Title	Decreased electrodermal activity in patients with epilepsy
Author(s)	Horinouchi, Toru; Sakurai, Kotaro; Munekata, Nagisa; Kurita, Tsugiko; Takeda, Youji; Kusumi, Ichiro
Citation	Epilepsy and behavior, 100, UNSP 106517 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yebeh.2019.106517
Issue Date	2019-11
Doc URL	http://hdl.handle.net/2115/79653
Rights	© 2019. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/
Rights(URL)	http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/
Туре	article (author version)
File Information	Epilepsy Behav_100_106517.pdf



1 Decreased electrodermal activity in patients with epilepsy

- 2 Toru Horinouchi^{1*}, Kotaro Sakurai¹, Nagisa Munekata², Tsugiko Kurita¹, Youji Takeda¹,
- 3 Naoki Hashimoto¹, Ichiro Kusumi¹
- ⁴ Department of Psychiatry, Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine, Sapporo, Japan
- ⁵ Faculty of Computer Science and Engineering, Kyoto Sangyo University, Kyoto, Japan
- 7 1: [Postal address] 060-8638 west 5, north 14, north district, Sapporo city, Hokkaido, Japan
- 8 [Phone number] +81 01 706 5160
- 9 [Fax number] +81 01 706 5161

6

- 2: [Postal address] 603-8555 kamikamo honzan, kitaku, Kyoto city, Kyoto, Japan
- 12 [Phone number] +81 75 705 1913
- 13 [Fax number] +81 75 705 1438
- 14 * Correspondence
- 15 Toru Horinouchi
- 16 Department of Psychiatry and Neurology, Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine
- 17 060-8638 west 5, north 14, north district, Sapporo city, Hokkaido, Japan
- 18 Phone number: +81 01 706 5160
- 19 Fax number: +81 01 706 5161

20	Email address: tetsukawa1234@gmail.com
21	Email Addresses
22	Kotaro Sakurai: kootaroo@ab.auone-net.jp
23	Nagisa Munekata: nagisa.munekata@gmail.com
24	Tsugiko Kurita: tsugiko@med.hokudai.ac.jp
25	Youji Takeda: ytakeda02@gmail.com
26	Naoki Hashimoto: hashimona@gmail.com
27	Ichiro Kusumi: ikusumi@med.hokudai.ac.jp
28	
29	
30	

31 Abstract

32 **Objective**: Biofeedback therapy using electrodermal activity (EDA) is a new non-invasive therapy 33 for intractable epilepsy. However, the characteristics of EDA in patients with epilepsy are little 34 known; therefore, we assessed the EDA characteristics in patients with epilepsy. 35 **Methods**: A cross-sectional observational study was conducted in 22 patients with epilepsy and 24 36 healthy individuals. We collected information on demographic characteristics, EDA, and state 37 anxiety from both groups, and epilepsy diagnosis, seizure number per month, disease duration, and 38 number of anti-epileptic drugs (AED) from the epilepsy group. A wristband device was used to 39 measure resting EDA from both wrists for 10 minutes under controlled temperature and humidity. 40 We compared the EDA levels between the epilepsy group and the control group and examined 41 correlations between EDA and epilepsy-associated factors in the epilepsy group. 42 **Results**: A decreasing trend in EDA was observed during the first 1 minute from the start of the 43 measurement in 22 epilepsy patients (with or without seizures) compared with healthy controls (P = 44 0.12). However, a significant decrease in EDA was found in 18 epilepsy patients with seizures 45 compared with healthy controls (-0.48 versus -0.26; P = 0.036). Furthermore, seizure frequency 46 showed a significant inverse correlation with EDA in the epilepsy group ($\rho = -0.50$, P = 0.016). 47 However, neither disease duration nor the number of drugs prescribed correlated with EDA in the 48 epilepsy group. 49 **Significance**: Marginally decreased EDA was observed in patients with epilepsy, and significantly 50 decreased EDA was found in patients with a higher seizure frequency. The present findings shed 51 light on the appropriateness of EDA-biofeedback therapy in epilepsy.

