

# Sleep-Disordered Breathing and Psychopathology: A Complex Web of Questions and Answers

Daniel E Ehrmann<sup>1\*</sup>, Bertram Pitt<sup>2</sup> and Patricia J Deldin<sup>3,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

<sup>2</sup>University of Michigan Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Cardiology, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

<sup>3</sup>University of Michigan Department of Psychology, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

<sup>4</sup>University of Michigan Department of Psychiatry, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

## Abstract

Sleep-disordered breathing is common but under-diagnosed. This is concerning given the emerging empirical relationships between severe forms of sleep-disordered breathing, such as obstructive sleep apnea syndrome, and various forms of psychopathology including major depressive disorder, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, schizophrenia and post-traumatic stress disorder. Inflammatory pathways may mediate part of the relationship between sleep-disordered breathing and psychopathology, but the strength and directionality of these processes and associations remains unknown. It may be appropriate to have a heightened index of suspicion for SDB and psychopathology in individuals at higher baseline risk for their co-morbidity. Further investigation in larger, longitudinal, well-controlled studies is needed to understand the relationship of SDB and psychopathology.

**Keywords:** Sleep-disordered breathing; Sleep apnea; Psychopathology; Major depressive disorder

## Introduction

Sleep Disordered Breathing (SDB) characterizes a broad range of disorders described by abnormalities in respiratory pattern and intake during sleep [1]. These range from snoring to Upper-Airway Resistance Syndrome (UARS) to its most common form, Obstructive Sleep Apnea Syndrome (OSAS) [1]. SDB in adults is more prevalent than many clinicians realize, affecting approximately ten to seventeen percent overall [2,3] with its most severe form-Obstructive Sleep Apnea (OSA)-present in five to ten percent [4-6]. SDB is not uncommon in children, tends to increase with age, and may be increasing in incidence secondary to our national obesity epidemic [5]. However, it remains one of the most elusive conditions to diagnose-as many as eighty percent of patients at risk for OSA may escape formal diagnosis [2,7]. The prevalence and elusiveness of SDB are especially concerning considering the emerging associations between SDB and various forms of psychopathology [8,9].

## The SDB-Psychopathology Web

To date, SDB has been found to be associated with many forms of psychopathology, the most well-studied of which include Major Depressive Disorder (MDD), [10-12] Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), [13-15] Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD), [16,17] schizophrenia [18,19] and Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) [20]. Additionally, theoretical evidence exists that may link SDB with worsened mood, memory and cognition. For example, the downfield sequelae of intermittent hypoxia and hypercapnia secondary to severe SDB (e.g., OSA) is associated with sympathetic activation and reduced vagal tone that is marked by release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and catecholamines. These deleterious mediators are known to contribute to relative cerebral under perfusion, neuronal oxidative stress, neurotransmitter imbalance (e.g., serotonin, glutamate), and decreased synaptic

plasticity [21-24]. This may contribute to the various functional and structural abnormalities (e.g., in the frontal cortex, amygdala, basal ganglia, hippocampus, thalamus, cerebellum and cerebral ventricles) observed in many patients with severe SDB [25-27].

Thus, there exists a pathway by which the neurohumoral activation secondary to severe SDB may potentiate the impact of mental illness. In individuals with depression, for example, OSAS is associated with resistance to both pharmacological and cognitive behavioral therapy [28,29]. Patients with treatment-resistant depression and Cardiovascular Disease (CVD) have a higher rate of cardiovascular events than those with less severe depression [30], and sleep researchers have wondered whether this is explained in part by the underlying inflammatory cascade from incipient OSA that characterizes all three conditions [21,31,32]. This is especially important considering that Continuous Positive Airway Pressure (CPAP) has been shown to diminish the inflammatory cascade, improve symptoms of at least two forms of psychopathology (MDD and ADHD), [14,33-35] and reduce cardiovascular risk [36,37].

## Many Important Questions Remain

Despite the emerging empirical associations and biochemical

**\*Corresponding author:** Daniel E Ehrmann, University of Michigan Medical School, 5124 Medical Science I (C-wing), 1301 Catherine Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 48109-5611, USA, Tel: (248) 330-6924; Fax: (734) 615-0573; E-mail: [dehrmann@umich.edu](mailto:dehrmann@umich.edu)

**Received** August 12, 2013; **Accepted** October 01, 2013; **Published** October 17, 2013

**Citation:** Ehrmann DE, Pitt B, Deldin PJ (2013) Sleep-Disordered Breathing and Psychopathology: A Complex Web of Questions and Answers. J Sleep Disorders Ther 2: 143. doi:10.4172/2167-0277.1000143

**Copyright:** © 2013 Ehrmann DE, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

underpinnings, the SDB-psychopathology web may be more entangled than ever before.

