

EEG Spectral Features in Sleep of Autism Spectrum Disorders in Children with Tuberous Sclerosis Complex

Ian A. Cook¹, MD, Andrew C. Wilson², BS, Jurriaan M. Peters³, MD, PhD, Monisha N. Goyal⁴, MD, E. Martina Bebin⁴, MD, MPA, Hope Northrup⁵, MD, Darcy Krueger⁶, MD, PhD, Andrew F. Leuchter⁷, MD Mustafa Sahin⁸, MD, PhD

on behalf of the TACERN Study Group

¹ Neuromodulation Division, UCLA Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior; Department of Psychiatry & Biobehavioral Sciences, UCLA David Geffen School of Medicine; Department of Bioengineering, UCLA Henry Samueli School of Engineering at Applied Science, 760 Westwood Plaza, Los Angeles, CA 90024

² Neuromodulation Division, UCLA Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior, 760 Westwood Plaza, Los Angeles, CA 90024

³ Division of Epilepsy and Clinical Neurophysiology; Department of Neurology, Boston Children's Hospital, 300 Longwood Avenue, Boston, MA 02115

⁴ Department of Neurology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, 1600 7th Avenue S., Birmingham, AL 35233

⁵ Department of Pediatrics, McGovern Medical School, University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, 1941 East Road, 3.126 BBSB, Houston, TX, 77054

⁶ Department of Neurology and Rehabilitation Medicine, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, 3333 Burnet Avenue, MLC 7004, Cincinnati, OH 45229

⁷ Neuromodulation Division, UCLA Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior; Department of Psychiatry & Biobehavioral Sciences, UCLA David Geffen School of Medicine, 760 Westwood Plaza, Los Angeles, CA 90024

⁸ Department of Neurology, Harvard Medical School, Harvard University; F.M. Kirby Neurobiology Center, Boston Children's Hospital, 300 Longwood Avenue, Boston, MA 02115

Conflict of Interest:

Dr. Cook discloses that he has received research support from Covidien (formerly Aspect Medical Systems), National Institutes of Health, and NeoSync, Inc. within the past three years; he has been an advisor/consultant/reviewer for Arctica Health, Cerêve, HeartCloud, NeuroDetect, NeuroSigma, NIH (ITVA), U.S. Departments of Defense and Justice, and the VA (DSMB); he is editor of the Patient Management section of the American Psychiatric Association's FOCUS journal; his biomedical intellectual property is assigned to the Regents of the University of California, and he has stock options in NeuroSigma, where he has served as Chief Medical Officer (on leave); he is employed by the University of California, Los Angeles and also has an appointment as a Staff Psychiatrist, Neuromodulation and Mood Disorders programs, Greater Los Angeles Veterans Administration Health System.

Dr. Peters has received consulting fees from Philips Neuro.

Dr. Bebin has received research support from the National Institute of Health. She has served on the Board of Directors for the Tuberous Sclerosis Alliance.

Dr. Krueger has received research grants from the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke, Tuberous Sclerosis Alliance, and Novartis Pharmaceuticals. She has received honoraria from Novartis Pharmaceuticals. She is on the advisory boards for Novartis Pharmaceuticals and Upsher-Smith Pharmaceuticals.

Dr. Leuchter discloses that within the past 36 months he has received research support from the National Institutes of Health, Neuronetics, Department of Defense, CHDI Foundation, and NeuroSigma, Inc. He has served as a consultant to NeoSync, Inc., Ionis Pharmaceuticals, Inc., and EIMindA. He is Chief Scientific Officer of Brain Biomarker Analytics LLC (BBA). Dr. Leuchter owns stock options in NeoSync, Inc. and has equity interest in BBA.

Dr. Sahin has received grant support from Novartis Pharmaceuticals, Roche, Pfizer, Ipsen and LAM Therapeutics and Quandrant Biosciences. He has served on scientific advisory boards for Sage, Roche, and Takeda.

Mr. Wilson, Dr. Goyal, Dr. Northrup declare no conflicts of interests.

Abstract

Tuberous sclerosis complex (TSC) is a multisystem disorder with increased prevalence of autism spectrum disorders (ASDs). This project aimed to characterize the autism phenotype of TSC and identify biomarkers of risk for ASD. Because abnormalities of EEG during sleep are tied to neurodevelopment in children, we compared electroencephalographic (EEG) measures during stage II sleep in TSC children who either did (ASD+) or did not (ASD-) exhibit symptoms of ASD over 36-month follow up. Relative alpha band power was significantly elevated in the ASD+ group at 24 months of age with smaller differences at younger ages, suggesting this may arise from differences in brain development. These findings suggest that EEG features could enhance the detection of risk for ASD.

Keywords: Autism, TSC, EEG, Biomarkers

Corresponding Author:

Andrew Leuchter, MD
760 Westwood Plaza, #57-456
Los Angeles, CA 90024
afl@ucla.edu
P: 310-825-0207
F: 310-825-7642

Abstract

Tuberous sclerosis complex (TSC) is a multisystem disorder with increased prevalence of autism spectrum disorders (ASDs). This project aimed to characterize the autism phenotype of TSC and identify biomarkers of risk for ASD. Because abnormalities of EEG during sleep are tied to neurodevelopment in children, we compared electroencephalographic (EEG) measures during stage II sleep in TSC children who either did (ASD+) or did not (ASD-) exhibit symptoms of ASD over 36-month follow up. Relative alpha band power was significantly elevated in the ASD+ group at 24 months of age with smaller differences at younger ages, suggesting this may arise from differences in brain development. These findings suggest that EEG features could enhance the detection of risk for ASD.