Keywords: electrodermal activity, biofeedback therapy, seizure numbers, non-invasive,
 galvanic skin response, intractable epilepsy

- 56 Abbreviations
- **BFT** Biofeedback treatment
- **CNV** Contingent negative variation
- **EDA** electrodermal activity
- **SCP** slow cortical potential

Original Research Articles

1. INTRODUCTION

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

Epilepsy is a chronic disease triggered by excessive electric activity in cerebrocortical neurons that causes repeated epileptic seizures, leading to a sudden loss of consciousness or convulsions. The prevalence is roughly 1% worldwide (1, 2). Drug therapy suppresses seizures in about 70% of patients; the remaining 30% suffer from refractory epilepsy where seizures cannot be suppressed by drugs. Surgical operation could be considered for refractory epilepsy. The seizure suppression rates were high to some extent in resective surgery of the lesional focus (60-75%), resective surgery of the non-lesional focus (32-51%) (3), and vagus nerve stimulation (8.0%) (4). However, these surgical treatments are highly invasive and burdensome on the patient; therefore, there is a great need for noninvasive treatments. Biofeedback treatment (BFT) aims to assist patients in drawing feedback from biological information including heartbeat, respiration, and brainwaves using various techniques to enable them to adjust these values voluntarily. BFT has been used for a variety of physical and mental disorders, including migraine and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (5, 6). Electroencephalographic BFT, which has long been used for epilepsy treatment, has certain effects on epilepsy symptoms (7-9). Recently, BFT for epilepsy using electrodermal activity (EDA-BFT), an index of peripheral sympathetic nerve function, has been considered a promising non-invasive treatment (10-13). EDA, which is the minute electrical activity measured on the skin surface, reflects peripheral synthetic nerve function (14). More specifically, it represents changes in sweat gland activity triggered by postganglionic cholinergic fiber activity in peripheral nerves (14). Because EDA shifts acutely according to emotional changes, it has been used widely to measure emotional responses, such as anxiety and fear, in the neuropsychological field (15, 16). Several studies have demonstrated

86	that EDA is inversely correlated with cerebral cortex activity in patients with epilepsy (17, 18), and
87	the findings provide a basis for the hypothesis that increasing the level of EDA using BFT would
88	reduce cerebral cortex activity, thus resulting in seizure suppression.
89	Previous studies demonstrated an approximately 45% decrease in epileptic seizures with the use of
90	EDA-BFT (10, 11), and seizure frequency decreased by more than 50% in 6 out of 10 individuals
91	(12). This rate of 50% responders indicates that the therapeutic effects of EDA-BFT are comparable
92	with those of novel AED (14-60%) (19, 20), vagus nerve stimulation (45%) (21), and ketogenic diet
93	(53%) (22). Although few findings are available regarding the long-term prognosis, one study
94	suggests that the seizure suppression effect can last for more than three years (23). Additionally,
95	EDA-BFT, which has been drawing attention as a stress management intervention in epilepsy, not
96	only reduces epileptic seizures but also improves psychiatric comorbidities, including major
97	depressive disorder and anxiety disorder (24).
98	The purpose of EDA-BFT is to increase the level of EDA in patients with epilepsy. However, little
99	has known about EDA characteristics in patients with epilepsy underlying BFT. Only one report
100	compared patients with epilepsy with healthy controls was available to the best of our knowledge,
101	which indicated that the EDA in patients with epilepsy might be increased (25). Moreover, it remains
102	unclear how epilepsy-related factors, such as seizure frequency, disease duration, and drug treatment
103	affect EDA in patients with epilepsy. Clarifications of these issues would allow us to assess the
104	appropriateness of EDA-BFT. Therefore, this study compared EDA characteristics between epilepsy
105	patients and healthy controls and also investigated the relationship between epilepsy-related factors
106	and EDA characteristics in epilepsy patients.

107

108

2. METHODS

109 2.1 Study design 110 This was a single-center, cross-sectional, non-invasive controlled study conducted at Hokkaido 111 University Hospital, one of the epilepsy centers in Japan. 112 2.2 Standard protocol approvals, registrations, and patient consents 113 This study was approved by the institutional review board of Hokkaido University Hospital, and 114 written informed consent was obtained from all participants. 115 2.3 Study participants 116 Participants were recruited from outpatients with epilepsy who visited the Department of Psychiatry 117 at Hokkaido University Hospital from January 2016 to March 2018. Age- and sex-matched healthy 118 controls were also recruited. 119 Patients with more than 18 years of age and diagnosed with epilepsy according to International 120 League Against Epilepsy criteria were included in this study (26). Patients with hyperhidrosis or 121 hypohidrosis, which may directly affect EDA measurements; those with lesions or burns at 122 measurement sites; and those with concomitant mental disorders determined by the Diagnostic and 123 Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 5 were excluded from this study. 124 The information on age, sex, and resting EDA was collected at the time of measurement, and anxiety 125 was assessed in both groups using state anxiety scores with the State and Trait Anxiety Inventory 126 (STAI) (27). Additionally, information on the epilepsy syndrome, seizure frequency, number of 127 prescribed AED, and disease duration was obtained from the epilepsy group. We defined "without 128 seizures" as no seizure for more than one year.

