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Perceived stress is associated with increased rostral middle frontal gyrus cortical thickness: A family-based and discordant-sibling investigation

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39 **Abstract**

40

41 **Background:** Elevated stress perception and depression commonly co-occur, suggesting that they  
42 share a common neurobiology. Cortical thickness of the rostral middle frontal gyrus (RMFG), a  
43 region critical for executive function, has been associated with depression- and stress-related  
44 phenotypes. Here, we examined whether RMFG cortical thickness is associated with these  
45 phenotypes in a large family-based community sample.

46 **Methods:** RMFG cortical thickness was estimated using FreeSurfer among participants (n=879)  
47 who completed the ongoing Human Connectome Project. Depression-related phenotypes (i.e.,  
48 sadness, positive affect) and perceived stress were assessed via self-report.

49 **Results:** After accounting for sex, age, ethnicity, average whole-brain cortical thickness, twin  
50 status, and familial structure, RMFG thickness was positively associated with perceived stress and  
51 sadness and negatively associated with positive affect at small effect sizes (accounting for 0.2-  
52 2.4% of variance; p-fdr: 0.0051–0.1900). Perceived stress was uniquely associated with RMFG  
53 thickness after accounting for depression-related phenotypes. Further, among siblings discordant  
54 for perceived stress, those reporting higher perceived stress had increased RMFG thickness  
55 ( $p=4 \times 10^{-7}$ ). Lastly, RMFG thickness, perceived stress, depressive symptoms, and positive affect  
56 were all significantly heritable with evidence of shared genetic and environmental contributions  
57 between self-report measures.

58 **Conclusions:** Stress perception and depression share common genetic, environmental, and neural  
59 correlates. Variability in RMFG cortical thickness may play a role in stress-related depression,  
60 though effects may be small in magnitude. Prospective studies are required to examine whether  
61 variability in RMFG thickness may function as a risk factor for stress exposure and/or perception,  
62 and/or arises as a consequence of these phenotypes.

## 63 **Introduction**

64 Convergent evidence suggests that stress plays a prominent etiologic role in depression. Both  
65 prospective and retrospective studies have shown that stressful life events often precede depression  
66 (Kendler et al. 1999; Hammen 2005), and non-human animal models have demonstrated that stress  
67 induces depressive-like behavior (Lee et al. 2013; Zhu et al. 2014). Importantly, however, there is  
68 vast variability in how individuals respond to stressors. For instance, perceived stress, or the extent  
69 that one perceives situations in their life to be stressful, unpredictable, uncontrollable, and  
70 unmanageable, is associated with the development of depressive symptoms, including elevations  
71 in negative affect and reductions in positive affect following stress exposure (Morris et al. 2014;  
72 Oni et al. 2012; Dunkley et al. 2017). Further, consistent with converging evidence that stress may  
73 induce anhedonia (e.g., Pizzagalli 2014; Bogdan & Pizzagalli 2006), perceived stress is also  
74 coupled with reduced behavioral reward learning and positive affect, as well as elevated anhedonia  
75 (Pizzagalli et al. 2007; Bogdan, Pringle, Goetz & Pizzagalli 2012; Dunkley et al. 2017).

76 Twin studies showing that the association between stress perception and depression is  
77 primarily attributable to shared genetic and individual-specific environmental factors suggest that  
78 perceived stress and depression may share a common neurobiological basis (Bogdan & Pizzagalli  
79 2009; Rietschel et al. 2014). In addition to well-documented associations between amygdala and  
80 hippocampal structure among both individuals exposed to stressful life events (Morey et al. 2012;  
81 Tottenham & Sheridan 2009; Corbo et al. 2014) and those with depressive symptoms (Whalen et  
82 al. 2002; Treadway et al. 2014; Rosso et al. 2005; Campbell & MacQueen 2004), recent work has  
83 linked rostral middle frontal gyrus (RMFG) cortical thickness to both depression and stress.  
84 Specifically, when compared to healthy controls, depressed adolescents and adults with remitted  
85 depression have increased cortical thickness within the rostral middle frontal gyrus (RMFG;

86 Phillips et al. 2015; Reynolds et al. 2014). However, both thicker (Qiu et al. 2014) and thinner  
87 (Peng et al. 2015) RMFG<sup>1</sup> have been observed among adults experiencing their first depressive  
88 episode. Consistent with these mixed findings, stress-related phenotypes, including posttraumatic  
89 stress disorder and circulating cortisol, have also been linked to both relatively thicker (Qiu et al.  
90 2014; Reynolds et al. 2014; Lyoo et al. 2011) and thinner (Van Eijndhoven et al. 2013) RMFG.  
91 Because the RMFG is critical for higher-order executive functions related to stress perception and  
92 appraisal, including attention, working memory, planning, executive cognition, and emotion  
93 regulation (Koenigs & Grafman 2009; Miller & Cohen 2001; Phillips et al. 2003), it may confer  
94 vulnerability to depression and negative stress-related outcomes, in part through associations with  
95 perceived stress.

