, $d = 0.97$) and OT_5 ($p < 0.001$, $d = 0.72$) groups relative to PLC on the 1st day. No differences were observed between the OT-treatment groups on the 1st day ($p = 0.351$, $d = 0.21$). On

the 5th day, suppression of calcarine cortex fear reactivity relative to the PLC-group

was maintained in the OT_3 (p < 0.001, $d = 0.81$) but not the OT_5 group (p = 0.326, d =

0.19) and the OT_3 group was also significantly different from the OT_5 group (p =

0.006, $d = 0.62$). Thus, the bilateral calcarine cortex showed similar evidence to the

right amygdala for a reduced effect of OT with daily repeated doses after 5 days.

For calcarine cortex responses there was a significant treatment x genotype

interaction for rs53576 ($F_{2, 105}= 5.17$, p = 0.007, $\eta^2_p = 0.09$) although for rs2254298 it

did not reach significance ($F_{2, 105}= 2.18$, p = 0.118, $\eta^2_p = 0.04$). For rs53576,

OT-induced suppression on day 1 was only significant in G-non-carriers (AA - p

<0.001, Cohen's $d =1.12$) and also on the 5th day in the OT_3 group (AA - p < 0.001,

Cohen's $d =1.28$) and OT_5 group (p = 0.006, Cohen's $d =0.92$). An exploratory post

hoc analysis for rs2254298 revealed that OT-induced suppression on the 1st day across

treatment groups was only significant in A-carriers (AA and AG- p < 0.001, Cohen's

$d =1.20$) and also on the 5th day in the OT_3 group (AA and AG - p < 0.001, Cohen's d

=1.24). Thus the calcarine cortex showed a similar pattern of receptor genotype

dependency for the effects of OT as the amygdala.

Bilateral calcarine cortex responses to fear faces and associations with intensity

and arousal ratings

Associations between calcarine (visual) cortex responses to fear faces and arousal and

intensity ratings were marginal in the PLC group on the 1st day (arousal: r = 0.28, p =

0.059; intensity: r = 0.22, p = 0.150) and were not influenced by OT (arousal: OT_3, r =

0.15 p = 0.329; Fisher's z = 0.31, p = 0.540; OT_5, r = 0.08, p = 0.584; z = 0.98, p =

0.328; intensity: OT_3, r = 0.24, p = 0.123; Fisher's z = 0.11, p = 0.912; OT_5, r = 0.12,

p = 0.423; z = 0.18, p = 0.859). However, on the 5th day there was a significant

association for arousal ratings in the PLC group (PLC: r = 0.35 p = 0.016) and this

was significantly reduced in the OT_3 group (r = -0.10 p = 0.544; z = 2.12, p = 0.034)

but not the OT_5 group (r = 0.05 p = 0.725; z = 1.50, p = 0.134). Intensity ratings on

the 5th day showed a similar pattern (PLC: r = 0.37 p = 0.012; OT_3, r = -0.05 p =

0.734; z = 1.98, p = 0.047; OT_5 group, r = 0.108 p = 0.462; z = 1.29, p = 0.195)

(**Fig.S4**).

Superior frontal gyrus responses to fear faces and associations with OXTR

genotype

Mixed ANOVAs with treatment (PLC, OT_3, OT_5) and time point (1st day, acute

effects; 5th day, chronic effects) as factors revealed a significant main effect of

treatment ($F_{2, 135}$ = 6.80, p = 0.002, η^2_p =0.092) but no treatment x time point

interaction ($F_{2, 135}$=0.55, p = 0.576, η^2_p =0.008). Exploratory post hoc comparisons

confirmed that OT significantly decreased superior frontal gyrus responses in the OT_3

(p = 0.005, d = 0.59) and OT_5 (p = 0.001, d = 0.67) groups relative to PLC on the 1st

day. No differences between the OT-treatment groups were observed on the 1st day (p

= 0.753, d = 0.06). On the 5th day, suppression of superior frontal gyrus fear reactivity

relative to the PLC-group was maintained in the OT_3 group (p = 0.011, d = 0.63) and

the OT_5 group (p = 0.045, d = 0.38). No differences between the OT-treatment groups

were observed on the 5th day (p = 0.528, d = 0.13). Thus, there was no evidence for

reduced superior frontal gyrus responses to daily OT doses being reduced after 5 days.

For superior frontal gyrus responses there was no significant treatment x

genotype interaction for rs53576 ($F_{2, 105}$= 1.19, p = 0.309, η^2_p = 0.02) or for rs2254298

$(F_{2, 105} = 1.28$, $p = 0.279$, $\eta^2_p = 0.02$) indicating that there was no significant influence

of OXTR genotype on responses.