2.4 Measurement device and measurement environment

130 An E4 wristband® (Empatica Inc., Milan, Italy), a wearable wristband device, was used for EDA 131 measurement. The E4 wristband, which adopts an external measurement technique using alternating 132 current, measures EDA with two dry silver-plated electrodes attached to the inner surface of the 133 wrist. The sampling rate is 4 Hz, and the device is capable of measuring 0.01 µS to 100 µS. Data 134 obtained from the E4 wristband are comparable with those obtained from the conventional, orthodox 135 EDA measurement technique in which wet electrodes are placed on the palm (28, 29). Therefore, the 136 E4 wristband has been used broadly in clinical studies (30, 31). 137 EDA measurement was carried out in a dark, quiet room with the participant sitting on a sofa. The 138 room temperature was set at 23 °C, the humidity was set at 60%, and brightness and ambient noise 139 were controlled (14). All measurements were conducted by the same investigator (TH) during the 140 same time frame (14:00–15:00). 141 Measurement procedure 2.5 142 After entering the room, the participant was asked to sit on a sofa and fill out the STAI, an anxiety 143 assessment scale. Alcohol swab was used to clean the patient's wrists (14), and the patient was then 144 required to wear E4 wristbands on both wrists; noise-canceling headphones (QuietComfort 35

assessment scale. Alcohol swab was used to clean the patient's wrists (14), and the patient was then required to wear E4 wristbands on both wrists; noise-canceling headphones (QuietComfort 35 headphones I®, Bose Corporation, Framingham, MA, USA) were used for the purpose of blocking noise. The patient was instructed to not move his/her body while closing eyes, to feel relaxed, and to not fall asleep. EDA measurement was started 1 minute after the instructions and continued for 10 minutes.

2.6 primary and secondary outcomes

145

146

147

148

The difference in resting EDA between the epilepsy group and the control group was determined as the primary outcome. Correlations between resting EDA and seizure frequency, the number of drugs prescribed, or disease duration were assessed as the secondary outcomes.

2.7 Statistical analysis

Individuals who fell asleep (14), were unable to remain still, or developed epileptic seizures during measurement were excluded from the study. The t-test was used to compare resting EDA between the epilepsy group and the control group. Spearman's rank method was used to examine correlations between resting EDA and seizure frequency, the number of prescribed AED, or disease duration in the epilepsy group. In addition, the t-test, $\chi 2$ test, and Wilcoxon signed-rank test were respectively used to analyze age, sex, and state anxiety in these two groups. EDA data from the left and right wrists were averaged for each participant in the analysis, and a log conversion was then performed to obtain a normal distribution (14, 32, 33). All P-values were two-tailed, and the significance level was set at P < 0.05. R statistical software (version 3.3.3) was used for statistical analyses.

2.8 Data availability statement

Anonymized data can be made available to qualified investigators upon request to the corresponding author.

3. RESULTS

Twenty-two patients with epilepsy and twenty-four healthy individuals participated in this study (Table 1). The measurements were carried out without problems, and no participants were excluded from the analysis because of sleeping or epileptic seizures during measurement. The male-to-female

