Association of Hypoxia Measured by Oxygen Desaturation Index (ODI) in OSA with Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System (D-KEFS) Tests in Middle-Aged and Older Adults



A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Medicine Department of Medicine FACULTY OF MEDICINE Chulalongkorn University Academic Year 2019 Copyright of Chulalongkorn University ความสัมพันธ์ของระดับการขาดออกซิเจนซึ่งวัดโดย Oxygen Desaturation Index (ODI) ในภาวะ หยุดหายใจขณะหลับจากการอุดกั้นและพุทธิปัญญาซึ่งวัดโดย Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System (D-KEFS) ในผู้ใหญ่วัยกลางคนและผู้สูงอายุ



วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิทยาศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาอายุรศาสตร์ ภาควิชาอายุรศาสตร์ คณะแพทยศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2562 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Thesis Title	Association of Hypoxia Measured by Oxygen
	Desaturation Index (ODI) in OSA with Delis-Kaplan
	Executive Function System (D-KEFS) Tests in Middle-
	Aged and Older Adults
Ву	Mrs. Anthipa Chokesuwattanaskul
Field of Study	Medicine
Thesis Advisor	Yuttachai Likitjaroen, M.D., M.Sc., DR.MED
Thesis Co Advisor	Associate Professor NARICHA CHIRAKALWASAN, M.D.

Accepted by the FACULTY OF MEDICINE, Chulalongkorn University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Master of Science

(Professor SUTTIPONG WACHARASINDHU, M.D.)

THESIS COMMITTEE

_____ Chairman

(Associate Professor THANIN ASAWAVICHIENJINDA, M.D.,

Ph.D.) จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

...... Thesis Advisor

(Yuttachai Likitjaroen, M.D., M.Sc., DR.MED)

...... Thesis Co-Advisor

(Associate Professor NARICHA CHIRAKALWASAN, M.D.)

..... Examiner

(Associate Professor ROONGRUEDEE CHAITEERAKIJ, M.D.)

..... External Examiner

(Pirada Witoonpanich, M.D.)

อันทิพา โชคสุวัฒนสกุล : ความสัมพันธ์ของระดับการขาดออกซิเจนซึ่งวัดโดย Oxygen Desaturation Index (ODI) ในภาวะหยุดหายใจขณะหลับจากการอุดกั้นและพุทธิปัญญาซึ่งวัดโดย Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System (D-KEFS) ในผู้ใหญ่วัยกลางคนและผู้สูงอายุ. (Association of Hypoxia Measured by Oxygen Desaturation Index (ODI) in OSA with Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System (D-KEFS) Tests in Middle-Aged and Older Adults) อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก : นพ. ดร.ยุทธชัย ลิขิตเจริญ, อ.ที่ปรึกษาร่วม : รศ. พญ.นฤชา จิรกาลวสาน

วัตถุประสงค์: ศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความผิดปกติทางพุทธิปัญญา โดยเฉพาะ ทักษะในการ บริหาร วางแผน และจัดการ และการเปลี่ยนแปลงของสมอง กับการขาดออกซิเจนในภาวะหยุดหายใจขณะหลับ จากการอุดกั้นในผู้ใหญ่วัยกลางคนและผู้สูงอายุ วิธีการวิจัย: ผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยซึ่งเป็นผู้ที่เพิ่งได้รับการวินิจฉัยว่ามี ภาวะหยุดหายใจขณะหลับจากการอุดกั้นขั้นปานกลางถึงรุนแรงจากโรงพยาบาลจุฬาลงกรณ์จากการตรวจการ หายใจระหว่างนอนหลับ จะได้รับการตรวจความผิดปกติทางพุทธิปัญญาและตรวจภาพถ่ายคลื่นสะท้อน แม่เหล็กไฟฟ้าของสมอง ผลการศึกษา: ผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยทั้งหมด 17 คน เป็นผู้ชาย 8 (47%) คนและผู้หญิง 9 (53%) คน ค่าอายุมัธยฐาน คือ 57 ปี และค่า apnea-hyponea index (AHI) มัธยฐานคือ 60.6 ไม่พบ ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความผิดปกติทางพุทธิปัญญาหรือความเปลี่ยนแปลงของสมองกับระดับการขาดออกซิเจน ในภาวะหยุดหายใจขณะหลับจากการอุดกั้น เมื่อแบ่งผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยเป็นสองกลุ่มคือกลุ่มที่มีการขาดออกซิเจน ในภาวะหยุดหายใจขณะหลับจากการอุดกั้น เมื่อแบ่งผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยเป็นสองกลุ่มคือกลุ่มที่มีการขาดออกซิเจน ในภาวะหยุดหายใจขณะหลับจากการอุดกั้น เมื่อแบ่งผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยเป็นสองกลุ่มคือกลุ่มที่มีกรขาดออกซิเจน ขุนแรงและไม่รุนแรง โดยคำนึงว่ามีระดับการขาดออกซิเจนมากกว่าหรือน้อยกว่าค่ามัธยฐาน พบว่ากลุ่มที่มีการ ขาดออกซิเจนถี่กว่ามีความหนาของผิวสมองบางลงบริเวณ superior parietal ด้านขวา และกลุ่มที่มีระดับ ออกซิเจนถี่กว่า พบความหนาของผิวสมองบางลง 2 บริเวณ fontal gyrus ด้านขวา และ กลุ่มกลีบกติของ white matter ระหว่างกลุ่ม สรุป: ระดับความรุนแรงของการขาดออกซิเจนในภาวะหยุดหายใจขณะหลับจาก การอุดกั้นมีความสัมพันธ์กับการเปลี่ยนแปลงของ gray matter บริเวณ frontal และ parietal

Chulalongkorn University

สาขาวิชา อายุรศาสตร์ ปีการศึกษา 2562

ลายมือชื่อร่	นิสิต
ลายมือชื่อ	อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก
ลายมือชื่อ	อ.ที่ปรึกษาร่วม

6174077330 : MAJOR MEDICINE

KEYWORD: Hypoxia, Obstructive sleep apnea, Cognition, White matter, Cortical thickness
 Anthipa Chokesuwattanaskul : Association of Hypoxia Measured by Oxygen
 Desaturation Index (ODI) in OSA with Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System (D-KEFS)
 Tests in Middle-Aged and Older Adults. Advisor: Yuttachai Likitjaroen, M.D., M.Sc.,
 DR.MED Co-advisor: Assoc. Prof. NARICHA CHIRAKALWASAN, M.D.