For example, one of the primary concerns has been about the true strength of the SDB-psychopathology association. The literature linking SDB with some forms of psychopathology (e.g., ADHD) remains mixed [38,39] and the alleviation of SDB has not always produced improvements in mood symptoms [40]. Furthermore, much of the data linking SDB with different forms of psychopathology, and the effect of CPAP on neuropsychiatric improvement, come from small, short-term studies [41]. Additionally, the breadth of associations linking SDB to psychopathology—ranging from depressed mood to hyperactivity to psychosis—makes critical understandable skeptical of the strength of any one association. Lastly, the tendency for sleep-deprivation, independent of its underlying cause, to worsen neurocognitive function and mood has been well documented [42,43].

The second concern involves the directionality of the SDB-psychopathology association. Methodologically, even impressive associations in cross-sectional studies fail to demonstrate causality and should be interpreted with caution, especially in light of important potential confounders like obesity. This is perhaps best demonstrated from investigations of patients with SDB and PTSD, where SDB surely does not cause PTSD. Moreover, some have even suggested that certain psychopathological states may make one more likely to have SDB. In patients with MDD, for example, it is hypothesized that reduced serotonin delivery to the pharyngeal dilators may contribute to pharyngeal collapsibility observed in OSA [28,44]. Depressed patients may also have chemoreceptor dysregulation and blunted respiratory drive in response to hypercapnia, as evidenced by their tendency to have longer apneas than controls in recent studies [45-47]. However, the failure of antidepressants to consistently improve OSA in longitudinal studies tempers the enthusiasm for these findings [48].

## Conclusions

Therefore, the take home message for clinicians and researchers is important but must be interpreted with caution. SDB has been empirically associated with various forms of psychopathology and some theoretical neurobiological links between the two may exist. Since these pathways share a profound inflammatory response that may potentiate the impact of each condition, it may be reasonable to have a heightened index of suspicion for the SDB-psychopathology relationship in certain high-risk patients.

For example, in patients with severe disorders of mood and risk factors for OSAS, it is appropriate to screen for OSAS. Clinicians should not only be aware of traditional risk factors for OSAS (e.g., obesity, family history, elderly), but also take notice of psychopathology in individuals who do not fit the high-risk stereotype but nonetheless are more likely to have an underlying sleep disorder (e.g., slender women with Chronic Fatigue Syndrome) [49]. The STOP-BANG questionnaire can be quickly administered in the office, and includes items related to snoring, feeling tired, observations of apneas, blood pressure, BMI greater than 35, age over 50, neck circumference greater than 40 cm, and male gender [50]. Positive responses to 3 or more items constitute high risk for OSA and warrants

follow-up polysomnography. Given that the diagnosis of OSA is straightforward and treatment is relatively inexpensive and beneficial for select patients (e.g. with treatment-resistant depression and CVD), this may be an appropriate approach.

Conversely, individuals with OSA at high risk for perturbations of mood (e.g., genetic predisposition, personal history) may benefit from further psychopathology screening. For example, in some patients, one can at least rule out depression by administering the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ) 2. The PHQ 2 is 97 percent sensitive for detecting depression in adults and asks “Over the past two weeks, how often have you been bothered by either little interest or pleasure in doing things or feeling down, depressed, or hopeless” [51]. A positive response to either item merits further depression screening.

However, as we learn more about the SDB-psychopathology association, there are many significant questions that remain. Specifically, in individuals that are diagnosed with either OSAS or psychopathology with no other clues to suggest their comorbidity, it may be reasonable to heed to the concerns raised by the body of research to date. Until larger, longitudinal, well-controlled studies are done to clarify the strength and directionality of the SDB-psychopathology association; it may be prudent to approach the matter of further mood and/or OSA screening for lower-risk patients on a case-by-case basis.

