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Improving emotion control in social anxiety by targeting rhythmic brain circuits

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2
3 **Abbreviated title:** Improving emotional action control in social anxiety

4
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34

35 **ABSTRACT** (166/250)

36

37 Social avoidance is a hallmark of social anxiety disorder. Difficulties in controlling avoidance
38 behavior are the core maintaining factor of this impairing condition, hampering the efficacy of
39 existing therapies. This preregistered study tested a physiologically-grounded non-invasive
40 enhancement of control over social approach and avoidance behavior in socially anxious
41 individuals. Participants received dual-site phase-coupled electrical stimulation aimed at
42 enhancing endogenous inter-regional theta-gamma phase-amplitude coupling between prefrontal
43 and sensorimotor cortex, a mechanism known to support emotional-action control in non-anxious
44 individuals. We measured behavioral and fMRI-BOLD responses during in-phase, anti-phase, and
45 sham stimulations, while participants of either sex performed a social approach-avoidance task,
46 involving either automatic or controlled emotional actions. In-phase stimulation selectively
47 enhanced control over approach-avoidance actions. Notably, in-phase stimulation modulated
48 neural responses in the same prefrontal region where target engagement increased as a function
49 of trait anxiety. These findings illustrate how human neurophysiological connectivity can be
50 leveraged to improve control over social avoidance, opening the way for mechanistically grounded
51 clinical interventions of persistent avoidance in anxiety disorders.

52

53 **SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT** (106/120)

54

55 Controlling automatic approach-avoid behavior is essential for human social interactions. This
56 ability is impaired in social anxiety, and recent evidence suggests that neurotypical brains use
57 endogenous rhythmic coupling for social emotion control. In a preregistered study, we used
58 noninvasive electrical brain stimulation to enhance endogenous rhythmic coupling between
59 prefrontal theta- and sensorimotor gamma-band rhythms, while highly socially anxious individuals
60 solved an emotional control challenge. In-phase stimulation selectively enhanced emotional action
61 control and modulated neural activity in a prefrontal cortex region where brain stimulation reactivity
62 increased as a function of trait anxiety. These findings provide evidence for the clinical potential of
63 this interventional approach to social anxiety.

65

66 Anxiety disorders are characterized by difficulties in flexibly regulating prepotent approach and
67 avoidance tendencies. Persistent avoidance of perceived threats contributes to the development
68 and maintenance of anxiety by preventing extinction through exposure (Lovibond et al., 2009; Pittig
69 et al., 2015; Craske and Stein, 2016; Rattel et al., 2017). There is an urgent need for non-invasive
70 interventions targeted at improving emotional action control in anxious individuals. Recent work
71 has improved cognitive and behavioral functions in neurotypical individuals, boosting inter-regional
72 neural communication through dual-site phase-amplitude-coupled transcranial alternating current
73 stimulation (dual-site tACS) (Polanía et al., 2012; Violante et al., 2017; Preisig et al., 2021; Grover
74 et al., 2022). This non-invasive neuromodulation technique, grounded on the physiology of
75 directional inter-regional neuronal communication, can also enhance emotion control in non-
76 anxious individuals (Bramson et al., 2020a). Here, we test the translational potential of this
77 approach by applying dual-site tACS in a group of participants selected for high social anxiety, a
78 trait known to be associated with impaired emotional action control (Heuer et al., 2007; Roelofs et
79 al., 2009b; van Peer et al., 2009). This translational test is a critical step toward developing
80 clinically-relevant interventions for modulating emotional behavioral control.

81

82 Patients suffering from social anxiety disorder have particular difficulties in overriding
83 automatic avoidance tendencies in social situations. Previous research has identified the lateral
84 prefrontal cortex (IPFC) as a critical brain region involved in selecting between competing
85 approach-avoidance actions (Koch et al., 2018; Bramson et al., 2020b). IPFC integrates valence
86 signals from the amygdala with task goals to bias action competition in sensorimotor cortex (SMC)
87 (Volman et al., 2011; Bramson et al., 2018, 2020a; Lapate et al., 2022). This functional framework
88 is supported by causal evidence from human neuromodulation studies: perturbation of IPFC
89 reduces accuracy on affect-incongruent trials – when prepotent emotional responses need to be
90 overridden (Volman et al., 2011) – whereas facilitation of IPFC-SMC coupling enhances accuracy
91 under the same demands (Bramson et al., 2020a). Human electrophysiological studies have
92 indicated that this type of cognitive control can be implemented through rhythmic modulation of
93 excitability in downstream areas, including the SMC and parietal cortex (Voytek et al., 2015;
94 Bramson et al., 2018, 2020a; Weber et al., 2024). Specifically, successful control over social-
95 emotional approach-avoidance actions has been linked to coupling between the phase of theta-
96 band rhythms in IPFC and the amplitude of gamma-band activity in SMC (Bramson et al., 2018).

97

98 Dual-site tACS offers a means to non-invasively modulate endogenous inter-regional
99 phase-amplitude coupling, enhancing long-range synchronization between task-relevant neural
100 circuits (Reinhart and Nguyen, 2019; Bramson et al., 2020a; Grover et al., 2022). Our work has
101 shown that in-phase stimulation, designed to synchronize peaks of theta-band rhythms in IPFC
102 with the amplitude of gamma-band neural activity in SMC, improves accuracy when non-anxious
103 participants override automatic emotional action tendencies (Bramson et al., 2020a). Notably,
104 these behavioral improvements scaled with local target engagement: participants showing greater
105 reductions in prefrontal BOLD during stimulation exhibited stronger behavioral facilitation. This
106 inter-individual variation highlights the importance of considering interactions between ongoing
107 neural activity and tACS-induced electric fields (Krause et al., 2019, 2022; Johnson et al., 2020).
108 Furthermore, underscoring the potential of using BOLD reduction as a neural proxy for local target
109 engagement (Bramson et al., 2020a), in line with concurrent EEG-fMRI studies showing that
110 inhibitory low-frequency oscillations, e.g. theta, can be associated with decreased BOLD signal
111 (Scheeringa et al., 2011; Algermissen et al., 2022).

112
113 Given the pivotal role of the IPFC and its connectivity with SMC in regulating social
114 emotional approach-avoidance actions (Volman et al., 2011; Bramson et al., 2020a), we here used
115 dual-site tACS over IPFC and SMC, aiming to improve emotion control in highly socially anxious
116 individuals. Specifically, we applied in-phase and anti-phase dual-site tACS while forty-nine highly
117 socially anxious individuals performed a social approach-avoidance task. We used concurrent
118 fMRI to quantify prefrontal engagement during control over the emotional action tendencies.

119 MATERIALS AND METHODS

121 Participants

122 Fifty-two highly socially anxious students (39 females) from Radboud University, Nijmegen, were
123 recruited to participate in this pre-registered experiment (<https://osf.io/j9s2z/>). The local ethics
124 committee approved the experiment (METC Arnhem-Nijmegen: CMO2014/288). Two participants
125 were excluded due to malfunctioning of the stimulation equipment, and one participant was
126 excluded for failing to comply with task instructions during one of the stimulation sessions.
127 Participants were selected based on high self-reported social anxiety levels, as detailed below,
128 and screened for eligibility criteria, including no history of mental illness other than anxiety
129 disorders or current use of psychoactive medication. Additionally, all participants had normal or
130 corrected-to-normal vision and underwent screening for contraindications to magnetic resonance
131 imaging (MRI) and non-invasive transcranial electrical stimulation. The mean age of participants
132 was 24.0 years (SD = ± 4.3), with an age range of 19 to 40 years.

134 Pre-screening was conducted using the Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale (LSAS).
135 Participants who scored 30 or higher (on the combined fear/anxiety and avoidance sub-scales)
136 were included, as this cutoff provides an optimal balance between sensitivity and specificity for
137 identifying individuals who meet the criteria for social anxiety disorder (Mennin et al., 2002). This
138 selection criterion resulted in a normal distribution of LSAS scores within our study sample, with a
139 mean of 64.4, a standard deviation (SD) of ± 18.8 , and a range from 31 to 106 (**Fig. 1A**). The trait
140 sub-scale of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI Y-2) was also included to assess trait anxiety,
141 serving as an inter-individual difference marker of tACS target engagement. This is because
142 endogenous prefrontal activation in response to the emotional action control challenge varies as
143 a function of trait anxiety (Bramson et al., 2023).

145 The current study in highly socially anxious individuals was powered to replicate the main
146 finding of our previous investigation in healthy male students (Bramson et al., 2020a) that showed
147 tACS phase- and engagement-specific effects on emotional action control (behavioral response
148 accuracy on incongruent vs. congruent trials; <https://osf.io/j9s2z/>). This required a sample size that
149 allowed us to detect the previously observed significant three-way interaction between Congruency
150 (congruent, incongruent) * tACS-phase (in-phase, anti-phase) * tACS engagement (BOLD signal
151 in IPFC during stimulation vs. sham) on behavioral response accuracy (correct, incorrect): $\eta_p^2 =$
152 0.19 (Bramson et al., 2020a). The minimum sample size required for this study to detect an effect

of comparable magnitude is 45 participants (*a priori* sensitivity power analysis of 2x2 RM-ANCOVA: $\alpha = .05$, power = .80, $\eta_p^2 = 0.19$; G*Power v3.1; Faul et al., 2007). Given that the current sample might be more heterogeneous due to mixed-sex and anxiety-related differences, we decided to increase our planned sample size to 50 participants.