Objective: This study aims to study the cognitive profile, in particular, executive function, and structural changes of the brain in obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) with regards to the degree of hypoxia and the characteristics of hypoxia in middle-aged and older adults. Method: Newly diagnosed moderate or severe OSA patients from King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, Thailand were recruited. Respiratory parameters from the polysomnography, neuropsychological test results, and MRI brain of each participant were obtained. Results: Seventeen OSA patients were included in the study, 8 (47%) men and 9 (53%) women. The median age was 57 years and the median AHI was 60.6. There was no correlation between cognitive test scores in any domain with parameters of hypoxia. There was no correlation between cortical thickness with parameters of hypoxia. Participants were then classified as having either severe or mild hypoxia based on parameters of hypoxia. Cortical thickness analysis comparing between the severe and mild group of each hypoxic feature revealed two clusters of cortical thinning at the right inferior frontal gyrus and right inferior parietal gyrus in the severe desaturation group and a cluster of cortical thinning at the superior parietal gyrus in the high oxygen desaturation index group. There was no difference in cognitive function or white matter integrity between groups. Conclusion: A higher degree of hypoxia in OSA is associated with an early change of gray matter in the frontal and parietal regions.

Field of Study: Academic Year: Medicine

2019

Student's Signature Advisor's Signature Co-advisor's Signature

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

งานวิจัยฉบับนี้ สามารถสำเร็จลุล่วงได้เนื่องจาก ความเมตตากรุณาและความช่วยเหลือเป็น อย่างดีจาก ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. นายแพทย์ยุทธชัย ลิขิตเจริญ และ รองศาสตราจารย์ แพทย์หญิง นฤชา จิรกาลวสาน ซึ่งเป็นอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก ศาสตราจารย์กิตติคุณ นายแพทย์ กัมมันต์ พันธุมจินดา และอาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์ร่วมทุกท่านที่ได้เสียสละเวลาในการให้คำปรึกษาอย่างดี เสมอมา ซึ่งผู้วิจัยกราบของพระคุณเป็นอย่างสูงไว้ ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอบพระคุณเจ้าหน้าที่และพยาบาลศูนย์นิทราเวช โรงพยาบาลจุฬาลงกรณ์ คุณยุทธชัย ศรุติ เกรียงไกร และคุณ นักจิตวิทยา สาขาประสาทวิทยา โรงพยาบาลจุฬาลงกรณ์ และเจ้าหน้าที่ภาควิชา รังสีวิทยา ที่ให้ความร่วมมือในการเก็บข้อมูลและทำการทดสอบทางจิตวิทยา ขอบพระคุณผู้ป่วยและ ผู้ดูแลทุกท่านที่เสียสละเวลาอันมีค่าในการเข้าร่วมโครงการนี้

ผู้วิจัยรู้สึกซาบซึ้งในความกรุณาของทุกท่านที่กล่าวมาตลอดจนผู้ที่ไม่ได้กล่าวนามในที่นี้ซึ่งมี ส่วนให้งานวิจัยสำเร็จลุล่วงไปได้ด้วยดี

สุดท้ายนี้ กราบของพระคุณ ครอบครัวที่ให้ความช่วยเหลือและเป็นกำลังใจตลอดมา

นอกจากนี้ งานวิจัยนี้สำเร็จลุล่วงได้รับทุนสนับนุนจาก ทุนวิจัยรัชดาภิเษกสมโภช คณะ แพทยศาสตร์ สัญญาทุนเลขที่ RA 62/065

CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

Anthipa Chokesuwattanaskul

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT (THAI)	iii
ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
1.1 Background and Rationale	1
1.2 Research Questions	
1.3 Objective	8
1.4 Hypothesis	
1.5 Conceptual Framework	15
1.6 Assumption	15
1.7 Key Words	15
1.8 Operational Definition	16
1.9 Ethical Considerations	17
1.10 Limitations	
1.11 Expected Benefits and Applications	21
1.12 Obstacles and Strategies to Solve the Problems	21
Chapter 2 Review of Related Literatures	23
2.1 The relationship between OSA and cognitive impairment	23

2.2 The association of hypoxia in OSA and cognitive impairment	27
2.3 The association of hypoxia in OSA and brain structural change	29
2.4 The association of OSA and white matter integrity	29
2.5 The association of OSA and functional changes of the brain	31
Chapter 3 Research Methodology	42
3.1 Research design	42
3.2 Research Methodology	42
3.3 Observation and Measurement	
3.4 Research Process	68
3.5 Data Collection	
3.6 Data Analysis	
Chapter 4 Result	75
4.1 Demographic data, clinical data, and neuropsychological test results	76
4.2 Association between respiratory parameters and neuropsychological test	
results	80
4.3 Defining the characteristics and severity of hypoxia in OSA	84
4.4 Neuroimaging results	87
Chapter 5 Discussion	98
5.1 Association between hypoxia and cognitive function	98
5.2 Association of hypoxia in OSA to cortical gray matter thickness	99
5.3 Association of hypoxia in OSA to white matter integrity	.100
5.4 Association of hypoxia in OSA to functional connectivity of the brain	.101
5.5 Mechanisms causing pathological changes as a result of hypoxia in OSA	.102
5.6 Limitations	.106

5.7 Conclusion	
REFERENCES	
VITA	



Chulalongkorn University

LIST OF TABLES

Page

		-
Table	1 Literature review of the association between hypoxia in obstructive sleep	
apnea	and cognitive functions in older adults	. 32
Table	2 Review of literature of structural MRI studies in OSA	. 35
Table	3 Review of literature of DTI studies in OSA	. 37
Table	4 Review of literature of fMRI studies in OSA	. 39
Table	5 Details of the neuropsychological tests	. 57
Table	6 Demographics, clinical characteristics, and respiratory parameters	. 78
Table	7 Neuropsychological test results	. 79
Table	8 Comparison of included and excluded participants	. 80
Table	9 Correlation between demographics, respiratory parameters and	
neurop	osychological test results	. 82
Table	10 Association between respiratory parameters and cognitive function	. 83