## References

1. Olejniczak PW, Fisch BJ (2003) Sleep disorders. *Med Clin North Am* 87: 803-833.
2. Young T, Palta M, Dempsey J, Skatrud J, Weber S, et al. (1993) The occurrence of sleep-disordered breathing among middle-aged adults. *N Engl J Med* 328: 1230-1235.
3. Peppard PE, Young T, Barnett JH, Palta M, Hagen EW, et al. (2013) Increased prevalence of sleep-disordered breathing in adults. *Am J Epidemiol*.
4. Strollo PJ, Jr., Rogers RM (1996) Obstructive sleep apnea. *N Engl J Med* 334: 99-104.
5. Young T, Peppard PE, Gottlieb DJ (2002) Epidemiology of obstructive sleep apnea: A population health perspective. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 165: 1217-1239.
6. Tishler PV, Larkin EK, Schluchter MD, Redline S (2003) Incidence of sleep-disordered breathing in an urban adult population: The relative importance of risk factors in the development of sleep-disordered breathing. *JAMA* 289: 2230-2237.
7. Finkel KJ, Searleman AC, Tymkew H, Tanaka CY, Saager L, et al. (2009) Prevalence of undiagnosed obstructive sleep apnea among adult surgical patients in an academic medical center. *Sleep medicine* 10: 753-758.
8. Sharafkhaneh A, Giray N, Richardson P, Young T, Hirshkowitz M (2005) Association of psychiatric disorders and sleep apnea in a large cohort. *Sleep* 28: 1405-1411.
9. Nasr S, Wendt B, Kora S (2010) Increased incidence of sleep apnea in psychiatric outpatients. *Ann Clin Psychiatry* 22: 29-32.
10. Deldin PJ, Phillips LK, Thomas RJ (2006) A preliminary study of sleep-disordered breathing in major depressive disorder. *Sleep medicine* 7: 131-139.
11. Peppard PE, Szklo-Coxe M, Hla KM, Young T (2006) Longitudinal association of sleep-related breathing disorder and depression. *Arch Intern Med* 166: 1709-1715.
12. Wheaton AG, Perry GS, Chapman DP, Croft JB (2012) Sleep disordered breathing and depression among u.S. Adults: National health and nutrition examination survey, 2005-2008. *Sleep* 35: 461-467.
13. Chervin RD, Archbold KH, Dillon JE, Panahi P, Pituch KJ, et al. (2002) Inattention, hyperactivity, and symptoms of sleep-disordered breathing. *Pediatrics* 109: 449-456.