1
2
3
4 **EEG Spectral Features in Sleep of Autism Spectrum Disorders**
5
6 **in Children with Tuberous Sclerosis Complex**
7
8
9

10
11
12
13
14 Autism spectrum disorders (ASDs) are common neurodevelopmental conditions, and are
15
16 estimated to be present in approximately 1 in 68 school-aged children (14.6 per 1000,
17
18 Christensen et al. 2016). Though some children develop symptoms soon after birth, there is
19
20 considerable heterogeneity in clinical presentation, both in terms of specific symptoms and the
21
22 age at which they emerge (American Psychiatric Association 2013), and multiple risk factors
23
24 have been identified (Modabbernia, Velthorst and Reichenberg 2017; Mitchell, Barton, Harvey
25
26 and Williams 2017). While interventions can mitigate disability associated with ASD, these
27
28 appear to be most effective when introduced early in childhood (Landa 2018; Catalano,
29
30 Holloway and Mpofo 2018). Genetically defined syndromes with increased prevalence of ASD
31
32 provide unique opportunities to examine the neurophysiologic patterns associated with the
33
34 symptoms of ASD. Tuberous Sclerosis Complex (TSC) is a multisystem genetic disorder, in
35
36 which some individuals exhibit ASD (Fernandez and Scherer 2017), making it particularly useful
37
38 for expanding our neurobiological understanding of ASD, potentially including molecular
39
40 pathway and neurogenetic features.
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48
49 The Autism Centers of Excellence (ACE) Program is a trans-institute initiative funded by
50
51 the U.S. National Institutes of Health. Its objectives include the execution of large-scale, multi-
52
53 site, multidisciplinary studies in ASD. As part of the ACE Program, we examined
54
55 electroencephalographic (EEG) data recorded longitudinally in children at five participating
56
57 centers who were followed for several years, starting as young as one month of age. Our
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 objective was to identify neurophysiologic differences between TSC youth with symptoms of
5
6 ASD (ASD+) and those without (ASD-) and the time course of the development of these
7
8 neurophysiologic features. Our goal was to better characterize the autism phenotype of TSC and
9
10 identify biomarkers that may predict risk for development of autism in children with TSC.
11
12

13
14 In furtherance of this goal, this project focused on EEG recordings from sleep, and in
15
16 particular, during Stage II sleep. Sleep disturbances are reported commonly in a range of
17
18 neurodevelopmental disorders, with high rates identified in children with Smith-Magenis
19
20 syndrome and Angelman syndrome as well as TSC and ASD (Trickett et al., 2018). Based on
21
22 questionnaire data, patterns of disturbance were reported to vary among these groups, with
23
24 difficulties with sleep onset and sleep maintenance characterizing children with ASD while those
25
26 with TSC were characterized by daytime sleepiness, parasomnias, and night walking (Trickett et
27
28 al. 2018). Given these reported clinical differences, we sought to examine neurophysiologic data
29
30 during sleep in a way that could be reliably and consistently acquired across the age range of our
31
32 subjects.
33
34
35
36
37

38 Neurophysiologically, stage II sleep is generally characterized by an abundance of diffuse
39
40 slow wave activity in delta and theta bands, constituting the majority of relative power in that
41
42 brain state, with a smaller amount of energy in the alpha band, arising from activity including
43
44 sleep spindles (Armitage, Trivedi and Rush 1995). Objective abnormalities of sleep are widely
45
46 reported in children with ASD (Köse, Yilmaz, Oçakoğlu, and Özbaran 2017; Cohen, Conduit,
47
48 Lockley, Rajaratnam, and Cornish 2014) and include derangements of sleep architecture as well
49
50 as paroxysmal abnormalities (Çetin, Korkmaz, Alev, and Demirbilek 2017), although these can
51
52 be found in waking recordings as well (Yasuhara 2010). In longitudinal work, it had been found
53
54 that sleep disturbances in children with ASD tend to co-occur with core symptoms of ASD,
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 rather than precede them, and that children with ASD generally experience worsening of clinical
5
6 sleep problems as they age, whereas typically-developing children tend to have a decrease
7
8 (Verhoeff et al., 2018). Epileptiform discharges have been observed in the EEGs of children with
9
10 TSC, along with alterations sleep architecture (e.g., Hunt, 1993; Bruni et al., 1995;
11
12 Kharoshankaya et al., 2016). To examine differences among subjects against this landscape of
13
14 sleep and EEG abnormalities, in this exploratory work we sought to focus on a feature that
15
16 would be present in all subjects, would require only minimal cooperation by the subjects, and
17
18 could be reliably identified in the recordings from all groups.
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 Methods

26 *Compliance with Ethical Standards*

27
28 All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance
29
30 with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the
31
32 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards. Informed
33
34 consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.
35
36
37
38
39

40 *Participants*

41
42
43 Consonant with the ACE Centers' objective of study children with TSC with regard to
44
45 the presence or absence of ASD, a group of 158 youths between the ages of one and 36 months
46
47 were enrolled at five clinical sites: Boston Children's Hospital (BCH), Cincinnati Children's
48
49 Hospital Medical Center (CCHMC), University of Alabama at Birmingham (UAB), University
50
51 of California, Los Angeles (UCLA), and University of Texas at Houston (UTH). Subjects in the
52
53 study were assigned a categorical diagnosis (ASD or typically-developing) and a degree of
54
55 confidence by the clinician making the diagnosis. Of the 158 children, we restricted our analyses
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 by first considering only those individuals who had been assigned to a diagnostic category with a
5
6 high degree of clinician-rated confidence (4 or 5 on a 5-point Likert scale), totaling a sample of
7
8 70 individuals. Of these 70, we considered those characterized either as typically-developing
9
10 (N=59, ASD-) or with a probable diagnosis of ASD (N=11, ASD+) by their 36 month visit.
11
12
13
14 Subjects without this degree of diagnostic clarity by the 36 month visit were not included in
15
16 analyses to identify candidate EEG features. Finally, we considered all the EEG recordings at the
17
18 24, 18, and 12 month time points that fulfilled our inclusion criteria (below), ultimately allowing
19
20 comparisons between of 9 ASD+ and 17 ASD- children. Other time points were not analyzed
21
22 due to low numbers of interpretable EEG recordings for these subjects. Subject information is
23
24 summarized in Table I.
25
26
27