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

LIST OF FIGURES

	P	Page
Figure	1 Conceptual framework	15
Figure	2 Cortical ribbon mask	61
Figure	3 Gray matter parcellation	62
Figure	4 White matter tract FA skeleton	65
Figure	5 Outline of the research process	76
Figure	6 Correlation of hypoxic parameters and arousal index to AHI	85
Figure	7 Cortical thickness analysis: desaturation groups	89
Figure	8 Cortical thickness analysis: ODI groups	90
Figure	9 Default mode network (DMN) (axial view and sagittal view)	94
Figure	10 Central executive network (CEN) (axial view and sagittal view)	95
Figure	11 Sensory motor network (SMN) (axial view and sagittal view)	95
Figure	12 Language network (axial view).	96
Figure	13 Visual network (axial and sagittal view).	96
Figure	14 Auditory network (axial view).	97

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background and Rationale

Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is one of the most common sleep-related breathing disorder which is characterized by repeated complete or partial collapse of the upper airway despite an effort to breath during sleep (1). Symptoms of OSA vary ranging from excessive daytime sleepiness (EDS), fatigue, insomnia, snoring, observed apnea and headache. Some studies have also found OSA was associated with several diseases such as hypertension, diabetes, coronary artery disease, cardiac arrhythmia, congestive heart failure, cerebrovascular disease, cognitive disorder, and mood disorder (2-4). The standard diagnostic test is polysomnography where the presence of symptoms of OSA are accompanied by five or more predominantly obstructive respiratory events (obstructive or mixed apneas, hyponeas or respiratory effort-related arousals) per hour of sleep or in the absence of symptoms, fifteen or more obstructive

respiratory events per hour of sleep must be present in order to meet the diagnostic

criteria for OSA (5).

Some studies have reported up to 60% of the elderly have mild OSA and 17% of elderly men and 9% of elderly woman have moderate to severe OSA (6, 7). These data represented that the risk factors of OSA may increase with age. Many studies found the correlation between age and the collapsibility of the upper airway as well as the upper airway narrowing regardless of sex or obesity, which is the main mechanism contributing to the development of OSA (8-11). In addition, the fluid shifting from the periphery to the trunk and neck during sleep causes narrowing of the upper airway dimension also increases with age (12). Other non-anatomical phenotypes that contribute to the development of OSA include poor upper airway responsiveness, unstable respiratory control system (loop gain), and low respiratory arousal threshold. Evidences supporting the role of non-anatomical phenotypes in older adults are still inconclusive. Some studies suggested that factors including respiratory control system, respiratory arousal threshold, and upper airway responsiveness contributes less to the

development of OSA in older adults (10, 11, 13-16).

Other conditions that have been claimed to be associated with OSA are

cognitive disorders. However, the evidence regarding this association is inconsistent due

to the differences in research questions and research methodologies (17-23). As the elderly population is increasing globally, OSA-associated cognitive decline has become a great concern. Cognitive impairment is one of the factors that prevents older adults from living independently. The condition not only incapacitate the elderly, but also bring both economic and psychologic burden to their families. As a treatable condition that could help prevent or reverse cognitive impairment, a robust evidence supporting the association of OSA with cognitive impairment is needed.

and the second sec

functions, the common affected cognitive domains are attention or vigilance, executive

According to previous studies of the association between OSA and cognitive

function, and memory. There are also some reports of involvement in the processing

speed and visuospatial or constructional ability but language is often spared (19-21, 23-

27). OSA also increases the risk as well as accelerates the onset of mild cognitive

impairment or dementia. Furthermore, several longitudinal studies have demonstrated

a decrease in global cognition in OSA compared to control after the OSA patient had

been followed for several years in both cognitively normal individual and those with

mild cognitive impairment (28-31).

The two main effects of OSA are hypoxia and sleep fragmentation (3). Some proposed that both hypoxia and sleep fragmentation contribute to cognitive impairment. Several studies that tried to determine the effect of each individual components have provided conflicting results (18, 32, 33). While some studies found that higher degree of hypoxia correlates to decreased attention/vigilance, memory, executive function, and global cognition, others found no association between hypoxia and the decline cognitive function in any domain (18, 19, 23, 25, 27, 34). Some studies found that only the severity of hypoxia is associated with higher risk of mild cognitive impairment or dementia while sleep fragmentation did not (20, 21, 23, 35). Although there have been more evidence pointing toward hypoxia as the main culprit, some argued that sleepiness associated with sleep fragmentation caused attention impairment which contributed the underperformance of all other cognitive domains (18, 23). However, evidence have emerged against the later argument as improvement in sleepiness did not always correlate with improvement in cognitive function. Of note, in studies where treatment for OSA alleviated symptoms of sleepiness, cognitive

functions were not fully reversed (19). Future studies that could characterize the extent

that these two factors affect the functions and structures of the brain is needed.

Hypoxia and sleep fragmentation were alleged to cause both direct and indirect adverse effects to the brain. The direct effects of hypoxia include the hypoxic injury and reoxygenation injury. The most susceptible brain areas to those effects are the prefrontal, frontal, hippocampus, and basal ganglia. This process causes endothelial dysfunction, decreased level of nitric oxide, disruption of synapses and neurotransmission, as well as, increased oxidative stress, neuroinflammation, and increased beta-amyloid burden, accumulation of amyloid plaque and phosphorylation of tau, all of which lead to neuronal loss (21-23). In addition, chronic intermittent hypoxia observed in long-standing OSA leads to vasculopathy and hypertension through increased sympathetic activation and activation of the renin-angiotensinaldosterone system, which results in cerebral small vessel disease and increased risk of stroke (20, 23). Apart from sleepiness, sleep fragmentation also plays a role in disrupting the process of memory consolidation and synaptic plasticity causing poor

memory consolidation, increased amyloid beta burden and subsequent neuronal loss

(21).

This study aimed to study the association of hypoxia in OSA with cognitive impairment in the executive function domain in older adults.

1.2 Research Questions

Primary Research Question

• Does hypoxia indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study negatively correlate, correlation coefficient of - 0.5 or more, with score from D-KEFS Tower Test in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA?

Secondary Research Questions

• Does hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from

polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement

of executive function tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-

aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA?