171 ratio, age, or state anxiety did not significantly differ between the epilepsy group and the control 172 group. Among the 22 participants in the epilepsy group, 21 suffered from focal seizures, and 14 had 173 temporal lobe onset epilepsy. The average disease duration (22.5 years) was relatively long. All 174 participants in the epilepsy group used AED, and the average number of prescribed AED was 2.27. 175 Epileptic seizures were completely suppressed in four participants but were still observed in 18 176 participants in the epilepsy group. The seizure frequency varied greatly with an average frequency of 177 8.4 per month and a maximum frequency of 40 per month. 178 The log-transformed average resting EDA during 10 minutes, the primary outcome, was -0.56 in the 179 epilepsy group and -0.50 in the control group, and no significant differences were observed between 180 these two groups (95% CI, -0.08 to 0.21; P = 0.39). Participants in both groups showed gradually 181 declined EDA during the 10-minute duration, and the greatest difference between the two groups was 182 observed immediately after the start of the measurement (Fig. 1). Thus, the log-transformed average 183 EDA during 1 minute after the start of the measurement was then compared between the epilepsy 184 group and the control group. A trend of decreased EDA was observed in the epilepsy group 185 compared with the control group (-0.42 versus -0.26; 95% CI, -0.04 to 0.36; P = 0.12). Subsequently, 186 18 individuals in the epilepsy group, in whom epileptic seizures were still observed, were classified 187 as the epilepsy with seizures group, which was further compared with the control group. Notably, a 188 significantly decreased EDA was found in the epilepsy with seizures group compared with the 189 control group (-0.48 versus -0.26; 95% CI, 0.02 to 0.43; P = 0.04). 190 We further examined the secondary outcomes in the epilepsy group. A significant inverse correlation 191 was observed between the EDA during the first 1 minute from the start of measurement and seizure 192 frequency in the epilepsy group, and the correlation was moderate (P = 0.02; ρ = -0.50) (Fig. 2). In 193 addition, other epilepsy-related factors, including the number of drugs prescribed and the disease

duration, were not correlated with the EDA during the first 1 minute. Furthermore, no correlations were observed between the EDA and state anxiety, age, or sex in all the groups.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1 Main results and their interpretations

This study demonstrated a decrease in EDA in patients with epilepsy and a greater decrease in patients with a higher seizure frequency. During the first 1 minute from the start of measurement, the EDA tended to be lower in the epilepsy group than in the control group and was significantly lower in the epilepsy with seizures group than in the control group.

The EDA slowly decreased during the measurement duration in both the epilepsy and control groups, and the observation could be explained by the physiological mechanism of EDA. EDA increases with enhanced activity of the sympathetic nervous system during emotional stimuli and movements but decreases with relaxation and rest (34). Hence, a series of behaviors, including entering the room, sitting on the sofa, completing the STAI, wearing the E4 wristband and headphones, listening to the instructions, and waiting for a minute until the measurement started, were reflected in the EDA at the start of the measurement (35). However, when the patient remained at rest, sympathetic activity started decreasing, and the EDA started decreasing accordingly.

The significant decrease in EDA was observed only in the first 1 minute from the start of measurement in the epilepsy with seizures group compared with the control group. We speculate that the series of behaviors before measurement could affect EDA; the patients with seizures were less affected, while healthy controls were more affected. The greater decrease in EDA in the first 1 minute in epilepsy patients might be a consequence of reduced function due to repeated abnormal

electrical activity in the central nervous system, which is responsible for generating EDA. The limbic-hypothalamic system is known to constitute areas of the central nervous system responsible for generating EDA (14). It has been demonstrated that stimulation of the amygdala (36) and enhanced cognitive activity mediated by increased activity in the ventromedial prefrontal cortex induce EDA (37). A decrease in EDA was previously demonstrated in patients with epilepsy who underwent temporal lobectomy including that of the amygdala (38), indicating that defects in the central nervous system induce a functional decrease. Moreover, individuals with a higher seizure frequency tend to display a greater decrease in cognitive function (39, 40), and repeated abnormal electrical activity damages the central nervous system function. Because 14 patients, accounting for the largest portion in the epilepsy group in our study, had temporal lobe onset seizures, the greater seizure frequency might be associated with the more severely impaired limbic system, thereby leading to a decreased EDA. A previous study by Drake et al. found transiently higher amplitude sympathetic skin responses (a type of EDA) evoked by auditory or tactile stimuli in patients with epilepsy than in normal controls (25), and the findings are inconsistent with our results that showed low EDA in epilepsy. Notably, their study examined EDA changes in seconds just after the stimuli, while our study observed those in minutes. Therefore, the different findings in these two studies cannot be compared directly. Additionally, Drake et al. observed longer latency of sympathetic skin response after stimulation in epilepsy patients than in normal controls, indicating that epilepsy patients have lower sympathetic activity. Moreover, Lanteaume et al. demonstrated that epilepsy patients which have seizures evoked by emotional stimuli were more vigilant toward threatening stimuli than those which do not have seizures evoked by emotional stimuli. (41). To the best of our knowledge, no study has observed EDA changes in both seconds and minutes after the stimuli, and no study has combined EDA and emotional stimuli either; such studies might help understand the role of EDA in epilepsy.