Superior frontal gyrus responses to fear faces and associations with arousal and

intensity ratings

There were no significant associations between superior frontal gyrus responses to

fear faces and arousal and intensity ratings for PLC or OT groups on the 1st or 5th days

(ps > 0.11) (**Fig.S5**).

Neural and behavioral responses to fearful faces in association with combined

rs53576 and rs2254298 genotypes

We also carried out an exploratory analysis of neural responses and intensity ratings

for fearful faces for the 4 different combined rs53576 and rs2254298 genotypes

following acute OT treatment (i.e. using combined OT_3 and OT_5 groups on the 1st day

versus PLC to increase power). The 4 different combined genotypes had an

approximately equal distribution (see **Fig. S3**). For right amygdala responses, there

was a marginal significant treatment x genotype interaction for combined genotype of

rs53576 and rs2254298 ($F_{2, 110} = 2.20$, $p = 0.093$, $\eta^2_p = 0.06$). Post hoc analysis

indicated OT-induced suppression on day 1 was significant in the group with both

G-non-carriers of rs53576 (i.e. AA) and A-carriers of rs2254298 (i.e. AA or AG - p <

0.001, Cohen's $d = 1.25$) (see **Fig. S3**).

For the bilateral calcarine cortex response to fearful faces, the treatment x

genotype interaction for the combined genotype of rs53576 and rs2254298 was

marginally significant ($F_{2, 110}= 2.10$, $p = 0.105$, $\eta^2_p = 0.06$). Again an exploratory post

hoc analysis indicated OT-induced suppression on the 1st day was significant in the

group with both G-non-carriers of rs53576 (AA) and A-carriers of rs2254298 (AA or

AG - $p = 0.001$, Cohen's $d =1.26$), similar to the pattern in right amygdala (see **Fig.**

S3).

For the superior frontal gyrus responses there was no treatment x genotype

interaction for the combined genotype of rs53576 and rs2254298 ($F_{2, 110}= 0.09$, $p =$

0.96, $\eta^2_p = 0.003$) and no significant exploratory post-hoc findings.

For intensity ratings of fearful faces there was a marginal treatment x genotype

interaction for the combined genotype of rs53576 and rs2254298 ($F_{2, 110}= 2.35$, $p =$

0.08, $\eta^2_p = 0.009$) and an exploratory post-hoc analysis showed that OT-induced

reductions in intensity ratings on the 1st day were significant in the group with both

G-non-carriers of rs53576 (AA) and A-carriers of rs2254298 (AA or AG - $p = 0.009$,

Cohen's $d = 0.85$). For arousal ratings for fearful faces there was no significant

treatment x genotype interaction for the combined genotype of rs53576 and

rs2254298 ($F_{2, 110}= 1.92$, $p = 0.13$, $\eta^2_p = 0.053$) but an exploratory post-hoc analysis

showed that OT-induced reduction in intensity ratings on the 1st day was marginally

significant (after correction) in the group with both G-non-carriers of rs53576 (AA)

and A-carriers of rs2254298 (AA or AG - $p = 0.020$, Cohen's d=0.75) (see **Fig. S3**).

Table S1 Whole brain acute effect (1st day) of intranasal OT on neural responses to fearful faces

Regions	x	y	z	k	P_{FWE}
OT<PLC (fear faces)					
Calcarine_R (aal)	18	-82	8	156	0.002
Calcarine_L (aal)	0	-88	5		
Occipital_Sup_R (aal)	18	-91	20		
Frontal_Mid_R (aal)	27	8	56	82	0.036
Frontal_Sup_R (aal)	33	-4	59		
Frontal_Sup_R (aal)	21	-1	52		
Amygdala_R (aal)	27	-4	-13	78	0.043
Putamen_R (aal)	30	5	-7		

933 **Table S2** The number of A carriers (A+) and A non-carriers (A-) of rs2254298, G

934 carriers (G+) and G non-carriers (G-) of rs53576 in each treatment group

Genotypes	PLC	OT_3	OT_5	In total	$\chi2$	P	η^2
rs2254298(A+)	20	23	20	63			
rs2254298(A-)	16	18	14	48	0.088	0.957	0.025
rs53576(G+)	15	17	20	52			
rs53576(G-)	21	24	14	59	2.824	0.244	0.124

940   **Table S3** Distribution of Genotypes in the Sample of N=120 participants

	Genotypes				HWE
rs2254298	AA:	AG:	GG:	Total:	Chi^2 = 0.07,
	15	53	52	120	p = .794
rs53576	AA:	AG:	GG:	Total:	Chi^2 = 1.94,
	60	45	15	120	p = .163