- Does hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement of memory tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA?
- Does hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement of attention tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA?
- Does hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement

of processing speed tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-

aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA?

• Does hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the cortical thickness measurement from magnetic resonance imaging of the brain in the prefrontal

area, regression coefficient not equal to zero?

- Does hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the fractional anisotropy (FA) values from diffusion tensor imaging study of the brain in the subcortical frontal area, regression coefficient not equal to zero?
- Does hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the resting state functional

connectivity (rsFC) from functional magnetic resonance imaging study of the

brain in the prefrontal area, regression coefficient not equal to zero?

- 1.3 Objective
 - To study the correlation between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen

desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography with score from D-KEFS Tower Test

in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.

• To study the relationship between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen

desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography with the composite measurement

of executive function tests in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe

OSA.

- To study the relationship between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography with the composite measurement of memory tests in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.
- To study the relationship between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography with the composite measurement of attention tests in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.
- To study the relationship between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography with the composite measurement of processing speed tests in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe

OSA.

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

- To study the relationship between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study with cortical thickness measurement from magnetic resonance imaging of the brain in the prefrontal area.
- To study the relationship between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen

desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study with fractional anisotropy (FA)

values from diffusion tensor imaging study of the brain in the subcortical frontal area.

• To study the relationship between hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study with resting state functional

connectivity (rsFC) from functional magnetic resonance imaging study of the brain in

the prefrontal area.

1.4 Hypothesis

Null hypothesis

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study negatively correlate, correlation coefficient of less than -

จหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

0.5, with score from D-KEFS Tower Test in middle-aged and older adults with

moderate to severe OSA.

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study does not have a significant effect on the composite measurement of executive function tests, regression coefficient equal to zero, in

middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.

- Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study does not have significant effect on the composite measurement of memory tests, regression coefficient equal to zero, in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.
- Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study does not have significant effect on the composite measurement of attention tests, regression coefficient equal to zero, in middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.
- Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study does not have significant effect on the composite

measurement of processing speed tests, regression coefficient equal to zero, in

middle-aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study does not have significant effect on the cortical thickness measurement from magnetic resonance imaging of the brain in the prefrontal area,

regression coefficient equal to zero.

- Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study does not have significant effect on the fractional anisotropy (FA) values from diffusion tensor imaging study of the brain in the subcortical frontal area, regression coefficient equal to zero.
- Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study does not have significant effect on the resting state

functional connectivity (rsFC) from functional magnetic resonance imaging study of

the brain in the prefrontal area, regression coefficient equal to zero.

Alternative hypothesis

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from

polysomnography study negatively correlate, correlation coefficient of -0.5 or

more, with score from D-KEFS Tower Test in middle-aged and older adults with

moderate to severe OSA.

ullet Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from

polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement

of executive function tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-

aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.

ullet Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from

polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement

of memory tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-aged and

older adults with moderate to severe OSA.

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement of attention tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-aged and

older adults with moderate to severe OSA.

ิจุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from

polysomnography study has a significant effect on the composite measurement

of processing speed tests, regression coefficient not equal to zero, in middle-

aged and older adults with moderate to severe OSA.

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from

polysomnography study has a significant effect on the cortical thickness

measurement from magnetic resonance imaging of the brain in the prefrontal area,

regression coefficient not equal to zero.

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from

polysomnography study has a significant effect on the fractional anisotropy (FA)

values from diffusion tensor imaging study of the brain in the subcortical frontal

area, regression coefficient not equal to zero.

• Hypoxia during sleep indicating by oxygen desaturation index (ODI) from polysomnography study has a significant effect on the resting state functional

connectivity (rsFC) from functional magnetic resonance imaging study of the brain in

the prefrontal area, regression coefficient not equal to zero.

จุฬาลงกรณมหาวทยาลย Chulalongkorn University

1.5 Conceptual Framework

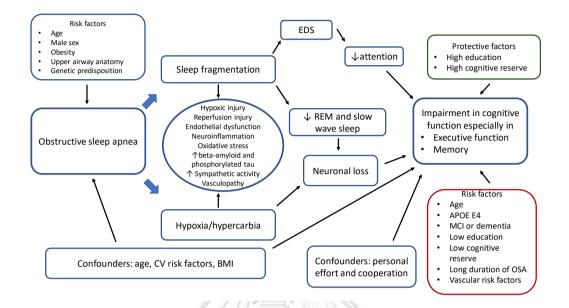


Figure 1 Conceptual framework

1.6 Assumption

All participants are diagnosed with moderate to severe OSA based on a split-

night polysomnography according to the International Classification of Sleep Disorders

- third edition(5). Cognitive functions are measured using a standardized neurocognitive

test administered by a certified psychologist, all tests will be administered in Thai

language.

1.7 Key Words

Obstructive sleep apnea

Cognitive impairment

Memory

Executive function

Elderly

Magnetic resonance imaging

1.8 Operational Definition

Obstructive sleep apnea (5)

1. Signs or symptoms of OSA or associated medical or psychiatric disorder coupled

with five or more predominantly obstructive respiratory events per hour of

sleep during PSG or

าหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

2. In the absence of associated symptoms or disorders, fifteen or more

predominantly obstructive respiratory events per hour of sleep during PSG

Apnea (36)

1. There is a drop in the peak signal excursion of airflow by \geq 90 % of pre-event

baseline and

2. The duration of the \ge 90% drop in airflow is \ge 10 seconds

- 1. The peak signal excursions of airflow drop by \geq 30% of pre-event baseline and
- 2. The duration of the \geq 30% drop in airflow signal excursion is \geq 10 seconds and
- 3. There is a \geq 3% oxygen desaturation from the pre-event baseline or the event

is associated with an arousal

Severity of OSA (37)

- 1. moderate OSA = AHI 15-30
- 2. severe OSA = AHI > 30
- 1.9 Ethical Considerations

Respect for person

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

All participants were fully informed on the objective and research process.

Participants were admitted to the research at their own will and were permitted to

withdraw from the study at any time, their decision does not cause any change to their

plan of treatment.

