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## OBSTRUCTIVE SLEEP APNEA IS ASSOCIATED WITH ALTERED MIDBRAIN CHEMICAL CONCENTRATIONS

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23 Abstract—Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is accompanied by altered structure and function in cortical, limbic, brainstem, and cerebellar regions. The midbrain is relatively unexamined, but contains many integrative nuclei which mediate physiological functions that are disrupted in OSA. We therefore assessed the chemistry of the midbrain in OSA in this exploratory study. We used a recently developed accelerated 2D magnetic resonance spectroscopy (2D-MRS) technique, compressed sensing-based 4D echo-planar J-resolved spectroscopic imaging (4D-EP-JRESI), to measure metabolites in the midbrain of 14 OSA (mean age  $\pm$  SD:54.6  $\pm$  10.6 years; AHI:35.0  $\pm$  19.4; SAO<sub>2</sub> min:83  $\pm$  7%) and 26 healthy control (50.7  $\pm$  8.5 years) subjects. High-resolution T1-weighted scans allowed voxel localization. MRS data were processed with custom MATLAB-based software, and metabolite ratios calculated with respect to the creatine peak using a prior knowledge fitting (ProFit) algorithm. The midbrain in OSA showed decreased N-acetylaspartate (NAA; OSA:1.24 ± 0.43, Control:1.47  $\pm$  0.41; p = 0.03; independent samples *t*-test), a marker of neuronal viability. Increased levels in OSA over control subjects appeared in glutamate (Glu; OSA:1.23  $\pm$  0.57, Control:0.98  $\pm$  0.33; p = 0.03), ascorbate (Asc;

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Abbreviations: 4D-EP-JRESI, accelerated 4D echo-planar J-resolved spectroscopic imaging; AHI, apnea–hypopnea index; BOLD, blood oxygen level dependent; CPAP, continuous positive airflow pressure; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; MRS, magnetic resonance spectroscopy; MSNA, muscle sympathetic nerve activity; NUS, non-uniform undersampling; OSA, obstructive sleep apnea; TE, echo time; TR, repetition time; VOI, volume of interest.

OSA:0.56  $\pm$  0.28, Control:0.42  $\pm$  0.20; (50.7  $\pm$  8.5 years; p = 0.03), and myo-inositol (ml; OSA:0.96  $\pm$  0.48, Control:0.72  $\pm$  0.35; p = 0.03). No differences between groups appeared in  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) or taurine. The midbrain in OSA patients shows decreased NAA, indicating neuronal injury or dysfunction. Higher Glu levels may reflect excitotoxic processes and astrocyte activation, and higher ml is also consistent with glial activation. Higher Asc levels may result from oxidative stress induced by intermittent hypoxia in OSA. Additionally, Asc and Glu are involved with glutamatergic processes, which are likely upregulated in the midbrain nuclei of OSA patients. The altered metabolite levels help explain dysfunction and structural deficits in the midbrain of OSA patients. © 2017 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of IBRO.

Neurochemical abbreviations with conventional capitalization: Asc, ascorbate; Asp, aspartate; Ch, choline; GABA, gamma-aminobutyric acid; Gln, glutamine; Glu, glutamate; Gly, glycine; GPC, glycerophosphorylcholine; GSH, glutathione; ml, myo-inositol; NAA, *N*-acetylaspartate; NAAG, *N*-acetylaspartate glutamate; PCh, phosphocholine; PE, phosphoethanolamine; Scy, scyllo-inositol; Tau, taurine; Thr, threonine.

Key words: intermittent hypoxia, autonomic, sleepdisordered breathing, periaqueductal gray, respiration, magnetic resonance spectroscopy.

## INTRODUCTION

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The defining feature of obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is 26 the occurrence of repeated airway collapses leading to 27 successive cessation and restoration of airflow during 28 sleep, with resultant exposure of the brain to intermittent 29 hypoxia, excessive CO<sub>2</sub> levels, and repeated, large 30 swings in blood pressure. Such exposures lead to 31 overall and regional sites of brain injury, which 32 presumably are responsible for multiple deficits in 33 cardiovascular, hormonal, cognitive, and memory 34 functions in the syndrome (Berry et al., 2012; Hudgel 35 et al., 2012; Franklin and Lindberg, 2015). The processes 36 underlying failure of the upper airway musculature during 37 sleep with continued diaphragmatic efforts remain 38 unclear, but several of the necessary sensory and motor 39 control elements required for eupneic breathing lie within 40 the midbrain; sites within the midbrain show injury or 41 impaired responses to challenges in OSA (Harper et al., 42 2003; Macey et al., 2003, 2006, 2008). 43 44

The damaged midbrain sites are unlikely to be solely responsible for the wide range of neural influences that