14. Naseem S, Chaudhary B, Collop N (2001) Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder in adults and obstructive sleep apnea. *Chest* 119: 294-296.
15. Surman CB, Thomas RJ, Aleardi M, Pagano C, Biederman J (2006) Adults with adhd and sleep complaints: A pilot study identifying sleep-disordered breathing using polysomnography and sleep quality assessment. *J Atten Disord* 9: 550-555.
16. Sanford SD, Bush AJ, Stone KC, Lichstein KL, Aguillard N (2008) Psychometric evaluation of the beck anxiety inventory: A sample with sleep-disordered breathing. *Behav Sleep Med* 6: 193-205.
17. Reyes-Zuniga M, Castorena-Maldonado A, Carrillo-Alduenda JL, Perez-Padilla R, Martinez-Estrada A, et al. (2012) Anxiety and depression symptoms in patients with sleep-disordered breathing. *The open respiratory medicine journal* 6: 97-103.
18. Winkelman JW (2001) Schizophrenia, obesity, and obstructive sleep apnea. *J Clin Psychiatry* 62: 8-11.
19. Ancoli-Israel S, Martin J, Jones DW, Caligiuri M, Patterson T, et al. (1999) Sleep-disordered breathing and periodic limb movements in sleep in older patients with schizophrenia. *Biol Psychiatry* 45: 1426-1432.
20. Maher MJ, Rego SA, Asnis GM (2006) Sleep disturbances in patients with post-traumatic stress disorder: Epidemiology, impact and approaches to management. *CNS drugs* 20: 567-590.
21. Ehrmann DE, Deldin PJ, Pitt B (2011) Is sleep apnea a potential link between major depressive disorder and cardiovascular disease? *Int J Cardiol* 147: 1-3.
22. Popoli M, Yan Z, McEwen BS, Sanacora G (2012) The stressed synapse: The impact of stress and glucocorticoids on glutamate transmission. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 13: 22-37.
23. Hakim F, Gozal D, Kheirandish-Gozal L (2012) Sympathetic and catecholaminergic alterations in sleep apnea with particular emphasis on children. *Frontiers in neurology* 3: 7.
24. Xie H, Yung WH (2012) Chronic intermittent hypoxia-induced deficits in synaptic plasticity and neurocognitive functions: A role for brain-derived neurotrophic factor. *Acta Pharmacol Sin* 33: 5-10.
25. Thomas RJ, Rosen BR, Stern CE, Weiss JW, Kwong KK (2005) Functional imaging of working memory in obstructive sleep-disordered breathing. *J Appl Physiol* 98: 2226-2234.
26. Macey PM, Macey KE, Henderson LA, Alger JR, Frysinger RC, et al. (2003) Functional magnetic resonance imaging responses to expiratory loading in obstructive sleep apnea. *Respir Physiol Neurobiol* 138: 275-290.
27. Gozal D, Daniel JM, Dohanich GP (2001) Behavioral and anatomical correlates of chronic episodic hypoxia during sleep in the rat. *J Neurosci* 21: 2442-2450.
28. Schroder CM, O'Hara R (2005) Depression and obstructive sleep apnea (osa). *Annals of general psychiatry* 4: 13.
29. Kamholz BA, Mellow AM (1996) Management of treatment resistance in the depressed geriatric patient. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 19: 269-286.
30. Carney RM, Freedland KE (2009) Treatment-resistant depression and mortality after acute coronary syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 166: 410-417.
31. Roest AM, Carney RM, Stein PK, Freedland KE, Meyer H, et al. (2012) Obstructive sleep apnea/hypopnea syndrome and poor response to sertraline in patients with coronary heart disease. *J Clin Psychiatry* 73: 31-36.
32. Freedland KE, Carney RM, Hayano J, Steinmeyer BC, Reese RL, et al. (2012) Effect of obstructive sleep apnea on response to cognitive behavior therapy for depression after an acute myocardial infarction. *J Psychosom Res* 72: 276-281.
33. Engleman HM, Martin SE, Deary IJ, Douglas NJ (1997) Effect of cpap therapy on daytime function in patients with mild sleep apnoea/hypopnoea syndrome. *Thorax* 52: 114-149.
34. Tirosh E, Tal Y, Jaffe M (1995) Cpap treatment of obstructive sleep apnoea and neurodevelopmental deficits. *Acta Paediatr* 84: 791-794.
35. Arias MA, Garcia-Rio F, Alonso-Fernandez A, Hernanz A, Hidalgo R, et al. (2008) Cpap decreases plasma levels of soluble tumour necrosis factor-alpha receptor 1 in obstructive sleep apnoea. *Eur Respir J* 32: 1009-1015.
36. Marin JM, Carrizo SJ, Vicente E, Agusti AG (2005) Long-term cardiovascular outcomes in men with obstructive sleep apnoea-hypopnoea with or without treatment with continuous positive airway pressure: An observational study. *Lancet* 365: 1046-1053.
37. Buchner NJ, Sanner BM, Borgel J, Rump LC (2007) Continuous positive airway pressure treatment of mild to moderate obstructive sleep apnea reduces cardiovascular risk. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 176: 1274-1280.
38. O'Brien LM, Holbrook CR, Mervis CB, Klaus CJ, Bruner JL, et al. (2003) Sleep and neurobehavioral characteristics of 5- to 7-year-old children with parentally reported symptoms of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Pediatrics* 111: 554-563.
39. Galland BC, Tripp EG, Gray A, Taylor BJ (2011) Apnea-hypopnea indices and snoring in children diagnosed with adhd: A matched case-control study. *Sleep & breathing = Schlaf & Atmung* 15: 455-462.
40. Lee IS, Bardwell W, Ancoli-Israel S, Loreda JS, Dimsdale JE (2012) Effect of three weeks of continuous positive airway pressure treatment on mood in patients with obstructive sleep apnoea: A randomized placebo-controlled study. *Sleep medicine* 13: 161-166.
41. Lal C, Strange C, Bachman D (2012) Neurocognitive impairment in obstructive sleep apnea. *Chest* 141: 1601-1610.
42. Cirelli C (2009) The genetic and molecular regulation of sleep: From fruit flies to humans. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 10: 549-560.
43. Plante DT, Jensen JE, Schoerning L, Winkelman JW (2012) Reduced gamma-aminobutyric acid in occipital and anterior cingulate cortices in primary insomnia: A link to major depressive disorder? *Neuropsychopharmacology* 37: 1548-1557.
44. Adrien J (2002) Neurobiological bases for the relation between sleep and depression. *Sleep medicine reviews* 6: 341-351.
45. Carney RM, Freedland KE, Duntley SP, Rich MW (2011) Obstructive sleep apnea and major depressive disorder in cardiovascular disease. *Int J Cardiol* 149: 283-284.
46. Carney RM, Howells WB, Freedland KE, Duntley SP, Stein PK, et al. (2006) Depression and obstructive sleep apnea in patients with coronary heart disease. *Psychosom Med* 68: 443-448.
47. Damas-Mora J, Souster L, Jenner FA (1982) Diminished hypercapnic drive in endogenous or severe depression. *J Psychosom Res* 26: 237-245.
48. Smith I, Lasserson TJ, Wright J (2006) Drug therapy for obstructive sleep apnoea in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*: CD003002.
49. Libman E, Creti L, Baltzan M, Rizzo D, Fichten CS, et al. (2009) Sleep apnea and psychological functioning in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Journal of health psychology* 14: 1251-1267.
50. Chung F, Subramanyam R, Liao P, Sasaki E, Shapiro C, et al. (2012) High stop-bang score indicates a high probability of obstructive sleep apnoea. *Br J Anaesth* 108: 768-775.
51. Mitchell AJ, Coyne JC (2007) Do ultra-short screening instruments accurately detect depression in primary care? A pooled analysis and meta-analysis of 22 studies. *Br J Gen Pract* 57: 144-151.