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

4.2 Autonomic nervous system

Many previous studies have investigated the role of the cardiac autonomic nervous system (ANS) in sudden unexpected death in epilepsy. Ponnusamy et al. found that epilepsy patients showed increased cardiac sympathetic activity and decreased parasympathetic activity during epileptic seizures (42), and interictal discharges altered RR interval (43). However, a meta-analysis indicates that AED have no significant effects on cardiac sympathetic or parasympathetic function (44), suggesting that AED might not affect EDA. In fact, to our knowledge, no studies have demonstrated that AED could affect EDA.

4.3 Confounders

Confounders affecting the resting EDA might not have significant effects on our study findings. The impact of drugs is an important factor to be considered. In this present study, the number of AED did not affect EDA. Other drugs such as those with a central noradrenaline inhibitory effect or an anticholinergic effect are known to reduce the levels of EDA (34, 45). However, because no participants in our study were taking those drugs, the impact of drugs was considered unrelated to our study findings.

In addition, EDA is lower in older individuals than in younger individuals (14, 34) as well as in males than in females (14, 34). However, these factors did not affect EDA in our study. Moreover, EDA is known to increase in the dominant arm (14, 34). In this study, because EDA was measured simultaneously from both wrists and the average was used for analysis, the arm dominance did not affect our results. Further, African-Americans have been shown to have higher EDA than Caucasians

- (14); however, because all participants in this study were Japanese, racial differences are not needed
 to be considered.
- 263 4.4 Appropriateness of EDA-BFT in epilepsy
- 264 EDA-BFT is considered an appropriate treatment. The principle behind the inhibitory effect of EDA-265 BFT on epileptic seizures lies in the decreased excitability of the cerebral cortex due to increased 266 EDA. Accumulating studies have used the direct current component called the slow cortical potential 267 (SCP) as an index for excitation of the cerebral cortex. SCPs originate in the depolarization of 268 cortical pyramidal cells, which is caused by the input from the thalamus, and reflect excitation in a 269 broad range of cortical regions (46). Contingent negative variation (CNV), a type of SCPs, has been 270 found to be inversely correlated with EDA (17, 18). In fact, a decline in seizure frequency resulting 271 from EDA-BFT has been shown to be correlated with decreased shifts in CNV (17). Therefore, 272 EDA-BFT lowers excitation in the cortex by regulating the thalamocortical projection system. Our 273 study demonstrated a mild decrease in EDA in patients with epilepsy and a greater decrease in EDA 274 in patients with a higher seizure frequency. From this point, it is surmised that EDA-BFT, which can 275 increase EDA, would recover the decreased EDA closer to the normal level in epilepsy patients. 276 Thus, EDA-BFT, which lowers excitation of the cerebral cortex by increasing EDA, is a reasonable 277 treatment option.
- 278 4.5 limitations of this study

279

280

281

282

283

This study has several limitations. This study was designed to compare resting EDA; however, differences in EDA between the epilepsy and control groups were observed only immediately after the start of measurement, and EDA decreased to the same level in both groups during 10 minutes of rest. Therefore, we used the EDA data obtained during the first 1 minute from the start of measurement to reflect EDA in the waking state in daily lives. Because participants in both groups

followed the same procedure before measurement, the present results are considered to represent the difference in the properties of EDA between the epilepsy and control groups. However, it would be better to measure EDA with stimulation tasks if the differences in EDA in daily lives between these two groups should be assessed.

In addition, the number of participants in this study was small, with 22 individuals in the epilepsy group and 24 individuals in the control group. Therefore, the small sample size might result in no statistically significant differences between the epilepsy group and the control group, although a decreasing trend in EDA was observed in the epilepsy group. Moreover, because the sample size was small, epilepsy symptoms or seizure types were not assessed in these two groups.

In conclusion, this study demonstrated a decrease in EDA in patients with epilepsy and a greater decrease in patients with a higher seizure frequency. EDA-BFT is a technique to increase EDA levels in patients with epilepsy based on BFT. The present findings shed lights on the appropriateness of EDA-BFT in suppressing epileptic seizures.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to express cordial gratitude to the Masaya Yamashita Lab at Asahi Kasei Corporation for providing E4 wristbands and valuable comments. This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI (Grant Number, JP18K15505). The authors would like to thank Prof. Yoichi M. Ito at the Department of Statistical Data Science at the Institute of Statistical Mathematics for his valuable advice on the analytical methods.