Beneficence/Non-malificence

Participants would benefit from a through neuropsychological assessment and neuroimaging of the brain by knowing the current status of their own cognitive impairment and brain structural changes, as well as other deficits that may be found by the test. Abnormalities were thoroughly investigated, treated to reverse or prevent further decline of function. Aside from stress and fatigue, there is no harm from neuropsychological assessment or magnetic resonance imaging of the brain.

Confidentiality

All participant's information in the research were kept confidential, no information is to be disclosed to other party without the participant's consent. Name and hospital number of participants were collected for data collection and analysis during the study period.

Justice

Participants were selected by inclusion and exclusion criteria on a consecutive

case basis.

1.10 Limitations

As a cross-sectional study, causality cannot be claimed of any associations.

Subjects were recruited from the Excellence Center for Sleep Disorders at King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital which is a tertiary care center, therefore, the results might not represent the general population. Moreover, most subjects in this study had sleep-related problems which led them to undergo polysomnography and therefore might not address the whole spectrum of cases with OSA that manifests without sleeprelated symptoms. Obtaining duration of OSA might not be accurate due to the recall bias of the onset. Differences in the duration of symptoms is thought to be one of the key factors affecting cognition, therefore, a longitudinal study design of several years

would be more informative.

Although patients included in this study have moderate to severe OSA, there is

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

a night to night variability in the degree of hypoxia and arousal. Implying that the

measured parameters from polysomnography might be more or less severe than their

average nights. The proportion that participants spend in the supine position is one of

the factors that determine the severity of OSA in that night, sleeping in the supine

position leads to more apnea or hypopnea than in other positions.

Measures from polysomnography of hypoxia and sleep fragmentation also might not fully reflect the true severity of each features. Hypoxia is measured using the oxygen desaturation index (ODI) and T90, thereby, assigning equal severity to every single desaturation event and treating desaturation below SpO2 90% equal to desaturation below SpO2 of 80% or 70%. Likewise, sleep fragmentations are counted as time per hour. A more accurate measurement of each feature could better represent the true degree of hypoxia and sleep fragmentation.

Performance on neuropsychological tests largely depends on the participant's cooperation. Limiting the neuropsychological tests duration to less than two hours and

allowing breaks in between help prevent fatigue but does limit the number of tests

applied. Some of the tests still lack normative data in Thai population.

Regarding neuroimaging studies, each technique has its own limitations. Voxel-

based morphometry is one of the most widely used analysis, however, the technique

varies between laboratories. Cortical thickness measurement is quite consistent, but

the measurement does not take into account subcortical areas. While functional

connectivity in resting state functional MRI varies less than task functional MRI, there is

still some variability depending on the subject's state, for example, excited, sleepy, or tired, etc.

1.11 Expected Benefits and Applications

OSA has been regarded as one of the reversible causes of cognitive impairment,

but the association between each effect of sleep and cognitive domain is still unclear.

Besides demonstrating the association between hypoxia in OSA and impairment in

executive functions in older adults, this study also provides further understanding of

the pathophysiological effect of hypoxia in OSA on the brain. As both functional and

structural imaging are used, brain structural changes as a result of hypoxia could be

detected earlier and might even be reversible.

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

The result may provide patients with more compelling resolution to seek and

adhere to treatment of OSA to reverse or stabilize certain cognitive impairment as well

as be able to provide a fair expectation of certain cognitive impairment, which is

remediable and that which is unresponsive to treatment.

1.12 Obstacles and Strategies to Solve the Problems

Some neuropsychological tests might be stressful to participants and the participants might not fully cooperate on some tests. To minimize the stress, psychologists administering the test should not put pressure on subjects and also take note of subject cooperation during each test. Furthermore, the assessment duration was limited to one hour and a half to reduce risk of fatigue on participants. Participants who are claustrophobic or could not complete the brain MR imaging by any means were excluded from the study.

> จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

Chapter 2 Review of Related Literatures

Studies of the relationship between OSA and cognitive impairment in older

adults have provided mixed results in many aspects such as the cognitive domain

affected, association of the degree of OSA to the degree of cognitive impairment,

association of OSA to the risk of developing mild cognitive impairment or dementia,

cognitive outcome after treatment with CPAP, and imaging findings in OSA. However,

some prominent trends could be inferred from these past studies. Review of evidences

and hypothesis for each aspects of the association between OSA and cognitive function

will be presented below.

2.1 The relationship between OSA and cognitive impairment

Not all OSA patients develop cognitive impairment. Several factors were alleged

to predispose an individual to the negative effect of OSA on cognition, namely, pre-

existing mild cognitive impairment or dementia and APOE E4 positive status (38-40). On

the other hand, those with higher cognitive reserve or higher education are more

resilient (41). The severity of OSA also should be considered, some community-based

studies that included only mild to moderate OSA found no relationship between

measurements of the severity of OSA (number of apnea or hypopnea events per hour,

hypoxia, or sleep fragmentation) and cognition (20, 42-45). While some studies reported

that the severity of OSA or hypoxia correlates to the degree of global cognitive

impairment and impairment in certain cognitive domains, thus suggesting that there

may be a threshold effect of OSA severity on cognition (17, 40).

The proposed mechanisms are consistent with brain imaging findings in OSA

patients where structural changes in both white matter and gray matter represent

permanent damage caused by OSA that could not be fully reversed with treatment.

Another finding in OSA patients compared to controls were the increase of brain white

matter lesions especially in the frontal lobe and decreased grey matter volume in

several areas mostly associated with memory and executive functions, for example,

hippocampus, caudate, frontal lobe, etc (18, 21-23, 46-54). Brain functional imaging also

portrayed a similar picture showing hypometabolism in the prefrontal, pareito-

temporal, hippocampus, cingulate, cuneus, and precuneus areas (55).

Currently, continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP) is the first-line treatment in most patients. There are reports that treatment with CPAP improves cognitive function and delays the onset of mild cognitive impairment but the improvements are mostly partial and only seen in some certain cognitive domains. The lack of efficacy of the treatment could in part be confounded by the poor compliance with CPAP in many studies, reports have found that around half of patients prescribed CPAP did not use it or used it less than four hours per night (11). Also, the aforementioned structural changes in certain areas might not be fully reversible with treatment.