28 29 *EEG Recordings and Power Spectra*

30
31
32
33 EEGs were recorded at the five clinical centers using different EEG recording devices
34
35 (Nihon Kohden, Stellate, Natus/Xltek) with a heterogeneous set of recording montages (see
36
37 Supplemental Material). All recordings contained a common core set of 23 electrode locations
38
39 defined in the 10-20 system (Fp1, F7, T7, P7, O1, F3, C3, P3, Fz, Cz, Fp2, F8, T8, P8, O2, F4,
40
41 C4, P4, and Pz, along with A1, A2, ground, and reference), and these channels were used for
42
43 analysis. All EEG files were converted into the common European Data Format (EDF) for
44
45 reviewing and analysis using the BrainVision Analyzer 2 software package (BVA2, Brain
46
47 Products GmbH, Gilching, Germany). EEG data files were brought into BVA2, and high pass
48
49 (0.5Hz), low pass (70Hz), and notch (60Hz) filters were applied. Signals were then visually
50
51 inspected by raters blinded to subject group, for quality and absence of epileptiform discharges;
52
53 between ten and thirty 2-second artifact-free epochs containing sleep spindles were extracted for
54
55 spectral analysis, to ensure comparison in a similar brain state across all subjects. Subjects were
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 included in our analyses only if their recording had 20 seconds or more of artifact-free data in
5
6 Stage II sleep. Pragmatic reasons for employing Stage II sleep in our analyses include that it
7
8 could reliably be ascertained across individuals without the need for subject cooperation, it is
9
10 abundant in most sleep recordings, and it could be found in both ASD- and ASD+ subjects.
11
12
13
14 Again, no epileptiform discharges were included in the analyzed epochs.
15

16
17 Absolute and relative power values were calculated using BVA2 with custom scripts,
18
19 using power bands defined as: delta 0.5-4 Hz; theta 4-8 Hz; alpha 8-12 Hz; beta 12-20 Hz;
20
21 gamma 20-55 Hz.
22
23
24

25
26 Identification of features that differed between groups was conducted using the following
27
28 steps, using SPSS (v24, IBM, Armonk NY) to perform our analyses. First, an omnibus one-way
29
30 ANOVA was used to determine which frequency bands, if any, contained significant group
31
32 differences; to reduce the number of comparisons, topography was collapsed across the different
33
34 electrode sites into regional modules: frontal (Fp1, Fp2, Fz, F3, F4, F7, F8), central (C3, Cz, C4)
35
36 temporal (T7, T8), and parieto-occipital (P3, P4, P7, P8, Pz, O1, O2), and left and right
37
38 hemispheric submodules (omitting midline channels). These ANOVA tests were performed
39
40 separately for absolute power and relative power measures, at 24-, 18-, and 12- month time
41
42 frames. As a second step, each measure with a detected difference (0.05 alpha level) was then
43
44 examined for the regions that drove those differences, using False Discovery Rate (FDR)
45
46 techniques to identify which regions survived multiple comparisons. For modules that did
47
48 survive, we examined the channels within that regional module to determine which specific
49
50 electrode locations exhibited differences.
51
52
53
54
55
56

57 Results

58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

All subjects were included in the 24-month analysis, one ASD- subject did not have analyzable EEG data at the 18-month point, and a different ASD- subject lacked analyzable EEG data for the 12-month analysis.

At the 24-month recording, significant group differences emerged in the alpha band in relative power. No modules met our FDR requirements for multiple comparisons in delta, theta, beta, or gamma bands, or in alpha absolute power, though frontal gamma absolute power was elevated at an uncorrected level (F 4.229, $p=0.049$). As shown in Table II and Figure I, these findings exhibited a band-dependent topography. In the alpha band, differences were found centrally and parieto-occipitally, on both left and right sides and temporally on the left (F ranging 6.28 – 6.85). Figure II shows the FDR analysis in alpha absolute power at the 24-month recording. Figure III shows the topography of these alpha-band findings.

In both the 18- and 12-month analyses, no statistically significant group differences were detected that met our stringent FDR selection criteria. The brain regions that exhibited significant alpha-band differences at the 24-month recording showed a stronger tendency to differ at 18-month recording (Central: F 1.508, $p=0.232$; Frontal: F 1.194, $p=0.286$; Parieto-Occipital: F 0.662, $p=0.424$; Temporal: F 1.460, $p=0.239$) than at the 12-month assessment (Central: F 0.715, $p=0.406$; Frontal: F 1.258, $p=0.274$; Parieto-Occipital: F 1.536, $p=0.228$; Temporal: F 1.973, $p=0.173$), using F score magnitudes as representations of the degree of separation between groups.

Discussion

1
2
3
4 The primary finding of our analyses was that TSC children with ASD exhibited
5
6 significantly higher levels of alpha relative power during stage II sleep, with a broad topography
7
8 involving central, temporal, and parieto-occipital regions, in comparison with similarly aged
9
10 TSC children without ASD at 24 months. Additionally, this pattern of group differences was
11
12 present at attenuated (non-significant) levels in the same children at younger ages (18 and 12
13
14 months), suggesting that this neurophysiologic measure may reflect neurodevelopmental
15
16 characteristics that emerge over time and may be associated with ASD symptoms. Secondly,
17
18 these differences might be useful as a diagnostic biomarker that would be reliable once children
19
20 reached age 24 months.
21
22
23
24

25
26 In studies of typically-developing (TD) children with neither TSC nor ASD, a pattern of
27
28 changes in sleep EEG has been described that emerges over development. Specifically, a
29
30 posterior-to-anterior progression of change in spectral power as children grow has been
31
32 previously reported (Kurth et al. 2010; Novelli et al. 2016). Buchman and colleagues
33
34 (Buchmann et al. 2010) have reported that spectral power decreases along with cortical
35
36 maturation, as assessed via structural neuroimaging, and that these changes were present with
37
38 both slow wave energy and with alpha power in a group of somewhat older TD children (8-19
39
40 years). Our observation of considerably higher posterior alpha power in our ASD+ subjects
41
42 (Figure III) is consistent with theories that ASD is related to maturational trajectories that differ
43
44 from children without ASD. Recent work using waking EEG (Tierney et al., 2012; Levin et al.,
45
46 2017; Gabard-Durnam et al., 2019) supports differing maturational trajectories in children at
47
48 high risk vs low risk for developing ASD. Future studies could record whole-night
49
50 polysomnography data to expand this line of work in children who do not have additional
51
52 neurological diagnoses, as well as children with TSC.
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 Others have described altered levels of resting gamma activity in ASD compared with
5
6 subjects without ASD, but both elevations (van Diessen, Senders, Jansen, Boersma, and Bruining
7
8 2015) and reductions (Maxwell et al. 2015) have been reported. We observed a tendency towards
9
10 elevated gamma power in a frontal module in ASD+, but this observation did not survive
11
12 correction for multiple comparisons. It has been suggested that there is greater variability within
13
14 an individual for those with ASD (David et al. 2016) which may confound identification of
15
16 group-level differences in this frequency range.
17
18
19
20