305	FUNDING
306	This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI (Grant Number, JP18K15505).
307	
308	CONFLICTS OF INTEREST
309	All the authors state that there is no direct conflict of interest.
310	
311	AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
312	T Horinouchi contributed to the design and conceptualization of the study and drafted the manuscript
313	K Sakurai, N Munekata, and I Kusumi interpreted the data and revised the manuscript. T Kurita N
314	Hashimoto and Y Takeda revised the manuscript.
315	
316	ETHICAL PUBLICATION STATEMENT
317	We confirm that we have read the Journal's position on issues involved in ethical publication and
318	affirm that this study is consistent with those guidelines.
319	
320	DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
321	The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.
322	

REFERENCES

- 324 1. Steer S, Pickrell WO, Kerr MP, Thomas RH. Epilepsy prevalence and socioeconomic
- deprivation in England. Epilepsia 2014;55:1634-1641.
- 326 2. Osakwe C, Otte WM, Alo C. Epilepsy prevalence, potential causes and social beliefs in
- 327 Ebonyi State and Benue State, Nigeria. Epilepsy Res 2014;108:316-326.
- 328 3. Téllez-Zenteno JF, Ronquillo LH, Moien-Afshari F, Wiebe S. Surgical outcomes in lesional
- and non-lesional epilepsy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Epilepsy Res 2010;89:310-318.
- 4. Englot DJ, Rolston JD, Wright CW, Hassnain KH, Chang EF. Rates and predictors of
- 331 seizure freedom with vagus nerve stimulation for intractable epilepsy. Neurosurgery 2016;79:345-
- 332 353.
- 333 5. Cho SJ, Song TJ, Chu MK. Treatment update of chronic migraine. Curr Pain Headache Rep
- 334 2017;21:26.
- Duric NS, Assmus J, Gundersen D, Elgen IB. Neurofeedback for the treatment of children
- and adolescents with ADHD: a randomized and controlled clinical trial using parental reports. BMC
- 337 Psychiatry 2012;12:1.
- 338 7. Sterman MB. Biofeedback in the treatment of epilepsy. Cleve Clin J Med 2010;77 Suppl
- 339 3:S60-S67.
- 340 8. Tan G, Thornby J, Hammond DC, Strehl U, Canady B, Arnemann K, et al. A meta analysis
- of EEG biofeedback in treatment of epilepsy. Clin EEG Neurosci 2009;40:1-8.
- 342 9. Rockstroh B, Elbert T, Birbaumer N, Wolf P, Duching-Roth A, Reker M, et al. Cortical self-
- regulation in patients with epilepsies. Epilepsy Res 1993;14:63-72.

- Nagai Y, Aram J, Koepp M, Lemieux L, Mula M, Critchley H et al. Epileptic seizures are
- reduced by autonomic biofeedback therapy through enhancement of fronto-limbic connectivity: a
- controlled trial and neuroimaging study. EBioMedicine 2017;27:112-122.
- 347 11. Kotwas I, McGonigal A, Khalfa S, Bastien-Toniazzo M, Bartolomei F, Micoulaud-Franchi
- JA. A case-control study of skin conductance biofeedback on seizure frequency and emotion
- regulation in drug-resistant temporal lobe epilepsy. Int J Psychophysiol 2018;123:103-110.
- 350 12. Nagai Y, Goldstein LH, Fenwick PBC, Trimble MR. Clinical efficacy of galvanic skin
- response biofeedback training in reducing seizures in adult epilepsy: a preliminary randomized
- 352 controlled study. Epilepsy Behav 2004;5:216-223.
- 353 13. Kotwas I, Micoulaud-Franchi JA, Bartolomei F, Nagai Y. Commentary: Integrating
- 354 electrodermal biofeedback into pharmacologic treatment of grand mal seizures. Front Hum Neurosci
- 355 2015;9:1–3.
- 356 14. Wolfram B. Electrodermal activity, 2nd Ed. New York: Springer Science+Business Media,
- 357 LLC; 2012;36-336
- 358 15. van der Ploeg MM, Brosschot JF, Versluis A, Verkuil B. Peripheral physiological responses
- 359 to subliminally presented negative affective stimuli: a systematic review. Biol Psychol 2017;129:131-
- 360 153.
- 361 16. Meyer B, Yuen KS, Ertl M, Plomac N, Mulert C, Buchel C, et al. Neural mechanisms of
- 362 placebo anxiolysis. J Neurosci 2015;35:7365-7373.