Studies of the association between cognitive function and OSA have been

carried-out in all populations, both adults and children, but few focused only on older

adults. Most studies included middle-aged patients more than older adults with mean ages ranging from 50s-60s and the maximum mean age amongst studies belongs to Ju et al. (56) with a mean age of 68 years. Other studies that focused on elderly populations were community-based (25, 35, 40, 45), which the participants comprised mostly of mild to moderate OSA and home polysomnography or portable polysomnography were used instead of laboratory polysomnography used in sleep clinic setting for measurements and diagnosis of OSA. It was hypothesized that OSA effects cognitive function in the older adults differently from other populations as some studies found that older adults cognitive function were more vulnerable to the negative effect of OSA than their younger counterparts, thus studies that focus on older adults are needed (21). Moreover, failure to include all severities of OSA especially the most severe ones could provide a biased result due to the threshold effect of OSA severity on cognition. While home polysomnography provides a fair alternative to laboratory polysomnography some studies have found that measures from home with portable polysomnography differed significantly from laboratory polysomnography, especially in those with severe OSA (43). Results on cognitive impairment associated with OSA also varies in part due to the difference cognitive domain and adoption of different in assessed neuropsychological assessment tools for each cognitive domain across the studies with

some studies using only a single global cognition test. Also, commonly found in most

studies is the fact that each cognitive domain was not equally vulnerable to the effect

of hypoxia/hypercarbia and sleep fragmentation. To understand more about how each

cognitive domain is affected, the incorporation of neuroimaging studies which can demonstrate the injuries or structural changes in associated brain areas correlating to the cognitive impairment observed could provide further evidence of the effect of OSA on each region of the brain (54, 57, 58).

Regarding the neuropsychological assessment, cognitive domains that have been assessed and showed impairment across most studies were attention, executive function, and memory with some also providing neuroimaging correlates (45, 53, 54,

56-62). Tests for measurement of functions of each cognitive domain should take into

account subject's performance in global cognition and attention as well as provide a

comprehensive assessment of all subdomains of executive function (63). Subsequently,

งหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

a standardized score should be obtained to account for confounding factors, such as

age, sex, education, race, etc., then a common distribution-based scales calculated to

equate units across different tests for comparison (64).

2.2 The association of hypoxia in OSA and cognitive impairment

As one of the main mechanisms hypothesized to cause end organ damage by

OSA, few studies have investigated its relationship to cognitive impairment. The studies

are listed in table 1. There are five community setting studies and five sleep clinic setting studies. Among the respiratory parameters from polysomnography, mean oxygen saturation, nadir oxygen saturation, ODI, and T90 were commonly used as representatives of hypoxia. Neuropsychological test employed to measure cognitive functions also varies between the studies. Trail making test, phonemic fluency, Wisconsin card sorting test, and Stroop test were examples of test used to measure executive function. Delayed word recall test was used to measure memory function. Digit symbol substitution, Paced Auditory Serial Addition Test (PASAT), and letter number sequencing were used to assess the cognitive processing speed. Two sleep clinic studies and one community study found an association between hypoxia parameters and performance on executive function tests. A study by Ju et al. (56) found that subjects with more severe hypoxia performed worse on memory function test. Another study by Quan et al. (65) reported that subject with higher degree of hypoxia

had lower cognitive processing speed.

2.3 The association of hypoxia in OSA and brain structural change

There are two studies exploring the effect of hypoxia in OSA and brain cortical

gray matter change. The first study by Baril et al. found an increased in cortical thickness

at the frontal, parietal, and cingulate regions in relation to severity of hypoxia measured

by T90 and nadir oxygen saturation. While the second study by Cross et al. found a

decreased in cortical thickness at the temporal pole and fusiform gyrus in relation to

the severity of the desaturation. Other studies comparing cortical thickness between

OSA patients and controls found a decreased in cortical thickness in several regions in

OSA patients. In addition, a study by Dalmases et al. comparing the cortical thickness

of OSA patients before and after 3 months of CPAP treatment found an increased in

cortical thickness at the frontal and parietal regions after treatment. The details of the

GHULALONGKORN UNIVER

studies are listed in Table 2.

2.4 The association of OSA and white matter integrity

Diffusion tensor imaging analysis has been used to explore the changes of the

white matter integrity in many conditions. Parameters from the diffusion tensor imaging

analysis includes fractional anisotropy (FA), median diffusivity (MD), axial diffusivity, and

radial diffusivity. FA represents the directions of the water molecule diffusion in brain

parenchyma where a value of 0 represents isotropic diffusion and 1 represents anisotropic diffusion. The decrease of FA indicates the low integrity which may be associated with brain parenchymal injury. MD is the mean of water molecules diffusivity in 3-dimensional space. In contrast, high MD values are associated with low white matter integrity. Axial diffusivity represents the diffusion along the major axis and radial diffusivity represents the average diffusion in the minor axes perpendicular to the major axis (66). Typically, axonal damage without myelin injury would result in a decreased in both FA and axial diffusivity with an increased in radial diffusivity and normal MD value. On the other hand, demyelination without axonal damage would result in an increased in radial diffusivity without any change in axial diffusivity (67). We found 4 studies comparing diffusion tensor imaging parameters between OSA patients and controls. None of the studies specifically assessed the effect of hypoxia in OSA. Findings included reduce in FA with an increase in MD, radial diffusivity, and axial diffusivity which indicates an injury in the acute stage to the white matter of

the brain in OSA group. The details of the studies are listed in Table 3.

2.5 The association of OSA and functional changes of the brain

Listed in Table 4 are studies using functional MRI to investigate the functional

changes in OSA patients. The technique used varies from study to study. Examples

include seed-based functional connectivity, independent component analysis (ICA),

graph theory analysis, Regional homogeneity analysis (ReHo), and amplitude of low-

frequency fluctuations analysis (ALFF). Most reported decreased or aberrant functional

connectivity from region to region and decreased of both regional and global functional

connectivity. Connectivity in large brain networks such as default mode network (DMN),

salience network (SN), central executive network (CEN), and sensorimotor network

(SMN) was also reported to be compromised in OSA patients.