Procedure

The data collection procedure took place over three separate days. On the first day, participants completed the Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale (LSAS) and State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait (STAI-trait, Y-2) questionnaires. Following this, participants underwent a series of scanning procedures, including a structural T1-weighted scan, a diffusion-weighted imaging scan (DWI, as reported in Bramson et al., 2020a, 2023), and a magnetic spectroscopy scan (MRS, as reported in Bramson et al., 2020a, 2023).

On the second and third days of the experiment, neuronavigation was employed to position the electrodes over the sensorimotor cortex (SMC) and lateral prefrontal cortex (IPFC). Detailed information on electrode placement is provided in the following section. During both stimulation sessions, participants were positioned inside the MR scanner, where they first completed a 5-minute practice task. After the practice session, participants proceeded with the approach-avoidance task, which was conducted concurrently with dual-site tACS intervention and task-based functional MRI for approximately 35 minutes.

Approach-avoidance task

Emotional action control was manipulated using a validated social approach-avoidance task in which cognitive control is associated with IPFC-SMC theta-gamma coupling (Bramson et al., 2018), and is sensitive to the phase-dependent effects of dual-site theta-gamma phase-amplitude tACS when controlling for inter-individual variation in prefrontal BOLD response to tACS (Bramson et al., 2020a). During functional MR scanning, participants lay inside the MR scanner with a joystick in their right hand resting on their lower abdomen. Participants were instructed to approach or avoid by moving the joystick toward or away from themselves, respectively. During the task, participants received written instructions on the screen (>10 s) at the start of each block of 12 trials (~60 s) that stated, “Pull the joystick toward yourself when you see a happy face and push away from yourself when you see an angry face” (congruent condition), “Push the joystick away from yourself when you see a happy face and pull toward yourself when you see an angry face”

186 (incongruent condition). Congruent and incongruent conditions alternated between blocks in a
187 pseudo-random fashion. Between blocks, there was an inter-block interval of >20 s. Each trial
188 started with a fixation cross (500 ms) followed by a face stimulus (100 ms) to which participants
189 had to respond within 2 s. Joystick movements over 30% of the maximum movement range were
190 considered valid responses. If a participant did not respond, they would receive on-screen
191 feedback stating, "You did not move the joystick far enough". Instructions and the inter-block
192 interval lead to an ~30 s wash-out period between stimulation conditions. Each participant had 288
193 trials on each of the two testing days, yielding 576 observations (trials) in total, equally distributed
194 over congruency (congruent, incongruent) and stimulation (in-phase, anti-phase, sham) condition
195 combinations (96 trials per bin).

196

197 **Dual-site tACS stimulation**

198 Dual-site tACS was applied online during task performance inside the MRI scanner using two sets
199 of concentric ring electrodes (inner disc: 25 mm \varnothing ; outer ring: 80 mm inner- \varnothing , 100 mm outer- \varnothing)
200 (Saturnino et al., 2017). Current direction alternated (-1 mA to +1 mA) between each disc-ring
201 electrode set to achieve a time-varying electrical field in theta-band (6 Hz) frequency over right-
202 IPFC and gamma-band (75 Hz) tapered with a 6 Hz theta wave over left-SMC. The tACS-phase
203 manipulation was achieved by phase-locking gamma-band power to peaks (in-phase) or troughs
204 (anti-phase) of the theta-band signal. This stimulation protocol was informed by prior
205 magnetoencephalography (MEG) findings showing that emotional action control engages theta-
206 gamma phase-amplitude coupling between IPFC and SMC during the same task (Bramson et al.,
207 2018), and its application has previously been shown to facilitate emotional action control in non-
208 anxious males (Bramson et al., 2020a). During sham blocks, there was an initial 10 s period of
209 stimulation to match potential sensations related to the onset of stimulation, after which stimulation
210 was terminated. Within a session, participants received all stimulation conditions (in-phase, anti-
211 phase, sham) alternating in a pseudo-random fashion between stimulus blocks of 12 trials (~60 s),
212 interleaved with periods of no stimulation (instructions between blocks; > 30 s), and never
213 repeating the same stimulation condition for two consecutive blocks.

214

215 We used neuronavigation (Localite TMS Navigator; RRID: [SCR_016126](#)) for individualized
216 targeting of left-SMC (MNI [-28, -32, 64] (Bramson et al., 2018, 2020a) and right-IPFC (MNI [26,
217 54, 0] (Neubert et al., 2014; Bramson et al., 2018, 2020a)) based on anatomical masks of regions
218 of interest registered to individual T1-weighted scans acquired during the first session. After
219 localization, electrodes were attached to the participant's scalp using Ten20 conductive paste
220 (MedCaT). Inside the MR scanner, stimulation was delivered using two Neuroconn DC-Stimulator

221 Plus stimulators (neuroConn; impedance < 10 kOhm; RRID: [SCR_015520](#)). Stimulators were
222 placed inside a magnetically shielded box designed with electronics that filtered out RF pulses of
223 the MR scanner and combined with a BrainAmp ExG MR amplifier (www.brainproducts.com) that
224 allowed continuous monitoring of stimulation output during the session.

225

226 **Modeling of stimulation currents**

227 The electric field magnitude (mV/mm) at the cortical target sites was estimated using SimNIBS
228 (version 4.0; Thielscher et al., 2015). The concentric ring electrode sets were modeled as the disc
229 (25 mm \varnothing) and outer ring electrode (80 mm inner- \varnothing , 100 mm outer- \varnothing) with the same center, using
230 a 2-layer medium (2 mm silicone rubber on top of 2 mm saline gel). The electrode sets were
231 positioned over IPFC and SMC using the template head mesh of SimNIBS. For all media, we used
232 standard conductivities provided by SimNIBS. Direct currents of 1 mA were modeled to flow
233 between the center disc electrode and the outer ring. The model results of the electric field
234 magnitude at the cortical surface for both target sites are shown in **Fig. 2A**.

235

236 **MRI**

237 All participants underwent magnetic resonance imaging using a 3T MAGNETRON Prisma MR
238 scanner (Siemens AG, Healthcare Sector, Erlangen, Germany), which has a 64-channel head coil
239 with a top opening that allows the tACS electrode wires to be routed out of the back of the scanner
240 bore. The scans obtained during the MR sessions were aligned with a standard brain atlas to
241 guarantee a uniform field of view (FoV) throughout the days. Each scanning day involved taking
242 around 1800 functional images using a multi-band six sequence, 2 mm isotropic voxel size, TR/TE
243 = 1000 / 34 ms, flip angle = 60°, phase angle P >> A, including ten volumes with reversed phase
244 encoding direction (A >> P) used to correct image distortions.

245

246 High-resolution structural images were acquired with a single-shot MPRAGE sequence
247 using a GRAPPA acceleration factor of 2, TR/TE = 2400/2.13 ms, an effective voxel size of 1 mm
248 isotropic, 176 sagittal slices, a distance factor of 50%, a flip angle of 8°, orientation A >> P, and a
249 FoV of 256 mm.

250

251 **Behavior analyses**

252 To examine effects of congruency (congruent, incongruent) and stimulation (in-phase, anti-phase,
253 sham) on behavioral response accuracy (correct, incorrect), we employed mixed-effects logistic
254 regression using the *lme4* package in R (Bates et al., 2015). The models accounted for inter-
255 individual variability by incorporating random slopes, intercepts, and correlations across
256 participants to adhere to the maximal random effects structure. Outputs of these models are log
257 odds ('b'). Effect sizes were reported as odds ratios (ORs) with 95% confidence intervals (CIs).
258 Statistical significance for all analyses were evaluated at the $\alpha < 0.05$ criterion.

259

260 Mixed-effects logistic regression models included behavioral accuracy (correct, incorrect)
261 as dependent variable, with the relevant experimental conditions (Congruency, Stimulation) and
262 their interactions as predictors (**Fig. 1C**). The tACS-engagement metric (see below; continuous
263 variable; Z-scored; **Fig. 3A**) or STAI trait score (continuous variable; Z-scored; **Fig. 3B**) was added
264 as a covariate to the interaction.

265

266 We hypothesized that the congruency effect in error rates would decrease for in-phase
267 tACS and that the size of the effect per participant would depend on the BOLD effect of tACS vs.
268 sham, a measure of target engagement that is orthogonal to the contrast of interest (in-phase vs.
269 anti-phase). These expectations were preregistered at the Open Science Framework:
270 (<https://osf.io/j9s2z/>).

271

272 To examine potential engagement-independent effects of in-phase vs. anti-phase tACS on
273 mean error rates (tACS > sham), we employed a linear mixed-effects model with tACS-phase (in-
274 phase, anti-phase) and Congruency (congruent, incongruent) as within-subject factors (**Fig. 3C**).

275

276 We explored the relationship between congruency-related amygdala modulation (BOLD:
277 incongruent > congruent) and behavioral control (error rate: incongruent – congruent). Spearman
278 correlations assessed whether stronger amygdala modulation was associated with better
279 emotional action control within each tACS-phase condition (**Fig. 4A**). To test whether this
280 amygdala-behavior relationship was modulated by target engagement differently across tACS-
281 phase conditions, we fitted a linear mixed-effects model with amygdala modulation (continuous, Z-
282 scored), target engagement (continuous, Z-scored), and tACS-phase (in-phase, anti-phase) as
283 predictors of the behavioral congruency effect. The three-way interaction (amygdala ×
284 engagement × tACS-phase) tested whether the engagement-dependent modulation of amygdala-

285 behavior coupling differed between stimulation phases (**Fig. 4B**). Simple slopes were estimated at
286 low (-1 SD), mean, and high (+1 SD) levels of target engagement.