- 363 17. Nagai Y, Critchley HD, Rothwell JC, Duncan JS, Trimble MR. Changes in cortical potential
- associated with modulation of peripheral sympathetic activity in patients with epilepsy. Psychosom
- 365 Med 2009;71:84-92.
- 366 18. Nagai Y, Critchley HD, Featherstone E, Fenwick PBC, Trimble MR, Dolan RJ. Brain
- activity relating to the contingent negative variation: an fMRI investigation. Neuroimage
- 368 2004;21:1232-1241.
- 369 19. Cramer JA, Ben Menachem E, French J. Review of treatment options for refractory
- epilepsy: New medications and vagal nerve stimulation. Epilepsy Res 2001;47:17-25.
- 371 20. Beyenburg S, Stavem K, Schmidt D. Placebo-corrected efficacy of modern nonenzyme-
- inducing AEDs for refractory focal epilepsy: systematic review and meta-analysis. Epilepsia
- 373 2012;53:512-520.
- 21. Englot DJ, Chang EF, Auguste KI. Vagus nerve stimulation for epilepsy: a meta-analysis of
- efficacy and predictors of response. J Neurosurg 2011;115:1248-1255.
- Liu H, Yang Y, Wang Y, Tang H, Zhang F, Zhang Y, et al. Ketogenic diet for treatment of
- intractable epilepsy in adults: A meta-analysis of observational studies. Epilepsia Open 2018;3:9-17.
- 378 23. Nagai Y, Trimble MR. Long-term effects of electrodermal biofeedback training on seizure
- control in patients with drug-resistant epilepsy: two case reports. Epilepsy Res 2014;108:149-152.
- 380 24. Kotwas I, Mcgonigal A, Bastien-Toniazzo M, Bartolomei F, Micoulaud-Franchi JA. Stress
- regulation in drug-resistant epilepsy. Epilepsy Behav 2017;71:39–50.
- Drake ME, Andrews JM, Castleberry CM. Electrophysiologic assessment of autonomic
- 383 function in epilepsy. Seizure 1998;7(2), 91–96.

- 384 26. Fisher RS, Acevedo C, Arzimanoglou A, Bogacz A, Cross H, Elger CE, et al. ILAE official
- report: a practical clinical definition of epilepsy. Epilepsia 2014;55:475-482.
- 386 27. Spielberger CD, Smith LH. Anxiety (drive), stress, and serial-position effects in serial-
- 387 verbal learning. J Exp Psychol 1966;72:589-595.
- Ragot M, Martin N, Em S, Pallamin N. Emotion recognition using physiological signals:
- laboratory vs. wearable sensors. In: Ahram T, Falção C, editors. Advances in human factors in
- wearable technologies and game Design. AHFE 2017; Advances in intelligent systems and
- 391 computing, vol 608. Cham: Springer; 2018:15-22.
- 392 29. Poh M-Z, Swenson N, Picard RW. A wearable sensor for unobtrusive, long-term assessment
- of electrodermal activity. IEEE Trans Biomed Eng 2010;57:1243-1252.
- 394 30. Onton JA, Kang DY, Coleman TP. Visualization of whole-night sleep EEG from 2-channel
- mobile recording device reveals distinct deep sleep stages with differential electrodermal activity.
- 396 Front Hum Neurosci 2016;10:1-12.
- 397 31. Corino VDA, Laureanti R, Ferranti L, Scarpini G, Lombardi F, Mainardi LT. Detection of
- 398 atrial fibrillation episodes using a wristband device. Physiol Meas 2017;38:787-799.
- 399 32. Clamor A, Hartmann MM, Köther U, Otte C, Moritz S, Lincoln TM. Altered autonomic
- arousal in psychosis: an analysis of vulnerability and specificity. Schizophr Res 2014;154:73-78.
- 401 33. Venables PH, Christie MJ. Electrodermal Activity. In: Martin I, Venables PH, editors.
- 402 Techniques in psychophysiology. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.; 1980;3-67.
- 403 34. Niimi Y, Suzuki J. Electrodermal Activity. Tokyo: Seiwa Shoten Publishers; 1986;19-209