96         The current study examined whether RMFG cortical thickness is associated with  
97 depression-related phenotypes (i.e., sadness, positive affect) and perceived stress within a non-  
98 clinical sample of individuals who completed the ongoing family-based Human Connectome  
99 Project (n=879). We examined cortical thickness, as opposed to surface area and gray-matter  
100 volume, due to evidence that these phenotypes have separable genetic influence (Winkler et al.  
101 2010), as well as emergent literature linking indices of RMFG cortical thickness to depression and  
102 stress-related phenotypes. Because both depression and stress-related phenotypes have been  
103 associated with increased (Qiu et al. 2014; Reynolds et al. 2014; Lyoo et al. 2011) and decreased  
104 (Peterson et al. 2009; Mackin et al. 2013) RMFG thickness, and associations with perceived stress  
105 have been unexplored, we made no directional hypotheses. We further examined whether  
106 associations between RMFG cortical thickness and stress perception remain after accounting for

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<sup>1</sup> For prior studies that report results in the DLPFC, but not in the RMFG specifically, we probed coordinates associated with the reported DLPFC ROI to certain whether they were within the Desikan-atlas-defined RMFG.

107 depression-related phenotypes and whether differences in RMFG cortical thickness are present  
108 among siblings discordant for perceived stress. These analyses can be used to evaluate support for  
109 potential sibling-shared predisposition (i.e., discordant siblings who do not differ) or causal (i.e.,  
110 discordant siblings differing) effects underlying associations. Additionally, to probe regional  
111 specificity, we evaluated whether cortical thickness in other prefrontal regions previously linked  
112 to depression [i.e., anterior cingulate (Reynolds et al. 2014; van Eijndhoven 2013)] are associated  
113 with depression-related phenotypes and perceived stress. Lastly, we estimated the heritability of  
114 RMFG cortical thickness, depression-related phenotypes, and perceived stress, as well as shared  
115 genetic and environmental covariation across these phenotypes when phenotypic correlations  
116 permitted. Understanding associations between depression and stress perception with RMFG  
117 cortical thickness may inform why these behavioral constructs co-occur and contribute to our  
118 etiologic understanding of depression to ultimately inform nosology and treatment.

119

## 120 **Methods**

### 121 **Participants**

122 Participants were drawn from the December 2015 public release of the Human Connectome  
123 Project (HCP; total n=970). The HCP is an ongoing, family-based study (2-6 siblings per family,  
124 with most families including a twin pair; projected final N=1,200) designed to explore individual  
125 differences in brain circuits and their relation to behavior and genetic background (Pagliaccio et  
126 al. 2014; Van Essen et al. 2013; Barch et al. 2013). All participants were 22-37 years of age and  
127 free of the following exclusionary criteria: preterm birth, neurodevelopmental, neuropsychiatric,  
128 or neurologic disorders; a full list of exclusions is available in a prior publication (Van Essen et al.  
129 2012). Participants were also excluded from analyses in the present study for missing or poor-

130 quality structural MRI data (n=73), missing questionnaire data (n=1), half-sibling status (n=11),  
131 or missing parent identity (n=6). This resulted in a final sample of 879 participants [mean age:  
132  $28.82 \pm 3.68$  years; 393 (43.9%) female; 597 (67.4%) European-American, 143 (16.2%) African-  
133 American, 44 (5.0%) Asian-American, and 73 (8.2%) Hispanic]. Of these participants, there were  
134 107 monozygotic twin pairs, 116 dizygotic twin pairs, 276 non-twin siblings [87 families with 2  
135 siblings, 20 families with 3 siblings, 8 families with 4 siblings, and 2 families with 5 siblings; none  
136 of these are twins, but there may be twin pairs in their family structure], and 157 individuals who  
137 were the only member of their family to provide usable data prior to this data release. There was  
138 an average of  $2.00 \pm 0.94$  with a maximum of 6 siblings per family. Mean age difference between  
139 siblings within families (twin and non-twin siblings) was  $2.81 \pm 2.56$  years for families with 2  
140 siblings;  $2.91 \pm 2.59$  years for families with 3 siblings;  $3.00 \pm 2.59$  years for families with 4 siblings;  
141  $3.01 \pm 2.58$  years for families with 5 siblings; and  $3.02 \pm 2.57$  years for families with 6 siblings. Each  
142 participant provided informed written consent prior to participation in accord with the guidelines  
143 of the Washington University in St Louis Institutional Review Board and received \$400  
144 remuneration, as well as additional winnings (\$5) and travel expenses.

145

### 146 **Self-Report Scales**

147 Perceived stress was assessed using the 10-item Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) from the NIH  
148 toolbox (NIH TB; [www.nihtoolbox.org](http://www.nihtoolbox.org); Gershon et al. 2013). The PSS (Cohen et al. 1988) is a  
149 commonly-used measure of stress perception that is heritable (Federenko et al. 2006; Bogdan &  
150 Pizzagalli 2009) and has been associated with stress hormones, illness, and physiological  
151 responses (Cohen et al. 1993; Ebrecht et al. 2004; Cohen & Janicki-Deverts 2012). Sadness was  
152 assessed using the NIH TB Sadness Survey, which is comprised of 27 items from a depression

153 item bank within the Patient Reported Outcome Measurement Information System (PROMIS) that  
154 shows strong convergent validity with other measures of depression (Pilkonis et al. 2014). Positive  
155 affect was assessed via 34 items from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule – Expanded Form  
156 [PANAS-X; (Crawford & Henry 2004)] measuring higher-order positive affect, or the extent to  
157 which an individual feels pleasurable engagement with the environment (Watson & Clark 1984).  
158 While positive affect is not a direct depressive symptom measure, low positive affect is similar to  
159 the concept of anhedonia (Crawford & Henry 2004) and has been reported to be specifically  
160 associated with depression (i.e., not anxiety; Jolly et al. 1994); furthermore, positive affect as  
161 measured by the PANAS is typically negatively correlated with measures of anhedonia (e.g.,  
162 Tuohy & McVey 2008).