21 Pragmatically, and from a biomarker development perspective, stage II sleep was the
22
23 brain state most reliably determined and standardized in the EEGs of these subjects. While the
24
25 maximally awake and alert state in TD subjects generally can be determined with both
26
27 behavioral and EEG means, it is more difficult to make this determination in young children with
28
29 ASD, and cooperation in performing an attentional task can be variable across the spectrum. For
30
31 a biomarker to be useful in clinical work, it is critical for the underlying measurements to be
32
33 performed reliably, using methods that are well tolerated by individuals in the intended clinical
34
35 population. Scalp EEG can be measured noninvasively with low-cost equipment that is easily
36
37 used in outpatient, pediatric settings, with well-defined staff training, offering potential
38
39 advantages over other neurophysiologic and neuroimaging measurement techniques that are well
40
41 suited to scientific discovery research.
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 Some authors have discussed ethical questions in relationship to the diagnosis of ASD,
49
50 including whether it is better viewed as a disorder or an identity (Hens et al., 2018). This project
51
52 has focused on biological aspects of the condition and has studied individuals who are
53
54 experiencing life impairments; our findings are best viewed as observations about biological
55
56 variability between ASD+ and ASD- groups, and particularly differences which may emerge
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 early in life. While it is premature to resolve questions of how such a biomarker could be used to
5
6 mitigate impairment and suffering, it is worthwhile to ensure that a broad-based discussion take
7
8 place about the full ethical, philosophical, biomedical, and clinical ramifications of any
9
10 biological marker that might identify those at elevated risk for the future development of the
11
12 findings of ASD.
13
14

15
16 Limitations of the current work include the sample size, potential variability across sites
17
18 in both clinical and EEG technique, and issues around generalizability of findings from subjects
19
20 with TSC who are enrolled at specialized academic centers. To evaluate the use of elevated
21
22 alpha relative power in stage II sleep as a marker to aid in the evaluation of children for possible
23
24 ASD, additional research is needed. This would involve confirmatory work with children drawn
25
26 from a variety of clinical settings (general pediatric offices as well as academic centers of
27
28 excellence) and followed to ages greater than 36 months. Both ASD+ and ASD- groups in this
29
30 sample were predominantly Caucasian, limiting generalization to other populations. A further
31
32 concern is that nearly all the ASD+ individuals persisted in the study, while a substantial fraction
33
34 of the ASD- subjects were lost to follow-up; while the range of reasons for this loss are not
35
36 known, it is possible that the ASD+ subjects' behavioral disturbances led families to be more
37
38 connected with the study, while the children developing without ASD symptoms and
39
40 impairments were less so, with potential impact on the generalizability of our findings because of
41
42 the different drop out rates.
43
44
45
46
47
48

49
50 In summary, our finding of an age-related elevation in alpha power in TSC children with
51
52 ASD supports the possibility of using sleep EEG as a window into the neurophysiology of ASD.
53
54 This has potential both for understanding the developmental and maturational aspects of the
55
56 syndrome, and for identifying potential therapeutic molecular targets and measuring engagement
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

with them. Additional work could replicate and extend these observations in populations with TSC and as well as with children without co-occurring neurological disorders.

Figure Captions

1
2
3
4 *Figure I.* Group differences at 24 months between ASD+ and ASD- subjects. ASD+ subjects
5
6 exhibited higher values of alpha power which were significant centrally and parieto-occipitally,
7
8 on both left and right sides, and temporally on the left.
9

10
11
12
13
14 *Figure II.* Example False Discovery Rate plot at 24 months. From this analysis, it was
15
16 determined that up to seven modules could merit exploration among the alpha relative power
17
18 measures.
19

20
21
22
23
24 *Figure III.* Topography of Differences in Alpha Absolute Power at 24 months
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54