- 404 35. Lang H, Tuovinen T, Valleala P. Amygdaloid afterdischarge and galvanic skin response.
- 405 Electroencephalogr Clin Neurophysiol 1964;16:366-374.
- 406 36. Critchley H. Volitional control of autonomic arousal: a functional magnetic resonance study.
- 407 Neuroimage 2002;16:909-919.
- 408 37. Kubota Y, Sato W, Murai T, Toichi M, Ikeda A, Sengoku A. Emotional cognition without
- awareness after unilateral temporal lobectomy in humans. J Neurosci 2000;20:RC97.
- 410 38. Rayner G, Jackson GD, Wilson SJ. Mechanisms of memory impairment in epilepsy depend
- 411 on age at disease onset. Neurology 2016;87:1642-1649.
- 412 39. Lin H, Holmes GL, Kubie JL, Muller RU. Recurrent seizures induce a reversible impairment
- in a spatial hidden goal task. Hippocampus 2009;19:817-827.
- 414 40. Lotufo PA, Valiengo L, Benseñor IM, Brounoni AR. A systematic review and meta-analysis
- of heart rate variability in epilepsy and antiepileptic drugs. Epilepsia 2012;53:272-282.
- 416 41. Lanteaume L, Bartolomei F, Bastien-Toniazzo M. How do cognition, emotion, and
- 417 epileptogenesis meet? A study of emotional cognitive bias in temporal lobe epilepsy. Epilepsy Behav
- 418 2009;15:218-224.
- 419 42. Ponnusamy A, Marques JLB, Reuber M. Comparison of heart rate variability parameters
- during complex partial seizures and psychogenic nonepileptic seizures. Epilepsia 2012;53:1314-
- 421 1321.
- 422 43. Zaatreh MM, Quint SR, Tennison MB, D'Cruz O, Vaughn BB. Heart rate variability during
- interictal epileptiform discharges. Epilepsy Res 2003;54:85-90.

- 424 44. Hata T, Kita T, Yoneda R, Tanada S. Effects of exogenous stimuli and centrally acting drugs
- on galvanic skin responses in rats. Japan J Pharmacol 1981;31:23-31.
- 426 45. Birbaumer N, Elbert T, Canavan AGM, Rockstroh B. Slow potentials of cerebral cortex and
- 427 behavior. Physiol Rev 1990;70:1-41.
- 428 46. Micoulaud-Franchi JA, Kotwas I, Lanteaume L, Berthet C, Bastien M, Vion-Dury J, et al.
- Skin conductance biofeedback training in adults with drug-resistant temporal lobe epilepsy and
- 430 stress-triggered seizures: a proof-of-concept study. Epilepsy Behav 2014;41:244-250.

431 TABLES

Table 1. Background information of participants in the epilepsy and control groups

	epilepsy		control	p-value
	with/without seizures	with seizures		
number	22	18	24	N/A
age†	40.3 (20-64)	40.7 (20-64)	40.4 (29-60)	P = 0.68
female‡	15	12	14	P = 0.49
state anxiety§	40.4 (24-66)	40.4 (24-66)	38.1 (20-55)	P = 0.62
diagnosis	FE 21, GE 1	FE 18	N/A	N/A

diagnosis in FE	TLE 14, FLE 5,	TLE 13, FLE 3,	N/A	N/A
	OLE 1, UK 1	OLE 1, UK 1	1 1/11	17/11
seizure number (/month)	8.4 (0-40)	10.3 (0.3-40)	N/A	N/A
disease duration	22.5 (9-45)	23.6 (9-45)	N/A	N/A
(year)	(> 10)	20.0 (> 10)	- 771	2 7,11
number of AED	2.27 (1-4)	2.39 (1-4)	N/A	N/A

The number in parentheses of each item indicates the range. †, t-test; ‡, χ2 test; §, Wilcoxon signed-rank test. FE, focal epilepsy; GE, generalized epilepsy; TLE, temporal lobe epilepsy; FLE, frontal lobe epilepsy; OLE, occipital lobe epilepsy; UK, unknown; AED, anti-epileptic drug.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Measurement results for the resting electrodermal activity (EDA) in each group

The graph represents the resting EDA during the test duration in the epilepsy with/without seizures group, the epilepsy with seizures group, and the control group. A decreasing trend in EDA during the first 1 minute from the start of measurement was observed in the epilepsy with/without seizures group (95% CI, -0.04 to 0.36; P = 0.12), and a significant decrease in EDA was found in the epilepsy with seizures group (95% CI, 0.02 to 0.43; P = 0.04).

445	Figure 2. A scatter plot of seizure frequency and EDA levels in the first 1 minute after the start
446	of measurement in the epilepsy group
447	The seizure frequency showed a significant inverse correlation with EDA levels (P = 0.02; ρ = -0.50)
448	
449	