163

#### 164 **Magnetic Resonance Imaging: Acquisition and Processing**

165 High resolution (0.7mm isotropic voxels) 3D anatomical images, both T1-weighted (MPRAGE)  
166 and T2-weighted (T2-SPACE), were acquired using a customized Siemens 3T scanner with a 32-  
167 channel head coil. HCP acquisition and preprocessing details have been previously described in  
168 detail (Glasser et al. 2013; Van Essen et al. 2012). Briefly, relevant steps for this study from the  
169 HCP processing pipeline within Freesurfer v5.3.0 included: 1) spline-based down-sampling of the  
170 0.7mm T1 image to 1 mm; 2) intensity normalization and Talairach transformation; 3) skull  
171 registration; 4) skull stripping; 5) subcortical segmentation; 6) creation of white and pial surfaces  
172 and their refinement using the full (0.7 mm) resolution data; 7) refinement of the pial surface using  
173 the T2-SPACE scan to help exclude CSF and dura; and 8) extraction of cortical thickness estimates  
174 for the RMFG from cortical parcellation that delineates subregions with high accuracy based on  
175 the Desikan atlas (see **Supplemental Figure 1**; Desikan et al. 2006).

## 176 **Statistical Analyses**

177           Data were winsorized to  $\pm 3$  SD from the mean of each variable to minimize the influence  
178 of extreme outliers. Sequential Oligogenetic Linkage Analysis Routines (SOLAR) software  
179 (<http://www.sfbr.org/sfbr/public/software/solar>) was used to conduct phenotypic association,  
180 heritability, and bivariate quantitative genetic analyses, while accounting for familial structure  
181 (Blangero & Almasy 1996). More specifically, to account for the non-independence of measures  
182 in related individuals, an individual's bivariate phenotypic association (e.g., between perceived  
183 stress and RMFG cortical thickness) was modeled as a linear function of the individual's measures  
184 and the kinship matrix coefficients for relationships among all pairs of individuals in their  
185 pedigree. In the Results section, Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR; Blakesley et al.  
186 2009) corrected p-values are reported for each analysis to account for multiple testing of initial  
187 hypotheses (i.e., associations between both right and left RMFG cortical thickness with sadness,  
188 positive affect and perceived stress). We further entered depression-related phenotypes and  
189 perceived stress in a simultaneous regression to examine whether any of these constructs had  
190 unique associations with RMFG cortical thickness.

191           Next, we examined whether same-sex twin and non-twin sibling pairs discordant for  
192 perceived stress differed from each other on RMFG cortical thickness. These analyses examined  
193 whether PSS was associated with RMFG cortical thickness after accounting for same-sex sibling-  
194 shared genetic background and experience. If siblings discordant for perceived stress do not differ  
195 from one another with respect to RMFG cortical thickness, this would provide support for potential  
196 sibling shared predisposition effects that contribute to the relationship between perceived stress  
197 and RMFG cortical thickness. If, however, perceived stress-discordant siblings do differ from one  
198 another on RMFG cortical thickness, this would provide evidence in support of a person-specific,



199 and potentially causal, relationship (i.e., factors unique to each sibling, that are present after  
200 accounting for sibling shared genetic and environment background) between perceived stress and  
201 RMFG cortical thickness. Siblings were considered discordant if one sibling was at least 0.5  
202 standard deviations above the sample mean for perceived stress (“high discordant”; PSS:  
203 55.95±5.62) while another was at least 0.5 standard deviations below (“low discordant”; PSS:  
204 39.61±5.15; mean  $\Delta SD_{\text{discordant pairs}} \pm SD = 1.22 \pm 0.98$ ). This resulted in 127 non-independent  
205 discordant pairings from 55 families with one sibling pair meeting criteria, as well as 33 families  
206 with two, three, or four sibling pairs meeting criteria. Discordancy analyses were conducted using  
207 linear mixed models using the Psych (Revelle 2015) and lme4 (Bates et al. 2015) packages in R to  
208 account for the multiple-sibling structure within families.

209         Additionally, we examined whether cortical thickness in other prefrontal regions  
210 previously linked to depression [rostral and caudal anterior cingulate (Reynolds et al. 2014; van  
211 Eijndhoven et al. 2013)] were associated with depression-related phenotypes or perceived stress.

212         Lastly, univariate heritability ( $h^2$ ) analyses were performed on bilateral RMFG thickness  
213 estimates, perceived stress, positive affect, and sadness. We examined contributions of overlapping  
214 genetic ( $\rho_g$ ) or individual-specific environmental ( $\rho_e$ ) factors within bivariate phenotypic  
215 associations that were stronger than  $\beta > |.20|$ , to ensure that effects were large enough to warrant  
216 variance decomposition within our relatively modest sample size.

217         All analyses accounted for effects of sex, age, ethnicity (i.e., dummy coded for White,  
218 Black, Asian, and Hispanic), and zygosity (i.e., MZ/not MZ; DZ/not DZ) and were run with and  
219 without extreme outliers (i.e., prior to and after winsorizing), which did not affect our results.  
220 Analyses of cortical thickness also accounted for whole-brain cortical thickness. Because left-  
221 handed participants were included in our dataset, we also ran analyses with handedness as an

222 additional covariate; results, including what was and was not significant with FDR correction,  
223 were unchanged by the inclusion of handedness in our models.