55 Figure I top
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

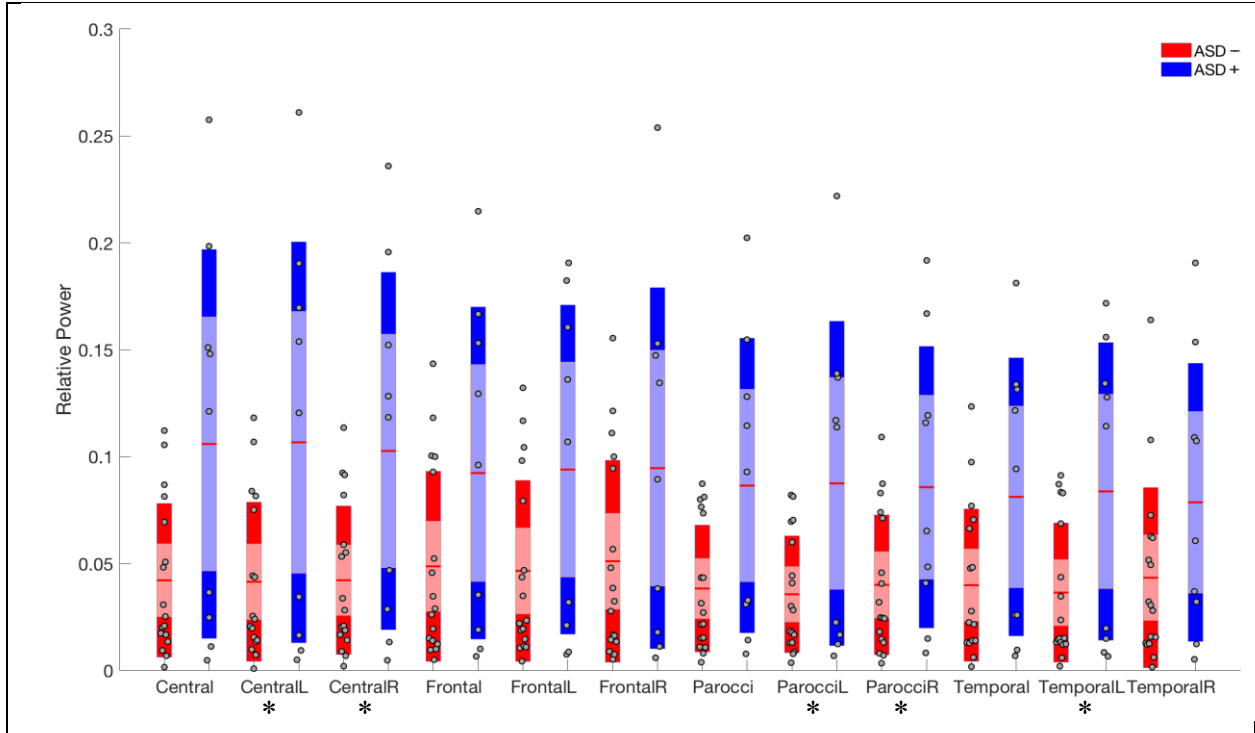


Fig I Group differences at 24 months. ASD+ subjects exhibited higher values of alpha power which was significant centrally and parieto-occipally, on both left and right sides, and temporally on the left

* Indicates statistically significant difference

Figure II top

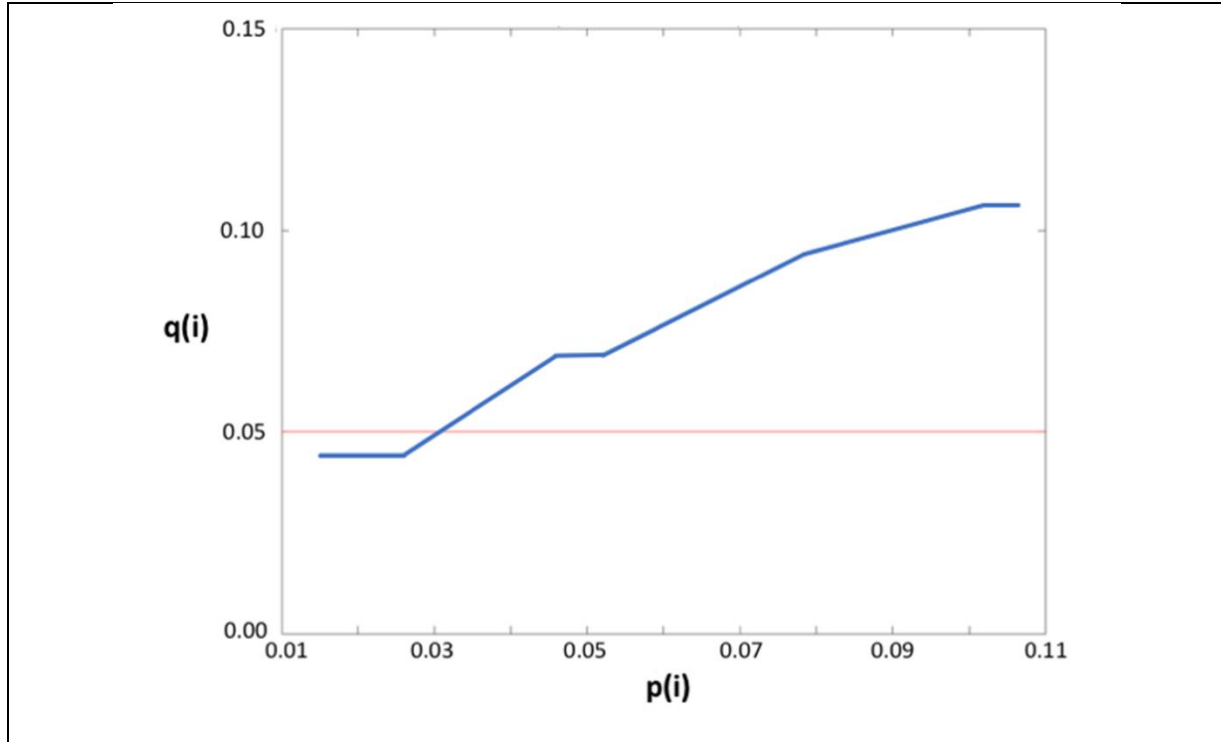


Fig II Example False Discovery Rate plot at 24 months. From this analysis, it was determined that up to seven modules could merit exploration among the alpha relative power measures