287

288 **ROI masks**

289 The sensorimotor cortex (SMC) mask was created as a 10 mm spherical ROI centered at MNI
290 coordinates [-36, -30, 72], based on model-based estimates of current density distribution under
291 the SMC electrode location, along with the anatomical location used for neuronavigation. The
292 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (dlPFC) mask was derived from the right middle frontal gyrus mask
293 in the probabilistic Harvard-Oxford Atlas (included in FSL). The FPI mask was derived from the
294 Neubert probabilistic connectivity-based parcellation (Neubert et al., 2014). The bilateral amygdala
295 mask was created using the right and left amygdala masks from the Harvard-Oxford Atlas,
296 thresholded at 25%. The primary visual cortex (V1) mask was created as an 8 mm spherical ROI
297 and centered at the maximum probability of V1 (MNI coordinates [-9, -96, 2]) in the Juelich
298 Histological Atlas (included in FSL).

299

300 **fMRI analyses – preprocessing**

301 All image processing was performed using MELODIC 3.00, as implemented in FSL 6.0.0
302 (<https://fsl.fmrib.ox.ac.uk>; Jenkinson et al., 2012). Motion correction was applied using MCFLIRT
303 (Jenkinson et al., 2002), while magnetic field distortions were corrected with TOPUP (Andersson
304 et al., 2003). Functional images were rigid-body registered to the brain-extracted structural image
305 using FLIRT (Jenkinson et al., 2002). Nonlinear registration to MNI 2 mm standard space was
306 performed with FNIRT. Images were then spatially smoothed with a 5 mm Gaussian kernel, high-
307 pass filtered at 100 s, and pre-whitened. Independent component analysis (ICA) was conducted
308 with a maximum of 100 components (Beckmann and Smith, 2004), which were manually inspected
309 to remove potential noise sources (Griffanti et al., 2017).

310

311 **fMRI analyses – GLM**

312 Emotional action control effects on whole-brain BOLD activation were estimated by contrasting
313 incongruent trials (approach angry and avoid happy) with congruent trials (avoid angry and
314 approach happy) across all stimulation conditions (in-phase, anti-phase, and sham).

315

316 *Subject-level analyses*

317 First- and second-level GLM analyses were performed in FSL 6.0.5 using FEAT (Jenkinson et al.,
318 2012). At the first level, the model included 12 task regressors: approach angry, approach happy,
319 avoid angry, and avoid happy, modeled separately for each tACS condition (in-phase, anti-phase,
320 and sham). Each regressor covered the time interval from stimulus presentation until joystick
321 movement onset. The model also included nuisance regressors for estimated head motion (six
322 translation and rotation parameters), their temporal derivatives, and global signal time series from
323 white matter and cerebrospinal fluid. First-level models from two separate stimulation sessions
324 were combined using fixed effects analysis in FEAT (Jenkinson et al., 2012).

325

326 *Group-level analyses*

327 At the group level, effects were assessed using FLAME 1 with outlier de-weighting (Woolrich,
328 2008). Family-wise error correction was applied using cluster-based inference with a cluster-
329 forming threshold of $|Z| > 2.3$, which provides a false error rate of approximately 5% when using
330 FLAME 1 (Eklund et al., 2016).

331

332 *Individual estimates of tACS target engagement*

333 Because tACS intensity was held constant across participants, individual differences in
334 physiological impact are expected to arise primarily from variability in head anatomy and in the
335 interaction between the induced electric field and ongoing neural activity (Opitz et al., 2015; Krause
336 et al., 2019, 2022; Johnson et al., 2020). Accordingly, we operationalized individual differences in
337 stimulation impact using a measure of tACS target engagement.

338

339 Specifically, tACS-engagement effects on the whole-brain BOLD signal were assessed by
340 comparing stimulation conditions (in-phase and anti-phase) to sham across both congruency
341 conditions (**Fig. 1D**). To capture the net neural consequences of this interaction, we use the term
342 'tACS-engagement' to refer to individual variability in target engagement, as indexed by
343 stimulation-related BOLD signal change. This measure captures inter-individual differences in how
344 the induced electrical field interacts with local neural activity, and has previously been validated as
345 a marker of behavioral responsiveness to dual-site tACS (Bramson et al., 2020a). Individual
346 estimates of prefrontal tACS engagement were extracted from the 98% peak-activated voxel within
347 the Harvard-Oxford middle frontal gyrus (dlPFC) mask. This tACS-engagement metric (active
348 tACS > sham tACS) is orthogonal to both the tACS-phase manipulation and the emotional action
349 control contrast.

350

351 Because concurrent fMRI-EEG studies have shown that low-frequency brain rhythms (e.g.
352 theta) are associated with reduced BOLD signal (Scheeringa et al., 2011; Algermissen et al.,
353 2022), in line with their predominantly inhibitory role (Yu et al., 2023; Leung and Yim, 2025), we
354 consider a net reduction in prefrontal BOLD signal as a marker of stronger tACS engagement (see
355 also Bramson et al., 2020a).

356

357 To validate the orthogonality of the tACS-engagement metric, we confirmed that it was
358 uncorrelated with the contrast between in-phase > sham and anti-phase > sham (Spearman's $\rho_{(46)}$
359 = -0.05, $p = 0.7460$). Moreover, both in-phase > sham and anti-phase > sham contrasts explained
360 comparable variance in the tACS-engagement metric ($\rho_{(46)} = 0.73$ and 0.68 , respectively, both p
361 < 0.0001). One participant was excluded from this analysis due to an extreme in-phase > sham
362 value ($|Z| > 3$).

363

364 An exploratory whole-brain correlation analysis was also conducted to examine the
365 relationship between individual variation in STAI trait anxiety (Z-scored) and the tACS-engagement
366 contrast (**Fig. 3B**).

367

368 *tACS-phase effects on dIPFC-SMC coupling*

369 tACS-phase effects on congruency-related changes in dIPFC coupling were examined using
370 generalized psychophysiological interaction (gPPI) analysis (O'Reilly et al., 2012). We created an
371 interaction contrast between congruency (incongruent > congruent), tACS-phase (in-phase > anti-
372 phase), and the mean dIPFC BOLD time series. The mean dIPFC signal for the seed regressor
373 was extracted from a spherical ROI with a 5 mm radius, centered at each individual's peak tACS-
374 engagement location.

375

376 tACS-phase effects on temporal BOLD signal coupling between dIPFC (seed) and SMC
377 (target) were assessed using both cluster-based small volume correction (**Fig. 2C**) and ROI-based
378 analyses. Cluster-based inference was performed using Gaussian Random Field Theory
379 correction, as implemented in FSL's cluster tool (Smith and Nichols, 2009). A cluster-defining
380 threshold of $|Z| = 2.3$ and a corrected cluster significance threshold of $p < 0.05$ were applied to
381 control for multiple comparisons within the ROI. ROI-based inference was performed by extracting

382 the PPI betas from left SMC and V1 using Featquery. V1 served as a negative control to evaluate
383 the specificity of effects, since it is not part of the emotional action control network and was not
384 targeted by tACS. One-tailed t-tests assessed whether dIPFC–SMC and dIPFC–V1 coupling
385 significantly differed from zero.

386

387 *tACS-phase and congruency-dependent modulation of amygdala activation*

388 We conducted ROI-based analyses to evaluate how amygdala responses were modulated by
389 tACS-phase and congruency, independently of tACS engagement. Mean BOLD parameter
390 estimates were extracted from bilateral amygdala ROIs across the four active stimulation
391 conditions (in-phase/congruent, in-phase/incongruent, anti-phase/congruent,
392 anti-phase/incongruent) and analyzed using a linear mixed-effects model with tACS-phase
393 (in-phase, anti-phase) and Congruency (congruent, incongruent) as within-subject factors, **Fig.**
394 **3D.**

395

396 *Gender-related control analysis*

397 To assess gender-related differences in prefrontal engagement, we extracted mean activation
398 values corresponding to the congruency contrast (incongruent > congruent) within two prefrontal
399 ROIs: dIPFC (based on the congruency-related activation cluster) and FPI (Neubert et al., 2014).
400 These values were analyzed using a linear mixed-effects model with Region (FPI, dIPFC) as within-
401 subject factor and Gender (female, male) as between-subjects factor.

402 RESULTS

404 Behavioral cost of emotional action control

405 Forty-nine participants, selected on high self-reported daily-life social anxiety (**Fig. 1A**), were
406 instructed to use a joystick to approach happy and avoid angry faces (affect-congruent condition)
407 or avoid happy and approach angry faces (affect-incongruent condition), **Fig. 1B**. The affect-
408 incongruent condition requires participants to override automatic emotional action tendencies to
409 avoid angry and approach happy faces (Roelofs et al., 2009a; Phaf et al., 2014). Expected
410 congruency effects were observed in the baseline sham-tACS condition, with higher error rates for
411 incongruent as compared to congruent responses ($b_{\text{congruency}} = 0.35$, 95% *Confidence Interval (CI)*
412 [0.09, 0.62], $\chi^2_{(1)} = 7.06$, $p = 0.0079$) (Volman et al., 2011; Bramson et al., 2018, 2020a; Kaldewaij
413 et al., 2021), **Fig. 1C**. Specifically, the odds of participants making an incorrect response were 42%
414 higher in the incongruent as compared to congruent condition (*Odds Ratio (OR)* = 1.42, 95% *CI*
415 [1.10, 1.85]). This shows that exerting emotional action control is behaviorally costly.