224

## 225 **Results**

### 226 *Sample Characteristics*

227 There were no significant zero-order associations between covariates (i.e., age, sex, zygosity,  
228 ethnicity) and bilateral RMFG thickness, depression-related phenotypes (i.e., positive affect,  
229 sadness), or perceived stress (all  $p_s > 0.3460$ ), with the exception of whole brain cortical thickness,  
230 which was positively correlated with left ( $r=0.1998$ ,  $p=2 \times 10^{-8}$ ) and right ( $r=0.2590$ ,  $p=3 \times 10^{-13}$ )  
231 RMFG cortical thickness. No variables showed evidence of significant skew (perceived stress:  
232  $m=48.30 \pm 9.11$ , skew=0.12; positive affect:  $m=50.04 \pm 7.87$ , skew=0.10; sadness:  $m=46.42 \pm 8.02$ ,  
233 skew=0.45; left RMFG thickness:  $m=2.57 \pm 0.12$ , skew=-0.33; right RMFG thickness:  
234  $m=2.59 \pm 0.11$ , skew=0.05).

235

### 236 *RMFG, Perceived Stress, and Depression-Related Phenotypes*

237 Bilateral RMFG cortical thickness was positively associated with perceived stress (*PSS*:  
238 left:  $\beta=0.1120$ ,  $r^2=0.0125$ ,  $p=0.0017$ ,  $p\text{-fdr}=0.0051$ ; right:  $\beta=0.1141$ ,  $r^2=0.0130$ ,  $p=0.0013$ ,  $p\text{-}$   
239  $\text{fdr}=0.0051$ ; **Figure 1A**) as well as sadness (left:  $\beta=0.0985$ ,  $r^2=0.0097$ ,  $p=0.0196$ ,  $p\text{-fdr}=0.0240$ ;  
240 right:  $\beta=0.0832$ ,  $r^2=0.0069$ ,  $p=0.0186$ ,  $p\text{-fdr}=0.0240$ ; **Figure 1B**). Positive affect was negatively  
241 coupled with left RMFG thickness ( $\beta=-0.0824$ ,  $r^2=0.0070$ ,  $p=0.0053$ ,  $p\text{-fdr}=0.0106$ ) but was not  
242 significantly related to right RMFG cortical thickness ( $\beta=-0.0463$ ,  $r^2=0.0021$ ,  $p=0.1900$ ,  $p\text{-}$   
243  $\text{fdr}=0.1900$ ; **Figure 1C**; see **Supplemental Table 1**). A simultaneous regression examined  
244 whether our variables of interest (i.e., perceived stress, sadness, positive affect) are uniquely

245 associated with variability in RMFG cortical thickness. In this model, perceived stress was  
246 uniquely associated with right RMFG cortical thickness (right:  $\beta=0.0828$ ,  $\Delta r^2=0.0069$ ,  $p=0.0190$ ;  
247 left:  $\beta=0.0604$ ,  $\Delta r^2=0.0036$ ,  $p=0.0868$ ), while associations with sadness and positive affect were  
248 not significant (all  $ps>0.3796$ ; **Supplemental Table 2**). Notably, other regions in which cortical  
249 thickness has been previously associated with depression (i.e., rostral and caudal anterior cingulate  
250 cortex) were not significantly associated with depression-related phenotypes or perceived stress  
251 (all  $ps>0.1180$ ; **Supplemental Table 3**).

252

### 253 *Perceived Stress Discordancy*

254 Because perceived stress remained a unique predictor of right RMFG cortical thickness, even after  
255 accounting for depression-related phenotypes, we examined whether same-sex siblings (including  
256 MZ and DZ twin pairs as well as non-twin sibling pairs) discordant for perceived stress (see  
257 **Methods**) differed from one another on RMFG cortical thickness. These analyses revealed that  
258 siblings who reported high perceived stress (i.e., PSS:  $55.95\pm 5.62$ ; see **Methods**) had increased  
259 right RMFG cortical thickness ( $2.6214\pm 0.11$ ) relative to their discordant (i.e., PSS:  $39.61\pm 5.15$ ;  
260 see **Methods**) sibling who reported low perceived stress [RMFG:  $2.5702\pm 0.10$ ; 95% bootstrapped  
261 confidence interval (CI):  $0.015 - 0.034$ ;  $p=4\times 10^{-7}$ ; **Figure 2**]. Significant results are also obtained  
262 when examining left RMFG cortical thickness (95% CI:  $0.021 - 0.042$ ;  $p=7.9\times 10^{-9}$ ).

263

### 264 *Heritability and Sources of Variance and Covariance*

265 Heritability estimates ranged from 22.44% (for sadness) to 71.34% (for right RMFG thickness;  
266 **Figure 3**). Briefly, bilateral RMFG cortical thickness, perceived stress, sadness, and positive affect  
267 were all significantly heritable. Bivariate genetic analyses revealed significant genetic and

268 environmental correlations among self-report variables and between right and left RMFG cortical  
269 thickness (**Table 1**). In short, all bivariate relationships among self-report variables had significant  
270 shared genetic and environmental contributions, with shared genetic effects being largest. Because  
271 the strength of association between RMFG cortical thickness and self-report measures was small  
272 (i.e.,  $\beta < |.20|$ ), decomposition analyses were not conducted among these variables.