Figure III top

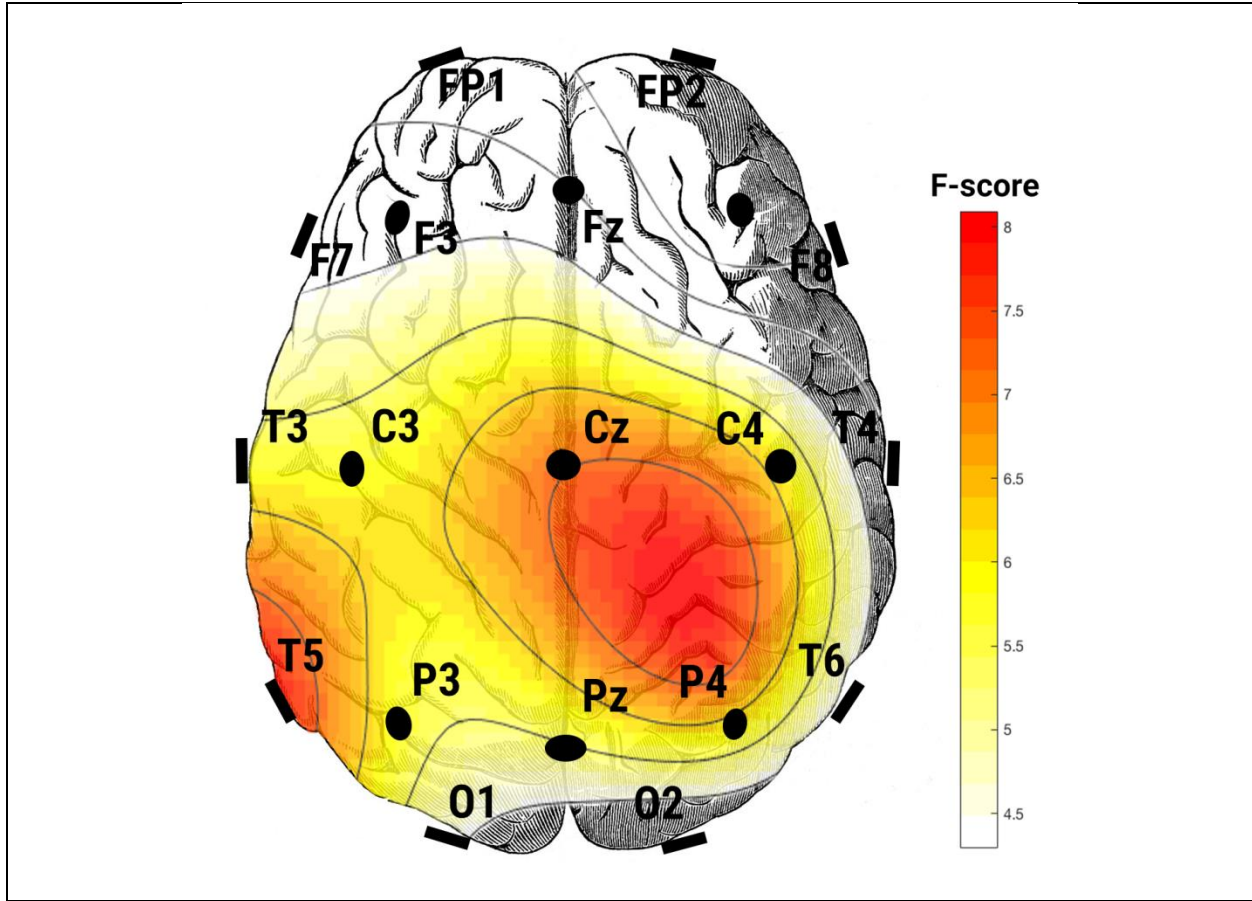


Fig III Topography of Differences in Alpha Absolute Power at 24 months

Table I. Subject characteristics

Group	24 Month Visit	18 Month Visit	12 Month Visit
ASD+	N=9 4F:5M age 23.78 (sd=0.67) mo. Race: 7 White, 1 African American, 1 Asian. Ethnicity: Hispanic 1	N=9 4F:5M age 17.56 (sd=0.73) Race: 7 White, 1 African American, 1 Asian.	N=9 4F:5M age 11.78 (sd=0.83) Race: 7 White, 1 African American, 1 Asian.
ASD-	N=17 8F:9M age 24.29 (sd=1.61) mo. Race: 16 White, 1 Asian.	N=16 8F:8M age 17.63 (sd=0.72) Race: 15 White, 1 Asian.	N=16 8F:8M age 12.13 (sd=0.81) Race: 15 White, 1 Asian.

Table II. Group Differences at 24 months

Band (measure)	Module	Values (mean (sd)) F score, P value	Channel	F score, P value
Alpha (relative power)	Central	ASD+ 0.106 (0.091) ASD- 0.042 (0.036) F 6.609, p 0.017		
	Central left	ASD+ 0.107 (0.094) ASD- 0.041 (0.037) F 6.489, p 0.018		
	Central right	ASD+ 0.103 (0.084) ASD- 0.042 (0.035) F 6.854, p 0.015		
			C3	ASD+ 0.112 (0.109) ASD- 0.042 (0.040) F 5.773, p 0.024
			C4	ASD+ 0.104 (0.088) ASD- 0.043 (0.036) F 6.381, p 0.019
			Cz	ASD+ 0.101 (0.081) ASD- 0.041 (0.035) F 7.061, p 0.014
	Par-Occ	ASD+ 0.086 (0.069) ASD- 0.038 (0.030) F 6.284, p 0.019		
	Par-Occ left	ASD+ 0.087 (0.076) ASD- 0.036 (0.027) F 6.543, p 0.017		
	Par-Occ right	ASD+ 0.086 (0.066) ASD- 0.040 (0.033) F 5.684, p 0.025		
			P3	ASD+ 0.085 (0.082) ASD- 0.033 (0.026) F 5.792, p 0.024
			P4	ASD+ 0.093 (0.082) ASD- 0.033 (0.032)

				F 7.596, p 0.011
			P7	ASD+ 0.098 (0.075) ASD- 0.033 (0.023) F 8.094, p 0.009
			Pz	ASD+ 0.087 (0.076) ASD- 0.034 (0.029) F 6.573, p 0.017
			O1	ASD+ 0.089 (0.078) ASD- 0.041 (0.037) F 4.583, p 0.043
	Temporal	ASD+ 0.081 (0.065) ASD- 0.040 (0.036) F 4.439, p 0.046		
	Temporal left	ASD+ 0.084 (0.070) ASD- 0.036 (0.033) F 5.670, p 0.026		
			T7	ASD+ 0.084 (0.070) ASD- 0.036 (0.033) F 5.670, p 0.026
Gamma (absolute power)	Frontal	ASD+ 46.51 (32.36) ASD- 26.10 (18.25) F 4.292, p 0.049		
			F3	ASD+ 50.45 (30.42) ASD- 29.31 (21.61) F 4.244, p 0.050
(not significant after FDR adjustment)	F4	ASD+ 55.59 (34.87) ASD- 28.10 (20.84) F 5.990, p 0.022		