417 Socially anxious individuals recruit dIPFC for emotional action control

418 The patterns of whole-brain neural activation largely aligned with previous findings using the same
419 task in non-anxious individuals, showing increased activation during incongruent vs. congruent
420 trials in bilateral precuneus [14, -70, 36], lingual gyrus [16, -74, -4], and right dorsal anterior
421 cingulate cortex [8, 32, 28], as well as decreased activity in bilateral medial [-8, 34, -14] and lateral
422 orbitofrontal cortex [-40, 28, -14; 24, 28, -14], temporal pole [-42, 16, -36], fusiform cortex [40, -42,
423 -18], amygdala [38, -4, -20], extending into hippocampus and parahippocampal gyrus (Volman et
424 al., 2011; Bramson et al., 2018, 2020a), **Table 1** and **Fig. 1D**. However, highly anxious individuals
425 exhibited more robust activation for incongruent trials in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (dIPFC;
426 Brodmann areas 9/46d) [30, 36, 38], rather than in the lateral frontal pole (FPI) region previously
427 found in non-anxious individuals (Bramson et al., 2020a; Kaldewaij et al., 2021; Lapate et al.,
428 2022). The differences in emotional action control circuits between high-anxious and non-anxious
429 individuals have been detailed in a separate paper (Bramson et al., 2023). These findings indicate
430 that high-anxious individuals likely implement control using dIPFC rather than FPI as non-anxious
431 individuals (Bramson et al., 2023).

433 In-phase tACS strengthens dIPFC-SMC functional coupling

434 We used simultaneous tACS and fMRI to verify neural consequences of the tACS-phase
435 manipulation, **Fig. 2A**. In-phase vs. anti-phase tACS (**Fig. 2B**) selectively enhanced functional
436 connectivity between dlPFC and SMC target regions under the congruency challenge, as
437 quantified using generalized psychophysiological interaction (gPPI) analysis (SMC cluster: $Z_{\max} =$
438 3.2 , $p_{\text{FWE}} = 0.0184$, MNI[-36, -26, 68]), **Fig. 2C**. To assess the anatomical specificity of this effect,
439 we tested whether functional coupling between dlPFC and a non-targeted region, V1, was
440 modulated by the tACS-phase manipulation. We observed no change in dlPFC-V1 coupling ($p >$
441 0.05), supporting the network specificity of the dlPFC-SMC effect. ROI-based analyses further
442 corroborated this: across participants, dlPFC-SMC coupling was significantly greater than zero
443 ($t_{(48)} = 2.17$, $p = 0.0173$), whereas dlPFC-V1 coupling was not ($t_{(48)} = 0.87$, $p = 0.1954$). Together,
444 these results demonstrate the specificity of the in-phase tACS manipulation in strengthening inter-
445 regional dlPFC-SMC coupling.

446

447 **Facilitation of emotional action control scales with dlPFC target engagement**

448 Concurrent tACS-fMRI was used to study the underlying mechanisms of dual-site tACS effects, as
449 well as to explain inter-individual variance in facilitation of behavioral performance depending on
450 prefrontal stimulation reactivity. Following our pre-registered analysis pipeline (<https://osf.io/j9s2z>),
451 we evaluated the cerebral effects of prefrontal tACS by examining BOLD activity in the region
452 involved in implementing emotional action control in these high-anxious participants. Given that
453 high-anxious individuals recruit dlPFC to solve emotional action control (Bramson et al., 2023),
454 and that the dual-site tACS montage of this study evokes electrical fields covering dlPFC, we
455 choose dlPFC BOLD activity as a metric of tACS engagement. As in (Bramson et al., 2020a), the
456 tACS-engagement metric is obtained from a BOLD contrast (active tACS > sham tACS) that is
457 orthogonal to both the tACS-phase manipulation and the emotional action control contrast. Here,
458 “tACS engagement” reflects individual variability in stimulation-related BOLD signal change. In line
459 with prior EEG-fMRI work showing that increases in low-frequency oscillatory power (e.g., theta)
460 are often associated with reductions in BOLD signal (Scheeringa et al., 2011; Algermissen et al.,
461 2022), we interpret a greater reduction in prefrontal BOLD during stimulation as reflecting stronger
462 physiological engagement by tACS (“higher engagement”). This rationale has been validated in
463 our previous study (Bramson et al., 2020a), where participants with stronger BOLD reductions
464 during stimulation also showed larger behavioral benefits. Critically, we observe tACS-
465 engagement and tACS-phase specific enhancement of emotional action control ($b_{\text{dlPFC-engagement}} =$
466 -0.34 , 95% CI [-0.66, -0.02], $\chi^2_{(1)} = 4.43$, $p = 0.0353$), **Fig. 3A**. Participants with a more robust
467 inhibitory response to prefrontal tACS exhibited greater improvement in emotional action control
468 when receiving in-phase as opposed to anti-phase tACS. Planned post-hoc analyses on
469 congruency-related error rates confirm significant engagement-dependent effects for the in-phase

470 (Spearman's $\rho_{(47)} = 0.37, p = .0092$) but not for the anti-phase condition (Spearman's $\rho_{(47)} = -0.09,$
471 $p = .5194$). The direction and magnitude of the dual-site in-phase tACS intervention effects align
472 with our previous report (Bramson et al., 2020a), and were specifically linked to tACS engagement
473 measured over dlPFC. Namely, when extracting tACS engagement from FPI, a region previously
474 reported to be decoupled from emotional action control in high-anxious individuals (Bramson et
475 al., 2023), no significant tACS-induced changes in emotional action control were observed ($b_{\text{FPI-}}$
476 $\text{engagement} = -0.12, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.46, 0.22], \chi^2_{(1)} = 0.49, p = 0.4844$).

477

478 Further exploration of brain-symptoms correlations revealed a positive association between
479 higher trait anxiety levels and stronger tACS engagement in dlPFC, **Fig. 3B**. However, replacing
480 dlPFC target engagement with trait anxiety in the model did not yield a significant effect ($b_{\text{STAI_trait}}$
481 $= 0.01, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.03, 0.04], \chi^2_{(1)} = 0.12, p = 0.7310$), suggesting that dlPFC target engagement
482 captures unique variance in the behavioral effects of the tACS intervention that is not accounted
483 for by trait anxiety alone. In summary, the findings demonstrate that dual-site tACS can effectively
484 enhance emotional action control in high-anxious individuals by targeting phase-amplitude
485 coupling between dlPFC and SMC.

486

487 **In-phase tACS improves valence-based action selection**

488 We also examined tACS-phase effects independent of individual differences in target engagement.
489 In-phase tACS, but not anti-phase tACS, results in a general behavioral performance
490 enhancement compared to sham ($b_{\text{tACS-phase}} = -0.16, SE = 0.08, p = 0.0403$), **Fig. 3C**. Specifically,
491 in-phase tACS reduces the odds of participants making an incorrect response by 22% across both
492 congruency conditions compared to sham ($b_{\text{in-phase}} = -0.25, 95\% \text{ CI } = [-0.39, -0.11], p = 0.0004; OR$
493 $= 0.78, 95\% \text{ CI } = [0.67, 0.89]$). In contrast, anti-phase tACS had no significant effect on behavioral
494 accuracy ($b_{\text{anti-phase}} = -0.10, 95\% \text{ CI } = [-0.25, 0.06], p = 0.2225$). Consistent with our previous work
495 (Bramson et al., 2020a), when individual differences in neural responsiveness to tACS were not
496 controlled for, tACS-phase did not show a congruency-specific effect on performance ($\chi^2_{(2)} = 0.85,$
497 $p = 0.6548$).

498

499 Next, we explored the neural mechanisms underlying the general improvement in valence-
500 based action selection during in-phase tACS, independent of individual target engagement effects.
501 Given prior evidence that emotion control involves amygdala dampening (Volman et al., 2011,
502 2013, 2016) and that suppression of task-irrelevant valence signals reduces amygdala
503 engagement (Anticevic et al., 2010; Kanske et al., 2011; Cohen et al., 2016) we focused on

504 amygdala activation (bilateral). We found a significant interaction effect of tACS-phase on
505 congruency-dependent amygdala modulation ($b_{\text{congruency:tACS-phase}} = 0.05$, 95% CI = [0.00, 0.09], $F_{(1, 96)} = 4.62$, $p = 0.0341$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.05$), **Fig. 3D**. Post-hoc analyses revealed that in-phase tACS resulted
506 in stronger congruency-related modulation of amygdala activation ($b_{\text{congruency}} = 0.06$, $t_{(95)} = 3.47$, $p = 0.0008$) compared to anti-phase tACS, which showed no significant effect ($b_{\text{congruency}} = 0.01$, $t_{(95)} = 0.62$, $p = 0.5355$).