273

## 274 **Discussion**

275 We examined associations among depression-related phenotypes (i.e., sadness, positive affect),  
276 perceived stress, and RMFG cortical thickness. We found that bilateral RMFG cortical thickness  
277 was positively associated with sadness and perceived stress and that left RMFG thickness was  
278 negatively associated with positive affect, though at relatively small effect sizes. Further, among  
279 siblings discordant for perceived stress, those with relatively high levels had thicker RMFG cortex.  
280 This suggests that the association between RMFG thickness and perceived stress remains after  
281 accounting for sibling-shared genetic background and experience, providing support for potential  
282 causation. Consistent with prior literature, depression-related phenotypes (Sullivan, Neale &  
283 Kendler 2000) and stress perception (Bogdan & Pizzagalli 2009; Federenko et al. 2006) were  
284 significantly heritable, and much like heritability estimates of average cortical thickness across the  
285 entire brain (Panizzon et al. 2009), RMFG cortical thickness was highly heritable. Further, we  
286 found that the correlation between self-report measures of depression-related phenotypes (i.e.,  
287 sadness and low positive affect) and perceived stress is due to shared genetic and environmental  
288 factors, while the correlation between cortical thickness estimates across hemispheres can be  
289 attributed primarily to shared genetic influence. Collectively, these data suggest that perceived  
290 stress and depression-related phenotypes share common genetic, environmental, and neural

291 correlates, and that relatively increased RMFG cortical thickness may contribute to stress-related  
292 depressive symptomology.

293         Our results linking increased RMFG cortical thickness with depression-related phenotypes  
294 and perceived stress in a non-clinical sample are consistent with observations among depressed  
295 youth (Reynolds et al. 2014), adults experiencing their first depressive episode (Qiu et al. 2014;  
296 but see also: Peng et al. 2015), and trauma-exposed individuals (Lyoo et al. 2011). As the RMFG  
297 is involved in a host of executive functions – including mood and behavior regulation (Koenigs &  
298 Grafman 2009; Miller & Cohen 2001) – that are impaired in depression (Murrough et al. 2011),  
299 our findings bolster the putative role of RMFG structure in depression-related phenotypes.  
300 However, these results contrast with reports that unaffected individuals at familial risk for  
301 depression (Peterson et al. 2009) and those experiencing depression in later life (Mackin et al.  
302 2013) have relatively thinner RMFG. Importantly, however, controlling for illness duration seems  
303 to abolish some significant structural differences between early- and late-onset depressed patients  
304 (Truong et al. 2013). One possibility that may explain these discrepant results is that increased  
305 cortical thickness is associated with first or early episodes of depression as well as non-clinical  
306 levels of depression and stress perception, which may transition to decreases in cortical thickness  
307 over time alongside the expression of recurrent depressive symptoms and/or stress generation (Liu  
308 & Alloy, 2010; Kendler & Gardner 2016). Notably, cortical thickness in other prefrontal regions  
309 previously associated with depression and/or stress exposure (i.e., rostral and caudal anterior  
310 cingulate cortex) showed no nominally-significant associations with depression-related  
311 phenotypes or perceived stress in our study (all  $ps > 0.118$ ). While the lack of significance here may  
312 reflect specific relationships between RMFG cortical thickness, depression, and perceived stress,

313 it is also possible that our general population sample was underpowered to detect differences in  
314 these other regions.

315         Due to its cross-sectional nature, the current study cannot inform whether individual  
316 differences in stress perception and depressive symptoms may precede and/or follow the  
317 associated differences in RMFG anatomical variability. However, based on prior literature, we can  
318 make some speculations. It is possible that stress exposure leads to elevations in perceived stress  
319 and depression-related phenotypes, as well as increased RMFG cortical thickness. Consistent with  
320 this proposition, increased RMFG thickness has been observed among disaster survivors following  
321 trauma exposure (i.e., after 1.42 years); additionally, greater thickness here predicted better  
322 recovery from PTSD, and thickness normalized (i.e., decreased) to the extent that symptoms  
323 remitted by five-year follow-up (Lyo et al. 2011). These results suggest trauma-dependent  
324 increases in RMFG cortical thickness, which resolve alongside psychological recovery. It is  
325 plausible that, within our sample, increased cortical thickness may reflect stress exposure and  
326 unresolved recovery, resulting in greater perceptions of stress as well as expression of depression-  
327 related phenotypes.

328         Alternatively, RMFG cortical thickness may serve as a preexisting vulnerability factor that  
329 influences stress perception and/or confers vulnerability to depression. In support of this  
330 explanation, increased DLPFC (including a region within the Desikan-atlas-defined RMFG ROI)  
331 gray-matter volume, a different structural metric than cortical thickness which was evaluated in  
332 our study, has been correlated with rumination, or the tendency to dwell repetitively on negative  
333 emotional experiences (Wang et al. 2015). Rumination is a key risk factor for depression that also  
334 mediates the relationship between chronic perceived stress and psychological health risk indicators  
335 (e.g., depressive symptoms and sleep quality; Zawadzki, 2015). The relatively high heritability

336 estimates of RMFG cortical thickness that we observe (Right RMFG: 71.34%; left RMFG:  
337 61.56%) are consistent with this notion. However, other findings contradict this interpretation.  
338 First, we observed relatively increased cortical thickness among those reporting elevated perceived  
339 stress relative to their discordant sibling. Thus, these data suggest that these differences arise from  
340 individual specific genetic and/or environmental effects, and that sibling shared genetic and  
341 environmental factors are not predisposing in this manner. Other evidence also contradicts this  
342 interpretation, as relatively decreased cortical thickness in the DLPFC (including within the  
343 RMFG) in adolescent females has been associated with decreased cognitive reappraisal, a form of  
344 emotion regulation (Vijayakumar et al. 2014), which has been correlated with reduced stress  
345 perception across stages of adulthood (Prakash et al. 2015).