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University

Author/	Country/ Study	Study	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean	Exposure	Outcome	Confounder
Year	setting	design	(patients/	(years)	AHI/RDI	Measuremer		Adjusted
			controls)					
Blackwell,	USA/	Cohort	2,636		12.4	Home PSG - ODI ≥ 15	ODI ≥ 15	Age, site, race, BMI, education,
2015 (68)	communit	٦ ب		76		ODI, T90	- Decline in TMT-B	DM, stroke, CHD, PD, BZD,
							OR = 1.05 (0.78-1.43)	depression, SSRI, alcohol, smol
							T90 ≥1%	impaired iADL, physical activity
			nse NGK				- Decline in TMT-B	
				。 次			OR 0.93 (0.68-1.27)	
				100		A Thus		
Boland,	USA/	Cross-	1760	62.3	4.2	Home PSG	Home PSG · No association between T90	Age, education, occupation, DN
2002 (42)	communit	communit [,] sectional	ยา VEI		E El	Т90	and DWR, DSS, WF scores	HT, BMI, CNS
				3		A A		meds, alcohol
Ferini-	Italy/	Cross-	23 OSA	56.52	54.95	Lab PSG –	T90 and phonemic fluency	
Strambi,	sleep clin	sleep clinic sectional	23 control			Т90	(r = -0.512, p = 0.018)	
2003 (59)								
Hoth,	USA/	Cross-	40 OSA	54.55	37.8	Lab PSG –	High (T 90 ≥20%) vs.	ı

Author/	Country/	Study	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean	Exposure	Outcome	Confounder
Year	setting	design	(patients/	(years)	AHI/RDI	Measuremer		Adjusted
			controls)					
2013 (69)	sleep clin	sleep clinic sectional				T90	Low (T 90 ≤ 6%) hypoxemia:	
							no difference in COWAT,	
							PASAT, TMT-A, TMT-B,	
							Letter-Number Sequencing	
Ju, 2012 (56)	Korea/	Cross-	42 OSA	68	36.61	Lab PSG -	WLRT	Education, AHI
	sleep clin	sleep clinic sectional	21 control			Ido	(b = -0.37, p = 0.003)	
Mathieu,	Canada/ Cross-	Cross-	14 OSA	62.3	42.5	Lab PSG –	Lab PSG - ONo association between any	1
2008	sleep clin	sleep clinic sectional	18 control			Mean O2,	Measurement of hypoxia with	
(>50 yrs) (70)					2	Т90,	TMT-B and Wisconsin Card	
					e el	nadir SpO2	Sorting Test	
Quan,	USA/	Cross-	67 OSA	59.4	22.4	Home PSG	T85 contributes to	Age, gender, education, ESS
2006 (65)	communii	communit [,] sectional				- T85	processing speed	
							$(R^2 = 0.122, p < 0.001)$	
Sforza,	France/	Cross-	827	68	20.4	Home PSG	Stroop test	Gender, BMI, BP, DM, HT, ESS,
2010 (45)	communit	communit [,] sectional				- ODI	- color (r = -0.083, p = 0.02)	anxiety, depression,
							- word (r = - 0.12, p = 0.001)	self-reported sleep time

Author/	Country/ Study	Study	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean	Exposure	Outcome	Confounder
Year	setting	design	(patients/	(years)	AHI/RDI	Measuremer	_	Adjusted
			controls)					
Sharma,	India/	Cross-	50	43	54.2	Lab PSG –	Stroop error (r = 0.64, p	
2010 (71)	sleep clini	sleep clinic Sectional				Т90	<0.03)	
							Wisconsin Card Sorting Test	
							- no. of trials (r = 0.05, p <	
							0.02)	
			nse NGK				- perseverative errors (r =	
					000		0.36, p < 0.02)	
Spira,	USA/	Cross-	448	82.8	15.5	Home PSG -	Home PSG - OR MMSE 2.7 (1.1-6.6)	Age, education, SSRI use
2008 (40)	communit	communit [,] sectional				Nadir O2	OR TMT-B 1.2 (0.5-3.2)	
			ยา VEI		E. E.	< 80%		
Abbreviation: AHI, apnea-hypopnea index. BMI, body mass index.	pnea-hypopne	a index. BMI, t	body mass inc	Jex. BP, blood press	ure. BZD, ber	rzodiazepine. C	BP, blood pressure. BZD, benzodiazepine. CHD, congestive heart disease. CNS, central nervous system. COWAT,	entral nervous system. COWAT,
Controlled Oral Wo instrumental activitie	rd Association es of daily livir	Test. DM, dia Jg. MMSE, Mini-	betes mellitus -Mental State I	s. DSS, digit symbol Examination. O2, oxy	substitution. 'gen. ODI, oxy	DWR, delayed 'gen desaturatic	Controlled Oral Word Association Test. DM, diabetes mellitus. DSS, digit symbol substitution. DWR, delayed word recall. ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale. HT, hypertension. iADL, instrumental activities of daily living. MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination. O2, oxygen. ODI, oxygen desaturation index. OR, odds ratio. OSA, obstructive sleep apnea. PASAT, Paced	s Scale. HT, hypertension. iADL, ctive sleep apnea. PASAT, Paced

Auditory Serial Addition Test. PD, Parkinson disease. PSG, polysomnography. r, Pearson's correlation coefficient. SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor. T90, %time spent below

90% oxygen saturation. TMT, trail making test. WF, word fluency. WLRT, word-list recall test.

Author/Year	Country/	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean age (SD) Imaging analysis	Outcome
	Setting	(Patients/Controls)	(years)		
Joo et al. 2013	Korea/	43/ 36	43.7 ± 6.4	Cortical thickness: OSA	Cortical thinning at bilateral frontal regions, pre-
(72)	Sleep clinic			compared to controls	and post-central gyrus, anterior cingulate, insula,
				(adjusted for age and brain	inferior parietal lobule supramarginal gyrus,
		ง พ เปL	9	volume)	precuneus, uncus, parahippocampal, fusiform
		าลง ALC			gyrus, superior, middle, inferior temporal gyrus
Joo et al. 2013	Korea/	งกร)NG	43.7 ± 6.4	Cortical thickness: negative	Thickness of left middle frontal gyrus and right
(72)	Sleep clinic	វតរ៍ KO		correlation to maximum	inferior frontal gyrus
		้มห RN		apnea duration	
Dalmases et al.		17/16 OSA assigned	71.3 ± 5.51	Cortical thickness after 3-	Increased thinning compared to baseline in
2015 (73)	Finland/ Sleep	to CPAP or		month CPAP treatment	control group: right frontal and parietal (pars
	clinic	conservative			opercularis, paracentral, inferior parietal,
		treatment	2		postcentral, precuneus); left middle frontal and
					lingual gyrus
Baril et al. 2017	Canada/ Sleep	59/12		Cortical thickness relation	Increased thickness of left middle frontal gyrus,
(74)	clinic			to hypoxemia (nadir O2	right frontal pole, right superior and inferior
				and T90)	parietal lobule, left posterior cingulate
Macey et al. 2018	USA/Sleep	48/62		Cortical thickness (adjusted	Decreased cortical thickness at left precentral
(75)	clinic			for sex)	gyrus, left superior temporal gyrus, insular cortex,
					right postcentral gyrus