REFERENCES

- 1
2
3
4 American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders*
5
6 *(DSM-5®)*. American Psychiatric Pub.
7
8
9
10 Armitage, R., Trivedi, M., & Rush, J. A. (1995). Fluoxetine and oculomotor activity during sleep
11
12 in depressed patients. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, *12*(2), 159.
13
14
15 Buchmann, A., Ringli, M., Kurth, S., Schaerer, M., Geiger, A., Jenni, O. G., & Huber, R. (2010).
16
17 EEG sleep slow-wave activity as a mirror of cortical maturation. *Cerebral Cortex*, *21*(3),
18
19 607-615.
20
21
22
23 Bruni, O., Cortesi, F., Giannotti, F., Curatolo, P. (1995). Sleep disorders in tuberous sclerosis: a
24
25 polysomnographic study. *Brain & Development*, *17*(1):52-6
26
27
28 Catalano, D., Holloway, L., & Mpofu, E. (2018). Mental Health Interventions for Parent Carers
29
30 of Children with Autistic Spectrum Disorder: Practice Guidelines from a Critical
31
32 Interpretive Synthesis (CIS) Systematic Review. *International Journal of Environmental*
33
34 *Research and Public Health*, *15*(2), 341.
35
36
37
38 Çetin, Ö.E., Korkmaz, B., Alev, G., & Demirbilek, V. (2017). EEG abnormalities and long term
39
40 seizure outcome in high functioning autism. *Acta Neurologica Belgica*, *117*(3), 729-732.
41
42
43
44 Christensen, D. L., Bilder, D. A., Zahorodny, W., Pettygrove, S., Durkin, M. S., Fitzgerald, R.
45
46 T., ... & Yeargin-Allsopp, M. (2016). Prevalence and characteristics of autism spectrum
47
48 disorder among 4-year-old children in the autism and developmental disabilities
49
50 monitoring network. *Journal of Developmental & Behavioral Pediatrics*, *37*(1), 1-8.
51
52
53
54 Cohen, S., Conduit, R., Lockley, S. W., Rajaratnam, S. M., & Cornish, K. M. (2014). The
55
56 relationship between sleep and behavior in autism spectrum disorder (ASD): a review.
57
58
59 *Journal of Neurodevelopmental Disorders*, *6*(1), 44.
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1
2
3
4 David, N., Schneider, T. R., Peiker, I., Al-Jawahiri, R., Engel, A. K., & Milne, E. (2016).
5
6 Variability of cortical oscillation patterns: A possible endophenotype in autism spectrum
7
8 disorders? *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, *71*, 590-600.
9
10
11
12 Fernandez, B. A., & Scherer, S. W. (2017). Syndromic autism spectrum disorders: moving from
13
14 a clinically defined to a molecularly defined approach. *Dialogues in Clinical*
15
16 *Neuroscience*, *19*(4), 353–371.
17
18
19
20 Gabard-Durnam, L.J., Wilkinson, C., Kapur, K., Tager-Flusberg, H., Levin, A.R., Nelson, C.A.
21
22 (2019) Longitudinal EEG power in the first postnatal year differentiates autism outcomes.
23
24 *Nature Communications*. *10*(1):4188
25
26
27
28 Hens K, Robeyns I, Schaubroeck K. (2019). The ethics of autism. *Philosophy Compass*.
29
30 14:e12559.
31
32
33
34 Hodge, D., Carollo, T.M., Lewin, M., Hoffman, C.D., Sweeney, D.P. (2014) Sleep patterns in
35
36 children with and without autism spectrum disorders: developmental comparisons.
37
38 *Research in Developmental Disabilities*. *35*(7), 1631-8.
39
40
41
42 Hunt, A. (1993) Development, behaviour and seizures in 300 cases of tuberous sclerosis. *Journal*
43
44 *of Intellectual Disability Research*. *37*(Pt 1), 41-51
45
46
47
48 Johnson, C. R., Smith, T., DeMand, A., Lecavalier, L., Evans, V., Gurka, M., ... & Scahill, L.
49
50 (2018). Exploring sleep quality of young children with autism spectrum disorder and
51
52 disruptive behaviors. *Sleep Medicine*, *44*, 61-66.
53
54
55
56
57 Kharoshankaya, L., Murray, D.M., Bogue, C., Ahearne, C., Murphy, B.P., Boylan, G.B. (2016)
58
59 Early EEG findings in tuberous sclerosis complex presenting with apneic seizures soon
60
61 after birth. *Clinical Neurophysiology*. *127*(10), 3265-7.
62
63
64
65

1
2
3
4 Köse, S. Yilmaz, H., Ocakoğlu, F. T., & Özbaran, N.B. (2017). Sleep problems in children with
5
6 autism spectrum disorder and intellectual disability without autism spectrum disorder.

7
8
9 *Sleep Medicine*, 40, 69-77.

10
11
12 Kurth, S., Ringli, M., Geiger, A., LeBourgeois, M., Jenni, O. G., & Huber, R. (2010). Mapping
13
14 of Cortical Activity in the First Two Decades of Life: A High-Density Sleep

15
16
17 Electroencephalogram Study. *The Journal of Neuroscience: The Official Journal of the*
18
19 *Society for Neuroscience*, 30(40), 13211–13219.

20
21
22 Landa, R. J. (2018). Efficacy of early interventions for infants and young children with, and at
23
24 risk for, autism spectrum disorders. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 30(1), 25-39.

25
26
27 Levin AR, Varcin KJ, O'Leary HM, Tager-Flusberg H, Nelson CA. (2017) EEG power at 3
28
29 months in infants at high familial risk for autism. *Journal of Neurodevelopmental*

30
31
32 *Disorders*. 9(1), 34.

33
34
35 Maxwell, C. R., Villalobos, M. E., Schultz, R. T., Herpertz-Dahlmann, B., Konrad, K., & Kohls,
36
37 G. (2015). Atypical laterality of resting gamma oscillations in autism spectrum disorders.

38
39
40 *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, 45(2), 292-297.

41
42
43 Mitchell, R., Barton, S., Harvey, A. S., & Williams, K. (2017). Risk factors for the development
44
45 of autism spectrum disorder in children with tuberous sclerosis complex: protocol for a

46
47
48 systematic review. *Systematic Reviews*, 6, 49.

49
50
51 Modabbernia, A., Velthorst, E., & Reichenberg, A. (2017). Environmental risk factors for

52
53
54 autism: an evidence-based review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses. *Molecular*
55
56 *Autism*, 8, 13.