510

511 **Potential mechanisms of tACS phase-dependent amygdala modulation**

512 In-phase tACS enhanced congruency-related amygdala modulation compared to anti-phase,
513 despite both conditions applying identical stimulation to dIPFC. If dIPFC receives identical
514 stimulation in both phases, why would altering the phase relationship at SMC differentially affect
515 amygdala responses? One explanation is that potential phase-related differences in electric field
516 strength or spatial distribution at dIPFC result in differential dIPFC efficacy in controlling the
517 amygdala between phases. Modeling analyses showed highly comparable electric fields between
518 tACS-phases (in-phase vs. anti-phase: Δ mean = $+0.004 \pm 0.002$ mV/mm, spatial $r = 0.998$),
519 making this explanation unlikely. A second explanation is that in-phase tACS strengthens dIPFC-
520 amygdala functional coupling through a network-level change in control state, improving the
521 capacity for direct top-down regulation. However, we found no phase-dependent differences in
522 dIPFC-amygdala connectivity during the congruency challenge ($p > 0.05$).

523

524 A third possibility is that the amygdala responses were modulated by the state of the dIPFC-
525 SMC circuit. At the mechanistic level, the phase manipulation at SMC does not directly alter dIPFC
526 stimulation but rather modulates the temporal alignment of dIPFC theta peaks with gamma-band
527 activity in SMC, specifically facilitating directional communication from dIPFC to SMC (Canolty and
528 Knight, 2010; Voytek et al., 2015). Although amygdala receives relatively sparse direct projections
529 from dIPFC (Petrides and Pandya, 1999), it maintains robust reciprocal connections with premotor
530 and sensorimotor regions involved in action preparation (Amaral and Price, 1984; Ghashghaei et
531 al., 2007; Morecraft et al., 2007). In-phase facilitation of dIPFC-SMC coupling may therefore
532 strengthen goal-directed control pathways that compete with amygdala-driven action tendencies,
533 downregulating valence-based signals for action selection. To empirically validate this possibility,
534 we first confirmed that amygdala modulation related to behavioral control in both tACS-phase
535 conditions (anti-phase: Spearman's $\rho_{(47)} = -0.30$, $p = 0.0400$; in-phase: Spearman's $\rho_{(47)} = -0.32$, $p = 0.0277$), **Fig. 4A**. We then conducted exploratory analyses to test whether this coupling varied
536 with target engagement across phases. The coupling between amygdala modulation and
537 behavioral control varied with target engagement differently across tACS-phase conditions (three-

539 way interaction: $b = 0.34$, 95% CI [0.03, 0.64], $F_{(1, 78)} = 4.63$, $p = 0.0330$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.06$), **Fig. 4B**. In-
540 phase stimulation showed a significant amygdala \times engagement interaction ($b = 0.29$, 95% CI
541 [0.04, 0.54], $F_{(1, 45)} = 5.19$, $p = 0.0240$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.11$), such that the relationship between amygdala
542 modulation and behavioral control weakened as target engagement increased. Phase differences
543 in slope strength increased systematically across engagement levels: at low (-1 SD) and mean
544 engagement, slopes did not differ between conditions (low: $p = 0.4694$; mean: $p = 0.1930$);
545 whereas at high engagement (+1 SD), slopes diverged significantly ($b = -0.53$, $t_{(78)} = -2.37$, $p =$
546 0.0188). Thus, we find the largest effect in individuals showing strongest tACS target engagement.
547 As expected, anti-phase stimulation showed no such modulation by engagement; the relationship
548 between amygdala modulation and behavioral control remained stable across all target
549 engagement levels ($b = -0.03$, $F_{(1, 45)} = 0.32$, $p = 0.5723$). These findings indicate that in-phase
550 tACS facilitation of dIPFC-SMC coupling may reduce amygdala influence on action selection by
551 strengthening goal-directed cortical control rather than enhancing direct dIPFC regulation of the
552 amygdala.

553

554 **Gender does not explain shift in FPI vs. dIPFC recruitment for emotion control**

555 Given that the current study sample includes both females and males (f/m: 38/11), whereas our
556 previous study included only male participants (Bramson et al., 2020a), we assessed potential
557 gender-related differences in recruitment of FPI vs. dIPFC during emotional action control. This
558 analysis revealed no significant interaction (Region \times Gender: $F_{(1, 47)} = 0.89$, $p = 0.3501$), providing
559 no evidence for gender-related differences in FPI vs. dIPFC recruitment. This finding is consistent
560 with previous research using a similar approach-avoidance task in a mixed-gender sample (f/m:
561 26/21), which also found no gender differences in FPI engagement during emotional control
562 (Tyborowska et al., 2016). Together, these results suggest that the observed differences in IPFC
563 subregion recruitment are more likely attributable to individual differences in anxiety rather than
564 gender.

566

567 This study demonstrates that in-phase dual-site tACS, targeted at facilitating endogenous theta-
568 gamma phase-amplitude coupling between IPFC and SMC, enhances control over emotional
569 action tendencies in highly socially anxious individuals. The main finding is that dual-site tACS
570 effects, previously reported to improve control over automatic approach-avoidance tendencies in
571 non-anxious participants (Bramson et al., 2020a), generalize to a clinically relevant population with
572 altered control over daily-life social-emotional behavior (LSAS ≥ 30) (Mennin et al., 2002; Roelofs
573 et al., 2009b; van Peer et al., 2009). Furthermore, this study shows that the dual-site tACS
574 intervention in high-anxious males and females evokes effects in a different prefrontal territory
575 (dIPFC) than in non-anxious males (FPI) (Bramson et al., 2020a). This observation fits the recently
576 reported shift in the prefrontal circuit implementing emotional action control from FPI (non-anxious
577 participants) to dIPFC (high-anxious participants) (Bramson et al., 2023). The current study
578 demonstrates the possibility of improving emotional action control using dual-site tACS in high-
579 anxious individuals via the facilitation of endogenous long-range phase-amplitude coupling. This
580 finding extends our mechanistic understanding of approach-avoidance control in social anxiety and
581 introduces rhythmic synchronization between dIPFC and SMC as a novel therapeutic tool.

582

583 **dIPFC-SMC phase-amplitude coupling supports emotional action control in social anxiety**

584 This dual-site tACS intervention builds on prior studies that have demonstrated the significance of
585 endogenous IPFC-SMC theta-gamma coupling in controlling automatic emotional action
586 tendencies and in facilitating the implementation of alternative goal-directed actions (Bramson et
587 al., 2018, 2020a). In this study, in-phase dual-site tACS could enhance interregional
588 synchronization of neuronal excitability periods, biasing action selection in SMC according to
589 valence-incongruent action goals in dIPFC (Voytek et al., 2015; Bramson et al., 2018; Weber et
590 al., 2024). In one important detail, this putative mechanism differs from what has been observed
591 in healthy individuals, where prefrontal control emerged from FPI (Bramson et al., 2020a) rather
592 than dIPFC (this study). This difference is important for understanding the scope and the
593 mechanism of the dual-site tACS intervention in social anxiety. Namely, FPI is a region that can
594 flexibly integrate valence signals with approach-avoid action selection, allowing FPI to orchestrate
595 goal-directed control over automatic emotional action tendencies (Bramson et al., 2020b; Lapate
596 et al., 2022). However, FPI is overexcitable in high-anxious individuals (Bramson et al., 2023), and
597 the evidence suggests dIPFC compensates for FPI when control over emotional actions is required
598 (Bramson et al., 2023; Zhuang et al., 2025). In contrast with integrated valence-action goal
599 representations observed in FPI, action goal representations in dIPFC are not modulated by

600 valence (Lapate et al., 2022), consistent with relatively sparse mono-synaptic connections from
601 amygdala to dlPFC (Petrides and Pandya, 1999; Folloni et al., 2019). In fact, dlPFC engagement
602 could dampen amygdala processing via strong indirect projections to the ventromedial subgenual
603 cingulate area 25 (Joyce et al., 2020, 2023), thereby providing a candidate mechanism for gating
604 the contribution of emotional afferences to cognitive control (Berboth and Morawetz, 2021). Thus,
605 the dlPFC can implement rule-based actions with minimal interference from emotional valence
606 signals even in high anxiety, when emotional signals would saturate an already overexcitable FPI
607 (Bramson et al., 2023). However, this may come at a cost: dlPFC-based emotional action control
608 might be limited when emotional challenges co-occur with demands for cognitive control, e.g.
609 during real-life situations. Accordingly, high-anxious individuals show reduced dlPFC efficiency
610 during cognitive control compared to non-anxious individuals (Eysenck et al., 2022). It remains to
611 be seen whether dual-site tACS in socially-anxious individuals can enhance dlPFC coordination
612 with SMC and remain behaviorally effective even in the presence of multiple cognitive control
613 demands.

614

615 **tACS target engagement in dlPFC scales with trait anxiety**

616 The current study shows that the application of in-phase dual-site tACS results in behavioral effects
617 proportional to BOLD signal evoked over dlPFC across tACS conditions, i.e., dependent on local
618 target engagement. We also observe that individuals with higher trait anxiety exhibit more robust
619 dlPFC responses to the tACS intervention. This finding corresponds to the observation that trait
620 anxiety is associated with an anatomical shift of prefrontal emotional action control, from FPI to
621 dlPFC (Bramson et al., 2023; Zhuang et al., 2025). The link between tACS response and trait
622 anxiety signals that sub-optimal endogenous synchronization could underlie reduced emotion
623 control performance in anxiety. Namely, the most robust effects of tACS are expected when weak
624 endogenous oscillations can be facilitated (Krause et al., 2022), and in-phase dual-site tACS is
625 expected to improve long-range communication by reducing noise within hypo-synchronized
626 circuits (Wischnewski et al., 2023). Specifically, we suggest that trait anxiety might index individual
627 levels of neural noise within the dlPFC-SMC circuit during emotional action control, a prediction
628 that could be tested by measuring electrophysiological activity during emotional action control in
629 high-anxious individuals (Bramson et al., 2018). This distinction may be important for clinical
630 translation, as it suggests that direct neural readouts (e.g., concurrent fMRI or electrophysiology)
631 currently provide a more specific proxy for stimulation engagement than trait measures alone.