346 Consistent with a large and established prior literature (e.g., Polderman et al. 2015),  
347 heritability analyses suggest that phenotypic variation in perceived stress, depression-related  
348 phenotypes, and bilateral RMFG cortical thickness is, in part, attributable to genetic factors. The  
349 relatively-high heritability estimates of bilateral RMFG cortical thickness (i.e., 61.56% - 71.34%)  
350 are at the upper end of heritability estimates in psychiatric phenotypes (Polderman et al. 2015) and  
351 consistent with estimates of average whole-brain cortical thickness (Panizzon et al. 2009). These  
352 findings suggest that RMFG cortical thickness may contribute to familial transmission of stress  
353 perception and depression risk. Furthermore, decomposition analyses suggest that the association  
354 between perceived stress and depression-related phenotypes is attributable to common sources  
355 environmental (e.g., perhaps stress) and genetic variation (e.g., perhaps brain structure; Bogdan &  
356 Pizzagalli 2009).

357 It is important to consider study limitations when interpreting the present results. First, the  
358 study is cross-sectional, leaving uncertain both the underlying temporal nature of associations and

359 their etiologic plausibility. Longitudinal work is needed to elucidate temporal effects, which would  
360 bolster confidence in the potential mechanisms underlying these associations (e.g., that perceived  
361 stress causes structural differences and/or that structural differences alter the perception of stress).  
362 Second, it is important to consider the limitations of large-scale studies assessing multiple  
363 phenotypes such as the HCP. To facilitate broad phenotypic coverage and large samples, such  
364 generalist studies are often unable to provide comprehensive within-phenotype assessment. For  
365 example, in our study, we were limited by the lack of an explicit anhedonia measure, and relied on  
366 a correlated measure of positive affect. Similarly, because the HCP did not measure trauma or  
367 stressful life event exposure, we are unable to ascertain whether associations between RMFG  
368 cortical thickness and perceived stress are attributable to heightened subjective perceptions of  
369 stress and/or heightened stress exposure that may lead to increased perception. Third, because this  
370 is a relatively healthy sample, it is unclear whether the results might generalize to clinical levels  
371 of depression and perceived stress. Indeed, such differences in sample makeup may underlie  
372 conflicting directional associations within the literature between RMFG cortical thickness and  
373 depression- and stress-related phenotypes (Reynolds et al. 2014; Peterson et al. 2009; Peng et al.  
374 2015).

375       Importantly, the association between RMFG cortical thickness and self-reported phenotypes  
376 – including depression-related phenotypes and perceived stress – were small in magnitude (0.2%-  
377 2.4% of variance explained), which prohibited our ability to evaluate shared genetic and  
378 environmental covariation across these phenotypes. One reason for these small effects may be our  
379 use of a relatively healthy community sample. Given prior reports linking both increased and  
380 decreased RMFG cortical thickness to depression and stress-related phenotypes, it is possible that  
381 heterogeneous presentations or correlates of depression and stress perception may have



382 oppositional associations with RMFG cortical thickness that reduced our observed effect size. The  
383 large effects observed in our discordant sibling analyses that account for unmeasured sibling  
384 shared factors support this speculation. Further, prior reports of larger associations (e.g., Reynolds  
385 et al. 2014) between RMFG cortical thickness and depression as well as stress-related phenotypes  
386 have been observed in smaller patient or trauma-exposed samples (e.g., Reynolds et al. 2014; Peng  
387 et al. 2015; Qiu et al. 2014; depressed patient n ranging from 16-46). Such small samples, when  
388 combined with publication bias, may result in imprecise and enlarged effect size estimates. For  
389 example, a recent meta-analysis including over 17,000 individuals with major depressive disorder  
390 found that the effect size of the association between hippocampal volume and depression is small  
391 (i.e., 0.5% of variance explained) and less than half of what was found in a prior meta-analysis  
392 drawn from fewer participants (n=351 patients; Schmaal et al. 2015; Videbech and Ravnkilde  
393 2004). While such observations suggest that small studies of patients may have led to  
394 overestimated effects between brain structure and illness, it is also important to consider that large  
395 meta-analyses may also result in more heterogeneous patient groupings that diminish effect sizes.

396       These limitations notwithstanding, our study suggests that relatively increased RMFG  
397 cortical thickness is a common neural substrate of stress perception and depression-related  
398 phenotypes that may promote depression/stress vulnerability and/or result from such experience.  
399 Though our results suggest that RMFG cortical thickness is positively coupled with both  
400 depression-related phenotypes and stress perception, the effect of this association is small and  
401 presently would not be informative on an individual level in isolation regarding treatment or risk  
402 assessment. Notably, however, our discordancy analyses of perceived stress suggest that this  
403 association cannot be attributed to sibling shared genetic factors and familial environment (and  
404 indeed becomes much larger when accounting for these factors), providing support for a potential

405 causal relationship between RMFG cortical thickness and perceived stress, though the  
406 directionality of causation cannot be determined.

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582

**583 Conflict of Interest**

584 None

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**586 Ethical Standards**

587 The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards  
588 of the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with the  
589 Helsinki Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2008.