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contribute to the physiological deficits emerging in OSA. 46 The midbrain is the recipient of projections from more-47 rostral and more-caudal sites that are also damaged in 48 the syndrome, and serve essential timing and 49 modulating influences on those descending and 50 ascending projections. Among the damaged rostral sites 51 projecting to the midbrain, the insular and ventromedial 52 53 frontal cortices (Macev et al., 2008; Yaouhi et al., 2009; Joo et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2014; Tummala et al., 54 2016) exert influences on cardiovascular and breathing 55 systems; the midbrain contains many nuclei with major 56 cardiovascular and breathing modulation and timing roles. 57 While the final common pathways for outflow to upper air-58 59 way and diaphragmatic respiratory musculature and for sympathetic and parasympathetic outflow to the cardio-60 vascular system lie within the medulla, many modulatory 61 systems, including those of the midbrain, affect those out-62 flows (Davis et al., 1996; Subramanian, 2013). Principal 63 drives to both the diaphragm and the upper airway mus-64 cles are CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>, followed by transient changes in 65 blood pressure (Trelease et al., 1985). Sites within the 66 midbrain play significant roles to all three drives (Harper 67 68 et al., 1998, 2000, 2005; Woo et al., 2005). People with 69 a lack of CO<sub>2</sub> sensitivity, such as those with congenital 70 central hypoventilation syndrome, show impaired func-71 tional MRI signals in portions of the midbrain to hypercarbia, hypoxia (Macey et al., 2005), and forced expiration 72 (Macey et al., 2004, 2005). The midbrain periaqueductal 73 grav (PAG), projects to medullary cardiovascular and res-74 piratory areas, and includes lateral and dorsomedial sub-75 regions involved in respiratory musculature control (Faull 76 et al., 2015). Neurons in the PAG are synchronized with 77 breathing cycles during sleep (Ni et al., 1990), and the 78 structure is involved with modulation of respiratory rhythm 79 and activity (Dampney et al., 2013; Farmer et al., 2014; 80 Subramanian and Holstege, 2014). In animal models, 81 82 the midbrain red nuclei are involved in coordinating 83 responses to hypoxia (Waites et al., 1996; Ackland et al., 1997), a significant issue in a condition associated 84 with repeated, extreme hypoxia exposure (Berry et al., 85 2012), and is presumably mediated through projections 86 to the cerebellum (Granziera et al., 2009); the cerebellum 87 is also damaged in OSA (Macey et al., 2008), leaving 88 89 potential for impaired coordination.

90 The evidence supporting a concern for midbrain structural and functional alterations in OSA is 91 substantial, considering the injury sites and nature of 92 challenges that elicited the functional outcomes. 93 Functional MRI studies show increased activation of the 94 ventral and dorsal midbrain during inspiratory loading 95 96 exercises (Macey et al., 2006, 2003) and decreased activity during cold pressor and expiratory loading challenges 97 in OSA (Harper et al., 2003; Macey et al., 2003). Elevated 98 muscle sympathetic nerve activity (MSNA) correlates with 99 altered Blood Oxygen-Level-Dependent (BOLD) signals 100 in the midbrain in OSA, suggesting a midbrain role in elic-101 iting the high sympathetic tone in the sleep disorder 102 (Fatouleh et al., 2014; Lundblad et al., 2014). CBF is 103 decreased in the right midbrain of OSA subjects (Yadav 104 et al., 2013), which may reflect lower perfusion demand, 105

perhaps from an altered functional state (for example. 106 lower tonic activity), or impaired cerebral perfusion. Struc-107 tural changes consistent with inflammatory or glial 108 changes, namely diffusion decreases and volume 109 increases, appear in the hypothalamus in OSA 110 (Lundblad et al., 2014; Tummala et al., 2016), which pro-111 jects heavily to the midbrain (Sakuma and Tada, 1984; 112 Thompson and Swanson, 1998). The data suggest that 113 the midbrain is compromised in OSA, potentially interfer-114 ing with regulatory roles for cardiovascular and breathing 115 control, as well as other physiological functions in the dis-116 order. Although the MRI findings cannot further distin-117 guish the nature of pathologies, we can gain 118 understanding of what processes might lead to injury 119 and dysfunction by examining neurochemical levels, such 120 as markers of cellular integrity, neuronal concentration. 121 oxidative stress, and neurotransmitter levels. 122

Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) allows 123 examination of differences in OSA in relatively abundant 124 metabolites. Previous OSA spectroscopy studies found differences in neurochemical levels, such as decreased 126 *N*-acetylaspartate (NAA), a neuronal marker, and 127 increased levels of the excitatory neurotransmitter 128 glutamate, in limbic brain regions including the 129 hippocampus, thalamus, and putamen (Sarma et al., 130 2014, 2016). These findings suggest neural injury and 131 increased excitation. Using "2-dimensional" spec-132 troscopy, we showed the insulae have altered neurotrans-133 mitter levels bilaterally, including low GABA and high 134 glutamate in OSA (Macey et al., 2016). These large differ-135 ences in neurochemical levels likely affect the function of the structure, presumably leading to a more excitatory 137 state (lower inhibition from lower GABA, higher excitation 138 from higher glutamate). The insulae, key autonomic regulatory regions, project to the hypothalamus and midbrain nuclei to help regulate sympathetic outflow (Otake et al., 1994; Kurth et al., 2010); altered midbrain neurochemical levels would compromise that sympathetic regulation, as well as other functional processes. The intermittent hypoxia of OSA leads to widespread excitotoxic processes, which should be accompanied by high levels of glutamate.

The objective was to assess multiple midbrain 148 metabolites alterations in OSA subjects using 2D MRS 149 spectroscopy, and to interpret how such changes might 150 contribute to the structural and functional alterations, 151 and to the symptoms of autonomic dysfunction. The 152 evaluation required new procedures for evaluating 153 neurotransmitter levels, with a short scan time for often-154 ill patients, while still collecting spectral characteristics 155 of multiple neurotransmitters. Assessment of NAA, 156 glutamate, GABA, and other neurochemicals related to 157 oxidative stress can help understand dysfunction and 158 possible neurodegenerative processes that may be 159 Measurements of levels present in OSA. of 160 neurotransmitters contributing to function in the midbrain 161 (see Kazemi, 2006 for review) could help determine pro-162 cesses mediating the previously found structural injury, 163 assisting in understanding of mechanisms of dysfunction 164 in OSA. 165

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