632

633 **Interpretational issues and future directions**

634 It could be argued that the current findings are limited by the lack of electrophysiological
635 observations of the consequences of tACS. In fact, the manipulation of dual-site tACS phase angle
636 (in-phase *versus* anti-phase) enables us to relate the tACS effects to phase-specific changes in
637 long-range phase-amplitude coupling, and exclude general changes in IPFC or SMC excitability.
638 The phase manipulation provides the additional benefit of fully matching peripheral effects between
639 in-phase and anti-phase stimulation, thereby ruling out alternative explanations related to
640 transcutaneous entrainment or retinal stimulation (Schutter, 2016; Asamoah et al., 2019).

641

642 Our findings suggest that in-phase tACS reduces amygdala influence on action selection
643 through network-level competition rather than direct prefrontal-amygdala modulation. We found no
644 phase-dependent differences in dlPFC-amygdala functional connectivity, ruling out enhanced top-
645 down regulation as the mechanism. Instead, the relationship between amygdala modulation and
646 behavioral control weakened specifically as target engagement increased during in-phase—but
647 not anti-phase—stimulation. This pattern indicates that enhanced dlPFC-SMC coupling
648 strengthens goal-directed cortical control pathways that compete with amygdala-driven action
649 tendencies at the level of motor output (Bramson et al., 2023). Future dedicated studies could test
650 the changes in effective connectivity across the dlPFC-SMC-amygdala circuit as a function of
651 cortical state.

652

653 In this study, phase-specific dual-site tACS improvements in emotional action control are
654 related to target engagement, an indication of high inter-individual variation in the effects of dual-
655 site tACS on emotional action control. This variation makes the tACS effects physiologically
656 plausible, since tACS effects depends on the electric field induced in the brain (Krause et al., 2019;
657 Johnson et al., 2020) and on the interaction with ongoing endogenous oscillations (Krause et al.,
658 2022). Future studies could use individualized current flow models to optimize stimulation protocols
659 and enhance targeting accuracy to achieve more consistent tACS effects (Grover et al., 2023).
660 However, these models do not capture state-dependent effects in the neural response to
661 stimulation (Bradley et al., 2022), which could be particularly relevant for translational efforts in
662 which the neural mechanisms underlying the disorder are not fully understood. Inter-individual
663 variation in tACS efficacy can be exploited to identify factors that could maximize intervention
664 response, in particular when used to enhance the effectiveness of existing treatments. This can
665 include improving the ability to control emotional behavior during exposure therapy to confront
666 threatening situations and temporarily interrupt the cycle of persistent avoidance.

667

668 **CONCLUSION**

669

670 Building non-invasive neuromodulation interventions that facilitate cognitive function presents a
671 major neuroscientific challenge due to the need to identify and enhance the underlying
672 endogenous neural dynamics. Translating mechanistically informed neuromodulation
673 interventions from healthy individuals to clinical populations poses a further challenge due to an
674 incomplete understanding of the neural mechanisms underlying psychiatric disorders. Here, we
675 successfully translate a mechanistically informed dual-site tACS intervention (Bramson et al.,
676 2018, 2020a) to a clinically relevant high-anxiety population that shows impairments in daily-life
677 social-emotional behavior. The findings highlight the advantage of combining cognitive
678 neuromodulation interventions with neuroimaging during the early stages of clinical translation.
679 The advantage of this multi-modal approach is that it offers a better understanding of the
680 intervention mechanism, leading to a more precise characterization of inter-individual variation in
681 intervention response. The results provide insights into the role of phase-amplitude coupling
682 between IPFC and SMC in emotion control over social approach-avoidance behavior and
683 contribute to developing targeted clinical interventions for anxiety.

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- 887

888 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

889

890 **Figure 1. Behavioral and BOLD fMRI effects related to control over emotional action**
891 **tendencies. (A) Sample distribution of self-reported Liebowitz Social Anxiety Scale (LSAS)**
892 **scores.** The black dashed line marks an LSAS score of 30, used to select socially anxious
893 participants. This cut-off balances specificity and sensitivity in detecting heightened social anxiety
894 (Mennin et al., 2002). **(B) Conceptual visualization of the approach-avoidance task performed**
895 **during concurrent dual-site tACS and fMRI.** In affect-congruent conditions, participants were
896 instructed to pull the joystick towards them in response to a happy face and push it away from
897 them in response to an angry face. In contrast, the affect-incongruent condition requires
898 participants to override automatic emotional action tendencies to avoid angry and approach happy
899 faces. Therefore, in this condition, participants were instructed to pull the joystick towards them in
900 response to an angry face and push it away in response to a happy face. **(C) Behavioral**
901 **congruency-effects in the baseline sham stimulation condition of the task.** Participants made
902 more errors when overriding their automatic emotional action tendencies in the affect-incongruent
903 condition (orange circles) as compared to making affect-congruent responses (blue circles). Black-
904 filled diamonds represent mean values, and standard errors of the mean are shown with black
905 lines. **(D) Task-fMRI congruency-related effects across tACS stimulation conditions**
906 **(incongruent > congruent; cluster-level inferences corrected for multiple comparisons).** Stronger
907 BOLD signals were observed in prefrontal- and parietal areas when automatic emotional action
908 tendencies needed to be overridden, while amygdala-hippocampal and medial-orbitofrontal areas
909 showed weaker BOLD signals.

910

911 **Figure 2. Dual-site phase-amplitude coupled tACS modulates endogenous inter-regional**
912 **coupling between stimulation targets. (A) Modeled current density distribution at cortical**
913 **targets.** Two sets of concentric ring electrodes were placed over the right IPFC and left SMC. The
914 current density model shows the spatial distribution of the electric field magnitude evoked by the
915 high-definition montage at both cortical targets. **(B) Dual-site phase-locked tACS**
916 **manipulations.** The stimulation conditions underwent a pseudo-random alternation throughout
917 the experiment between active in-phase tACS (green), active control anti-phase tACS (brown),
918 and baseline sham (black). Specifically, 75 Hz stimulation was administered over the SMC and its
919 amplitude modulated by the phase of a 6 Hz stimulation over the IPFC. Modulation was either in-
920 phase or anti-phase with the peaks of the 6 Hz IPFC stimulation. While both in-phase and anti-
921 phase tACS may influence local target excitability, in-phase tACS is specifically designed to
922 enhance endogenous phase-amplitude coupling between the dIPFC and SMC, a mechanism

923 associated with successful emotional action control (Bramson et al., 2018, 2020a). The baseline
924 sham condition involved a brief 10-second initial stimulation that was discontinued before the start
925 of the first trial. **(C) tACS-phase effect on congruency-related dIPFC-SMC coupling.** In-phase
926 vs. anti-phase tACS selectively increased congruency-related functional coupling between dIPFC
927 (seed) and SMC (target) stimulation areas (in-phase > anti-phase * incongruent > congruent),
928 confirming the effectiveness of the tACS-phase manipulation in modulating inter-regional
929 functional connectivity supporting emotional action control.

930

931 **Figure 3. Phase- and target engagement-specific effects of dual-site tACS on emotional**
932 **action control in social anxiety. (A) In-phase tACS facilitation of emotional action control is**
933 **engagement dependent.** Participants who exhibited stronger inhibitory theta-band stimulation
934 responses in dIPFC, as evidenced by a decrease in BOLD signal (Scheeringa et al., 2011;
935 Bramson et al., 2020a), demonstrated improved control over emotional actions (i.e., a reduced
936 congruency effect) during in-phase tACS (green) compared to anti-phase tACS (brown). Black
937 lines represent the fitted linear trend, with the shaded area indicating the associated 95%
938 confidence interval. **(B) tACS-engagement scales with trait anxiety.** Concurrent tACS-fMRI
939 BOLD signal changes across the in-phase and anti-phase tACS conditions (tACS engagement:
940 tACS > sham) correlated with trait anxiety, indicating a stronger inhibitory dIPFC response in
941 individuals with higher trait anxiety levels. To illustrate this relationship, we included a scatterplot
942 depicting the association between trait anxiety scores and tACS-engagement values extracted
943 from the maximum Z-value location within dIPFC. **(C) In-phase tACS improves general**
944 **behavioral performance independent of tACS engagement.** In-phase (green panel) vs. anti-
945 phase tACS (brown panel) selectively enhanced response accuracy across congruent (blue) and
946 incongruent (orange) conditions compared to sham. Bar plots represent mean and standard error
947 of the mean for each condition, with individual participant means indicated by grey dots. **(D) In-**
948 **phase tACS of dIPFC-SMC coupling modulates amygdala contribution to valence-based**
949 **action selection independent of tACS engagement.** Left: In the in-phase tACS condition, the
950 right amygdala exhibited negative congruency-related BOLD signal (incongruent > congruent;
951 cluster-level inferences corrected for multiple comparisons). White outlines indicate the anatomical
952 bilateral amygdala mask used for extracting beta parameter estimates. Right: In-phase tACS
953 (green panel) increased congruency-related amygdala modulation compared to anti-phase tACS
954 (brown panel).