590

591 **Table 1. Bivariate Variance Decomposition**

	Left RMFG Thickness			$\beta$	Sadness		$\beta$	Perceived Stress	
	$\beta$	$\rho_e$ (S.E.)	$\rho_g$ (S.E.)		$\rho_e$ (S.E.)	$\rho_g$ (S.E.)		$\rho_e$ (S.E.)	$\rho_g$ (S.E.)
<b>Right RMFG Thickness</b>	0.832	0.4390 (0.0626)	0.9971 (0.0164)	0.083	-	-	0.114	-	-
<b>Positive Affect</b>	0.082	-	-	-0.468	-0.3804 (0.0583)	-0.7526 (0.1486)	-0.484	-0.4655 (0.0561)	-0.5398 (0.1411)
<b>Sadness</b>	0.098	-	-	-	-	-	0.565	0.4564 (0.0566)	0.8639 (0.1130)
<b>Perceived Stress</b>	0.112	-	-	0.565	-	-	-	-	-

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593 Variance decomposition analyses were conducted for bivariate pairs that were phenotypically correlated at  $\beta > |.20|$ .594 Significant  $\rho_g$  and  $\rho_e$  estimates (all  $ps < 0.0065$ ) are listed above with standard error values in parentheses.

595



596 **Figure Legends**

597 **Figure 1. Bilateral RMFG thickness is associated with perceived stress, positive affect, and sadness.**

598 Graphs depict winsorized data points but do not represent covariate adjustment.

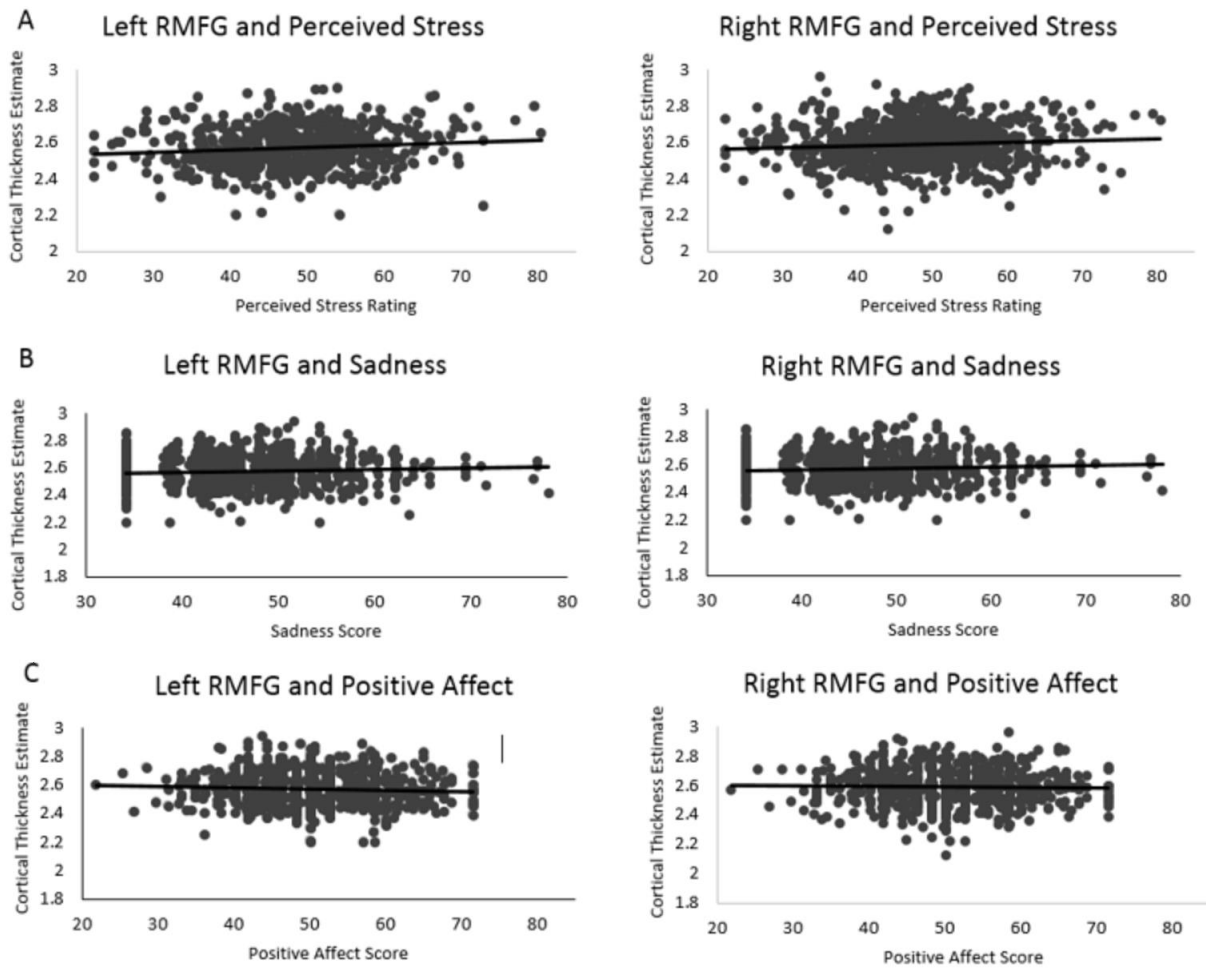
599 **Figure 2. RMFG Cortical Thickness Among Siblings Discordant for Perceived Stress.** Among sibling  
600 pairs discordant for perceived stress, those who reported relatively high levels ( $\geq 0.5$  standard deviation  
601 units above the mean) had thicker right RMFG relative to those reporting relatively low levels ( $\leq 0.5$   
602 standard deviation units below the mean;  $p=4 \times 10^{-7}$ ). Error bars depict standard error of the mean.

603 **Figure 3. Heritability of Phenotypes.** Heritability estimates: right RMFG thickness = 71.34%, left RMFG  
604 thickness = 61.56%, positive affect = 23.96%, sadness = 22.44%, perceived stress = 33.85%. \* = significant  
605 at  $p < 0.05$ . Household effects (i.e., living with the same biological mother) were used to test for  
606 shared/rearing environment and found to be nonsignificant ( $p > .05$  across all phenotypes). Thus, any  
607 remaining variance can be attributed to individual specific environmental factors or error.