- 1
2
3
4 Novelli, L., D'atri, A., Marzano, C., Finotti, E., Ferrara, M., Bruni, O., & De Gennaro, L. (2016).
5
6 Mapping changes in cortical activity during sleep in the first 4 years of life. *Journal of*
7
8 *Sleep Research*, 25(4), 381-389.
9
- 10
11 van Diessen, E., Senders, J., Jansen, F. E., Boersma, M., & Bruining, H. (2015). Increased power
12
13 of resting-state gamma oscillations in autism spectrum disorder detected by routine
14
15 electroencephalography. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience*,
16
17 265(6), 537-540.
18
19
- 20
21 Tierney, A.L., Gabard-Durnam, L., Vogel-Farley, V., Tager-Flusberg, H., Nelson, C.A. (2012)
22
23 Developmental trajectories of resting EEG power: an endophenotype of autism spectrum
24
25 disorder. *PLoS One*. 7(6), e39127.
26
27
- 28
29 Trickett, J., Heald, M., Oliver, C., Richards, C. (2018) A cross-syndrome cohort comparison of
30
31 sleep disturbance in children with Smith-Magenis syndrome, Angelman syndrome,
32
33 autism spectrum disorder and tuberous sclerosis complex. *Journal of*
34
35 *Neurodevelopmental Disorders*. 10(1), 9.
36
37
- 38
39 Verhoeff ME, Blanken LME, Kocevskaja D, Mileva-Seitz VR, Jaddoe VWV, White T, Verhulst F,
40
41 Luijk MPCM, Tiemeier H. (2018). The bidirectional association between sleep problems
42
43 and autism spectrum disorder: a population-based cohort study. *Molecular Autism*. 9, 8.
44
45
46
47
- 48 Yasuhara, A. (2010). Correlation between EEG abnormalities and symptoms of autism
49
50 spectrum disorder (ASD). *Brain and Development*. 32(10), 791-798.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Supplemental Materials

EEG Recording Equipment and Data Format Conversion

Investigators at BCH, CCHMC, and UAB used the Natus EEG recording system (Natus Medical, Inc., Pleasanton, CA). EEG event markers were exported using the ‘Natus Wave’ software, and formatted for import into BVA. All Natus EEG files (natively in ERD format) were converted to EDF in BVA and comments are then imported.

The UTH program used the Nihon-Koden recording system (Nihon Koden America, Irvine, CA). These files were converted to EDF format using the BVA software.

The program at UCLA used the Stellate Harmonie 7.0 recording system (Stellate Systems, Inc., Montreal, Quebec). The tool ‘Stellate Signal File Browser’ was used to convert this system’s files to EDF format.

Recording Montages (Channels Included):

Sites: Birmingham (UAB), Boston (BCH), Cincinnati (CCHMC), Houston (UTH), and UCLA

All Sites Recorded the Following Channels:

A1, A2, C3, C4, Cz, F3, F4, F7, F8, Fp1, Fp2, Fz, O1, O2, P3, P4, Pz, T7 (T3), T8 (T4), P7 (T5), P8 (T6)

Non-Overlapping Channels

Channels: Fpz

Recorded at: Birmingham (UAB), Boston (BCH), Cincinnati (CCHMC), Houston (UTH)

Channels: T1, T2

Recorded at: Houston (UTH) and UCLA

Authors Note

IC, JP, MG, MB, HN, DK, AL, and MS conceived of the study and participated in its design and coordination. IC and AL drafted the manuscript. All authors performed the measurements. IC, AW, and AL participated in data analysis and the interpretation of the results. All authors read, edited and approved of the final manuscript.

Ian A. Cook, MD, Neuromodulation Division, UCLA Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior; Department of Psychiatry & Biobehavioral Sciences, UCLA David Geffen School of Medicine; Department of Bioengineering, UCLA Henry Samueli School of Engineering at Applied Science, Los Angeles, CA, USA.

Andrew C. Wilson, BS, Neuromodulation Division, UCLA Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior, Los Angeles, CA, USA.

Jurriaan M. Peters, MD, PhD, Division of Epilepsy and Clinical Neurophysiology; Department of Neurology, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

Monisha N. Goyal, MD, Department of Neurology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL, USA.

Martina Bebin, MD, MPA, Department of Neurology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL, USA.

Hope Northrup, MD, Department of Pediatrics, McGovern Medical School, University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, Houston, TX, USA.

Darcy Kreuger, MD, PhD, Department of Neurology and Rehabilitation Medicine, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH, USA.

Andrew F. Leuchter, MD, Neuromodulation Division, UCLA Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior; Department of Psychiatry & Biobehavioral Sciences, UCLA David Geffen School of Medicine, Los Angeles, CA, USA.

Mustafa Sahin, MD, PhD, Department of Neurology, Harvard Medical School, Harvard University; F.M. Kirby Neurobiology Center, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

Simon K. Warfield, PhD, Department of Radiology, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

Deborah Pearson, PhD, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, McGovern Medical School, University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, Houston, TX, USA.

Marian E. Williams, PhD, Keck School of Medicine of USC, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, USA.

Ellen Hanson, PhD, Department of Developmental Medicine, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

Nicole Bing, PsyD, Department of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH, USA.

Bridget Kent, MA, CCC-SLP, Department of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH, USA.

Sarah O'Kelley, PhD, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL, USA.

Rajna Filip-Dhima, MS, Department of Neurology, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

Kira Dies, ScM, CGC, Department of Neurology, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

Stephanie Bruns, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH, USA.

Benoit Scherrer, PhD, Department of Radiology, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

Gary Cutter, PhD, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Data Coordinating Center, Birmingham, AL, USA.

Donna S. Murray, PhD, Autism Speaks, Boston, MA, USA.

Steven L. Roberds, PhD, Tuberous Sclerosis Alliance, Silver Spring, MD, USA.

Research reported in this publication was supported by the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke of the National Institutes of Health (NINDS) and Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health & Human Development (NICHD) under Award Number U01NS082320. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

We are sincerely indebted to the generosity of the families and patients in Tuberous Sclerosis Complex (TSC) clinics across the United States who contributed their time and effort to this study. We would also like to thank the Tuberous Sclerosis Alliance for their continued support in TSC research.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to:

Andrew Leuchter, MD
760 Westwood Plaza, #57-456
Los Angeles, CA 90024
afl@ucla.edu
P: 310-825-0207
F: 310-825-7642