955

956 **Figure 4. In-phase tACS may reduce amygdala influence on action selection through**
957 **enhanced goal-directed cortical control. (A) Amygdala modulation relates to behavioral**

958 **control in both tACS-phase conditions.** Relationship between amygdala congruency-related
959 BOLD modulation (incongruent > congruent) and behavioral congruency effect (error rate:
960 incongruent - congruent) for anti-phase (brown, left panel) and in-phase (green, right panel) tACS
961 conditions. Negative correlations indicate that stronger amygdala modulation associates with
962 better control over emotional action tendencies in both conditions (anti-phase: Spearman's $\rho_{(47)} =$
963 -0.30 , $p = 0.0400$; in-phase: Spearman's $\rho_{(47)} = -0.32$, $p = 0.0277$). Lines represent fitted linear
964 trends with 95% confidence intervals shown as shaded areas. **(B) Target engagement**
965 **modulates the amygdala-behavior relationship during in-phase but not anti-phase tACS.**
966 Coupling between amygdala modulation and behavioral control varies as a function of target
967 engagement (dlPFC BOLD response to tACS) across low (-1 SD), mean, and high (+1 SD)
968 engagement levels. In-phase tACS (green lines) shows systematic weakening of the amygdala-
969 behavior coupling as target engagement increases, with phase differences between conditions
970 most pronounced at high engagement ($b = -0.53$, $t_{(78)} = -2.37$, $p = 0.0188$). In contrast, anti-phase
971 tACS (brown lines) shows stable amygdala-behavior coupling across all engagement levels. Lines
972 represent predicted slopes from the mixed-effects model, with shaded areas indicating 95% CIs.

973

974 **TABLE LEGEND**

975

976 **Table 1.** *Group-level effects in the whole-brain BOLD-GLM analysis were assessed using FSL's*
977 *FLAME 1 mixed-effects model with automatic outlier de-weighting. Cluster-level inferences were*
978 *family-wise error-corrected, applying a cluster-forming threshold of $|Z| > 2.3$ and $p < 0.05$.*

979

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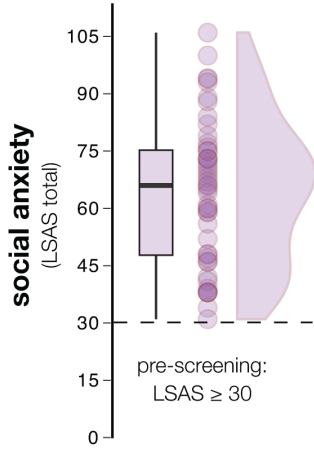
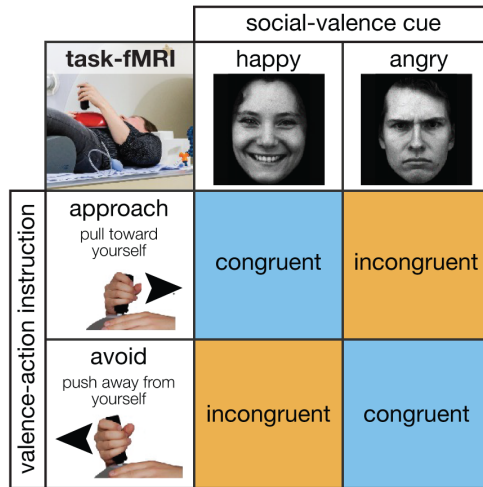
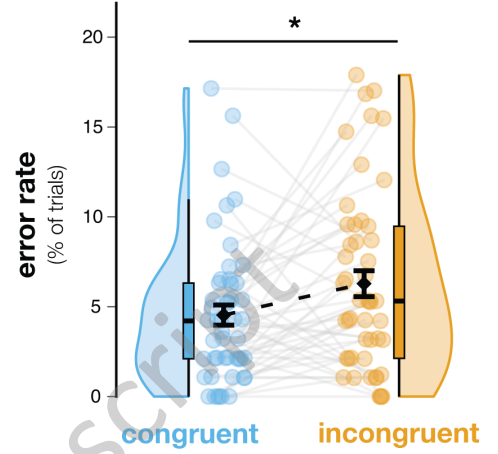
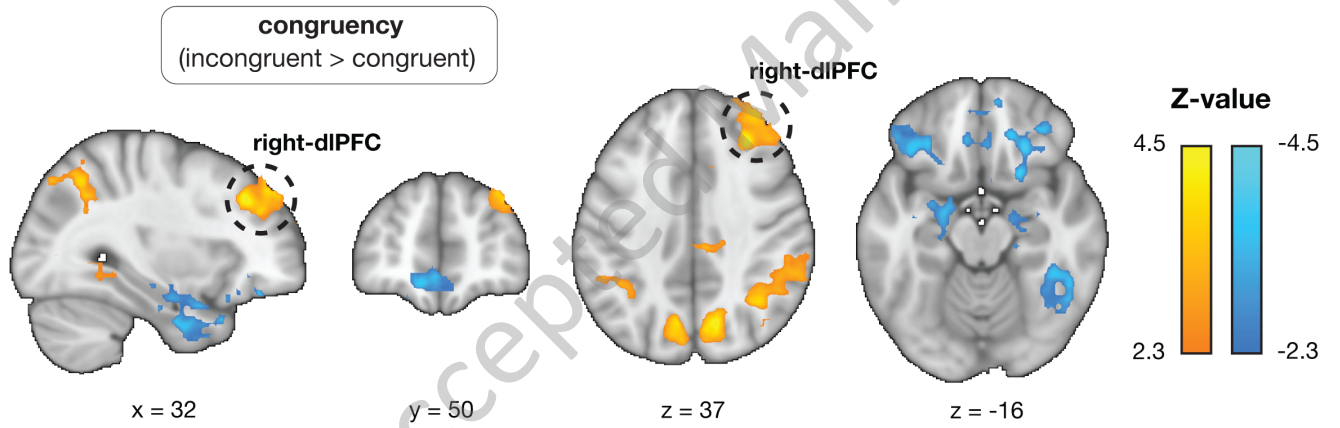
		Harvard-Oxford structural atlas	cluster	MNI			correcte	
contrast	#	brain region	size	peak	coordinates	max.	d	
			voxels	x	y	z	<i>Z</i> -value	<i>p</i>
<i>incongruent</i> > <i>congruent</i>	1	precuneus, middle temporal gyrus, supramarginal gyrus, angular gyrus, posterior cingulate gyrus, cuneal cortex, lateral occipital cortex, superior parietal lobule, left precentral gyrus, left postcentral gyrus	7059	14	-70	36	5.03	3.43e-27
	2	right frontal pole, right middle frontal gyrus	1099	30	36	38	4.61	7.15e-07
	3	lingual gyrus, right intracalcarine cortex, right temporal occipital fusiform cortex, right precuneus cortex	814	16	-74	-4	3.70	2.22e-05
	4	right paracingulate gyrus, right anterior cingulate gyrus	326	8	32	28	3.71	0.027
<i>congruent</i> > <i>incongruent</i>	1	left temporal pole, left amygdala, left hippocampus, left anterior parahippocampal gyrus, left temporal fusiform cortex	1376	-42	16	-36	4.86	5.96e-08
	2	right amygdala,	1028	38	-4	-20	3.98	1.61e-06

	right hippocampus,						
	right anterior parahippocampal gyrus,						
	right temporal pole,						
	right subcallosal cortex,						
	right temporal fusiform cortex						
3	frontal medial cortex, frontal pole	642	-8	34	-14	3.99	0.000217
4	temporal occipital fusiform cortex, inferior temporal gyrus, lateral occipital cortex	515	40	-42	-18	4.16	0.00134
5	right frontal orbital cortex, right frontal pole	470	24	28	-14	4.06	0.00264
6	left frontal orbital cortex, left frontal pole	470	-40	28	-14	4.05	0.00264

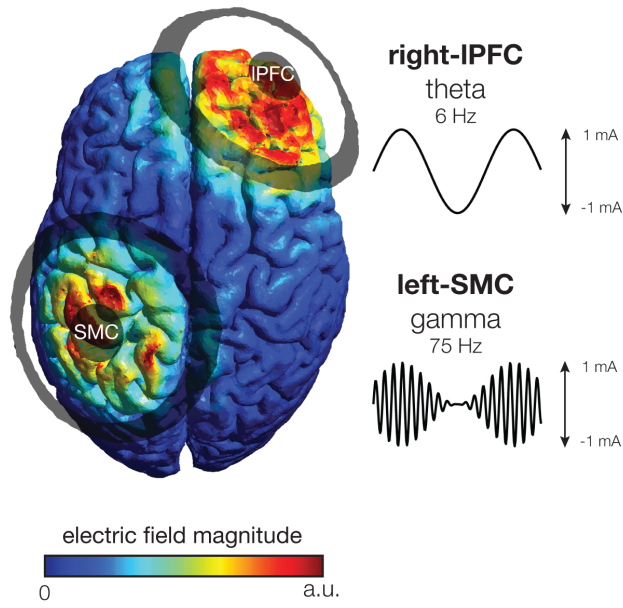
Table 1. Significant congruency-related whole-brain BOLD activation clusters.