608 **Supplemental Figure 1. Desikan Atlas ROIs.** The rostral middle frontal gyrus ROI, as defined by the  
609 Desikan Atlas (image reproduced with modification from Desikan et al. 2006).

610

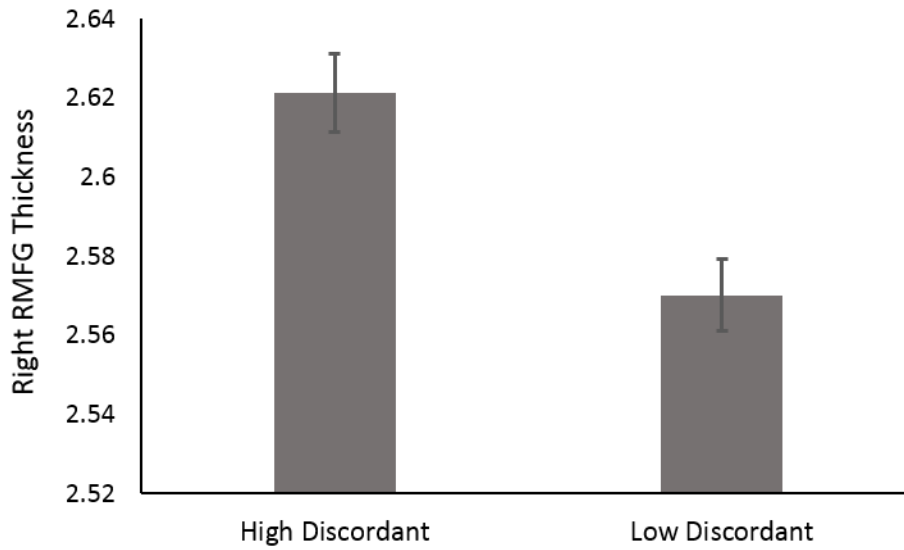
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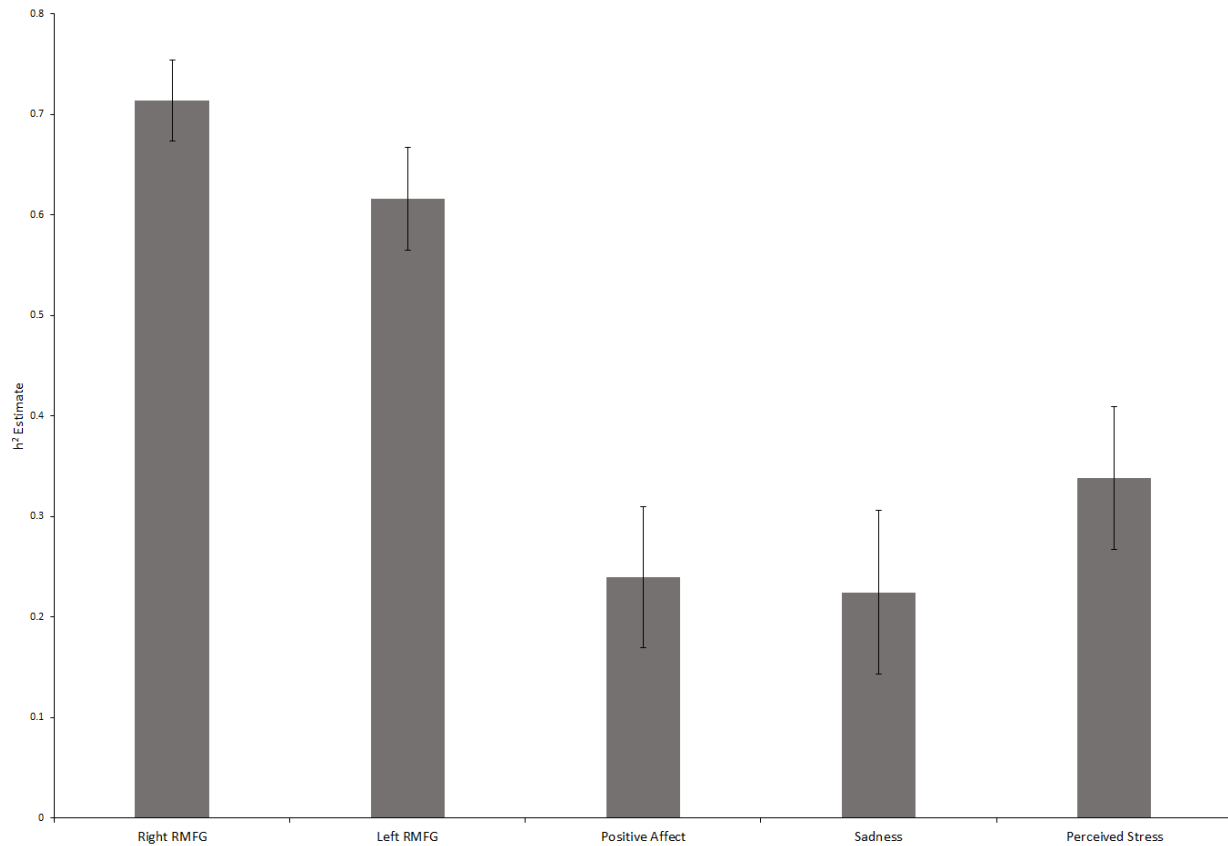
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