942   **Table S4** Pre-treatment anxiety, depression, autism and empathy scores in both

943   groups

Questionnaire	PLC	OT$_3$	OT$_5$	F	P
STAI, state	38.78±11.53	35.49±10.69	37.14±8.92	1.13	0.33
STAI, trait	41.67±11.60	40.28±10.51	39.20±8.94	0.81	0.15
BDI	9.84±9.13	8.93±8.08	8.00±7.45	0.57	0.57
AQ	20.91±5.57	20.35±5.91	19.47±4.57	0.88	0.42
IRI	50.59±9.84	53.02±8.74	49.39±9.81	1.72	0.18

953 **Table S5** Chi Squared Test of post-experiment interviews where subjects were

954 required to identify which treatment they received. In all cases subjects were unable to

955 guess better than chance.

Day	PLC	OT_3	OT_5	In total	$\chi2$	P	η^2
1	24	20	22	66	0.547	0.76	0.062
2	20	15	17	52	0.988	0.61	0.078
3	24	28	24	76	2.645	0.27	0.014
4	19	18	20	57	0.01	0.99	0.003
5	25	25	24	74	0.787	0.68	0.039

957 **Table S6** Ratings for each of the two sets of different face emotion stimuli used on

958 the 1st day and 5th day in a counterbalanced design. There were no significant

959 differences between the two sets for valence and arousal ratings.

	Valence				Arousal			
	Set A On the 1st day	Set B On the 5th day	t	p	Set A On the 1st day	Set B On the 5th day	t	p
Happy	6.26±0.94	6.25±0.97	0.04	0.97	5.50±0.59	5.52±0.44	0.12	0.90
Neutral	5.67±0.17	5.61±0.16	1.06	0.30	3.03±0.36	2.98±0.32	0.55	0.59
Fear	6.40±1.02	6.31±0.17	0.34	0.74	6.71±0.70	6.70±0.63	0.03	0.98
Angry	6.16±0.98	6.04±1.04	0.48	0.64	5.66±0.84	5.83±0.99	0.82	0.42

966 **Table S7** Group Comparison of Mean frame-wise displacement

fMRI tasks	t $_{OT3\ VS\ PLC}$	P $_{OT3\ VS\ PLC}$	t $_{OT5\ VS\ PLC}$	P $_{OT5\ VS\ PLC}$
Day1-Face task	0.588	0.558	0.261	0.795
Day5-Face task	1.056	0.294	0.097	0.923
Day1-rs-fMRI-1	1.841	0.069	1.025	0.308
Day1-rs-fMRI-2	0.569	0.571	0.763	0.448
Day5-rs-fMRI-1	0.739	0.462	1.305	0.195
Day5-rs-fMRI-2	0.676	0.501	1.216	0.227

Fig.S1

976 **Fig.S1.** Treatment protocol. Participants were randomly assigned to have nasal spray

977 of oxytocin (OT) for 5 days 24 IU per day (OT$_5$ group) or have OT or placebo nasal

978 spray on alternate days during the 5 days (OT on the 1st, 3rd and 5th day), 24 IU per

979 day (OT$_3$ group) or have daily nasal spray of PLC for 5 days (PLC group).

Fig.S2

Fig.S2 Face emotion task procedure. Face stimuli appeared on the screen for 3

988 seconds, and then on the subsequent response screen participants were required to

989 press the left or right response key to identify the gender of the face they had seen.

Fig.S3

Fig.S3 The influence of combined rs53576 and rs2254298 genotypes on oxytocin

acute treatment effect on brain activation and behavioral response (A) right amygdala

and (B) bilateral calcarine gyrus responses to fear faces in the placebo (PLC) and

combined oxytocin (OT) treatment groups on the 1st treatment day and (C) the same

for arousal ratings (D) and intensity ratings of fear faces. ** p <0.001 and # p <0.05.

After Bonferroni correction p <0.0125 considered significant. Subject numbers for

combined rs 2254298 and rs 53576: A+ & G- 13 (PLC), 24 (OT); A- & G+ 8 (PLC),

18 (OT); A- & G- 8 (PLC), 14 (OT); A+ & G+ 7 (PLC), 19 (OT).

Fig.S4

1009

1010 **Fig.S4** Associations between calcarine cortex (visual cortex) responses to fear faces

1011 and arousal and intensity ratings in the three treatment groups (PLC, OT_3 and OT_5). *

1012 p <0.05. # p<0.1.

1013

Fig.S5

1014

1015 **Fig.S5** Associations between superior frontal gyrus responses to fear faces and

1016 arousal and intensity ratings in the three treatment groups (PLC, OT$_3$ and OT$_5$). * p

1017 <0.05

1018