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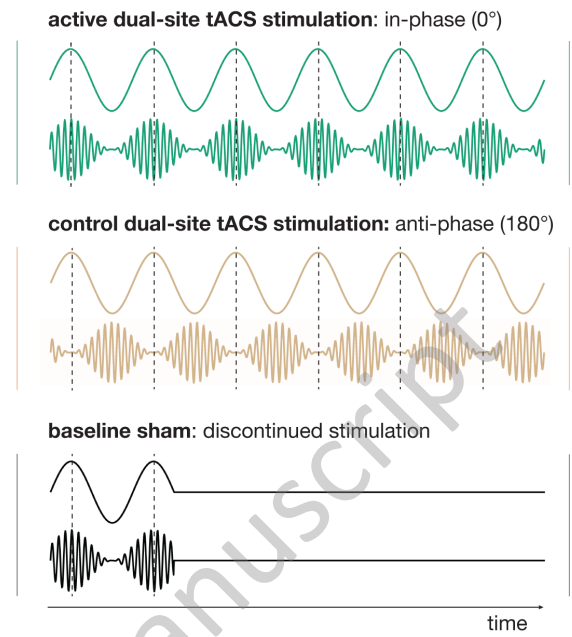
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A**B****C****D**

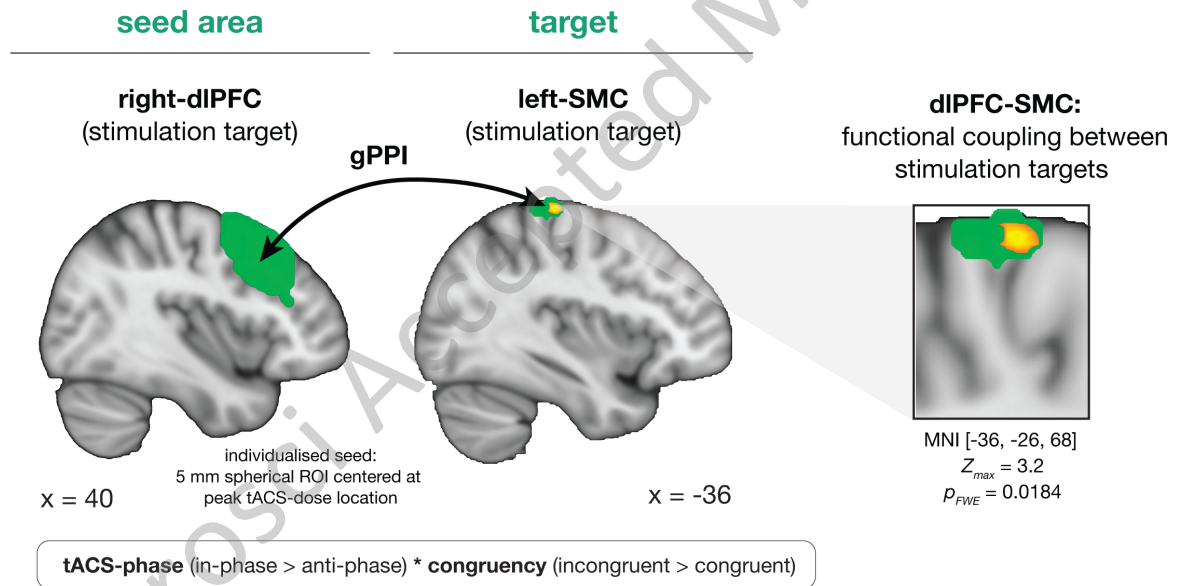
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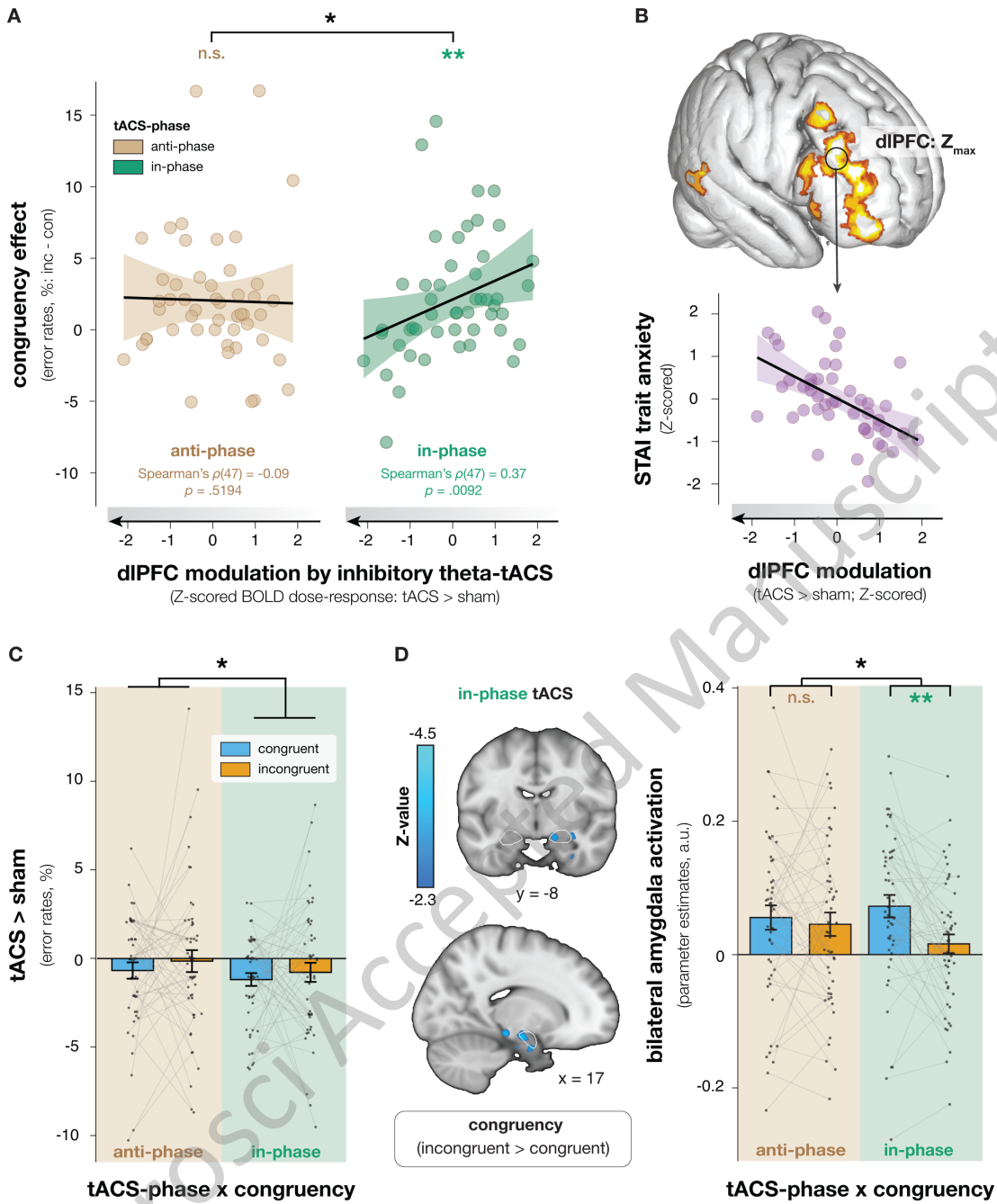


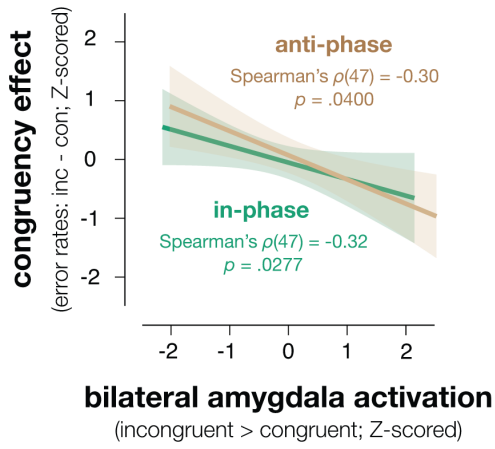
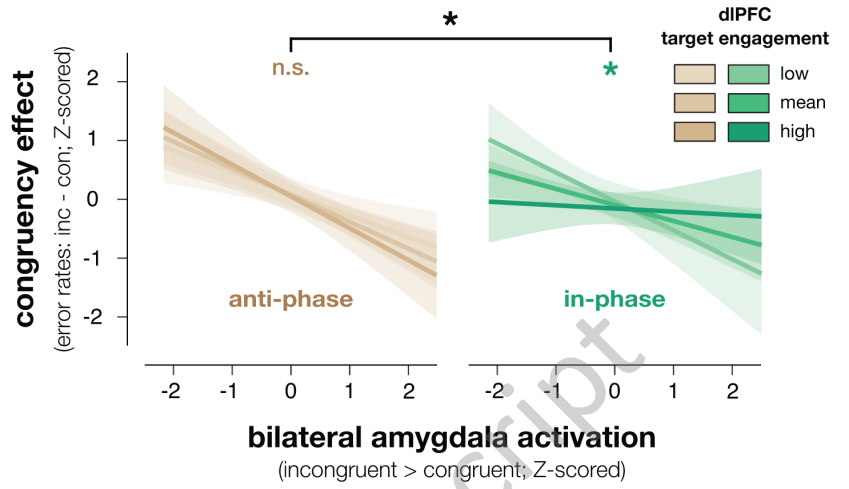
B



C





A**B**

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