Author/Year	Country/	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean age (SD) Imaging analysis	Outcome
	Setting	(Patients/Controls) (years)	(years)		
Cross et al. 2018	Australia/	60	67.4 ± 7.5	Cortical thickness: relation	Decreased cortical thickness at left temporal
(76)	Community			to severity of desaturation	pole, right fusiform gyrus
	setting			(adjusted for age, sex,	
				education, MCI, BMI, ESS,	
		ง จุ ฬ 	Core	HT, DM, CVD, depression	
Abbreviation: BMI, body mass index. CPAP, continuous positive .	/ mass index. CPAP, d	continuous positive airway	pressure. CVD, cere	ebrovascular disease. DM, diabetes	aiway pressure. CVD, cerebrovascular disease. DM, diabetes mellitus. ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale. HT, hypertension.
MCI, mild cognitive imp	vairment. O2, oxygen.	. OSA, obstructive sleep ap	nea. SD, standard	MG, mild cognitive impairment. O2, oxygen. OSA, obstructive sleep apnea. SD, standard deviation. T90, %time spent below 90% oxygen saturation.	/ 90% oxygen saturation.
		าร IG			
		ณ์ KC			
		์ม)RI			
		หา N		Thursday and the second	
		าลั ERS			

Author/Year	Country/	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean age (SD) Imaging modality	Outcome
	Setting	(Patients/Controls)	(years)		
Castronovo et al.	Italy/ Sleep	13/15	43.23 (7.63)	DTI	Lower FA: bilateral superior parietal (sup
2014 (57)	clinic				longitudinal fascicle), left inferior frontal
					(uncinate), left optic radiation, right transcallosal
		พ UL	Sec.		connection, right corticospinal tract
					Lower MD: bilateral superior parietal (sup
		งกร อุทธ			longitudinal fascicle), right mesial posterior
		វណ៍ iKO			frontal WM
Kumar et al. 2012	USA/ sleep	23/23		DTI (controlled for age)	Reduced MD: dorsal, ventral, ventrolateral
(77)	clinic	าวิ U			medulla, bilateral cerebellum, temporal lobe,
		ทย			bilateral hippocampus, bilateral putamen and
		ัก เาล่ ER			thalamus, right insula, left caudate, anterior
		ัย SIT	3		corpus callosum, bilateral frontal and occipital,
					left prefrontal, right posterior cingulate, corona
					radiata

Author/Year	Country/	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean age (SD) Imaging modality	Outcome
	Setting	(Patients/Controls)	(years)		
Kumar et al. 2014	USA/ Sleep	23/23	44.4 ± 9.3	DTI: Axial and radial	Reduced radial diffusivity in OSA at medulla,
(28)	clinic			diffusivity	corpus callosum, corona radiata, frontal white
					matter, insula, hippocampus, occipital, internal
					capsule, amygdala, cerebellum, thalamus,
		ซ จุ ฬ IUL	9		putamen, temporal white matter
		าล AL			Reduced axial diffusivity in OSA at corona
		งก 0N(radiata, frontal white matter, globus pallidus,
		รณ์ GKO			hippocampus, thalamus, medulla, temporal
		ร์มห RN			white matter, putamen, cingulate, corpus
		112 1			callosum, external capsule, cerebellum
Macey et al. 2008	USA/ Sleep	41/69	35.7 ± 18.1	DTI: FA	Lower FA in OSA compared to controls at
(62)	clinic	มาส /ER			cerebellum, pons, thalamus, right fornix,
		รัย SIT	2		cingulate, insula, internal capsule, prefrontal
					cortex, parietal, and temporal white matter

Author/Year	Country/	Total No.	Mean age (SD)	Mean age (SD) Imaging modality	Outcome
	Setting	(Patients/Controls)	(years)		
Chen et al. 2018a	China/	46/46		Seed-based, global and	Altered FC within DMN, global network measure
(80)	Sleep clinic			regional connectivity (graph	and regional network measures with correlation
				analysis)	to MoCA
Chen et al. 2018b	China/	45/45	37.56 8.86	Global and regional	Impaired global and regional functional
(81)	Sleep clinic			connection	connection in DMN, SN and CEN, correlate to
		งกร งกร			MoCA and PSG
Huang et al. 2019	China/	29/26	39.62 9.95	Graph theory small-world	Changes in small-world network property in
(82)	Sleep clinic	มห RN		parameters	OSA, no correlation to MMSE
Li et al. 2015 (83)	China/	25/25	39.4 1.7	Spontaneous brain activity	Spontaneous brain activity Lower ALFF in OSA in PC, PCC, higher in IFG; low
	Sleep clinic	ทย		by ALFF	ALFF correlate to nadir O2 and MoCA
Li et al. 2016 (84)	China/	40/40	38.6 8.1	Seed-based selected ROI in	Seed-based selected ROI in Altered rsFC between regions of DMN compared
	Sleep clinic	ัย SIT	}	DMN	to control, some correlation to np tests
Park et al. 2016a	USA/	67/75	48 9.2	Seed-based drawn ROI at	complex aberrant FC between the insular
(85)	Sleep clinic			right and left insular	cortices and several other brain regions
					regulating autonomic, affective, sensorimotor,

and cognitive functions.

-			(00)		
Author/Year	Country/ Settine	l otal No. (Patients/Controls)	Mean age (SU) (vears)	Mean age (SU) Imaging modality (vears)	Outcome
Park et al. 2016b	USA/	69/82	48.3 9.2	Whole brain connectome,	Altered connections between areas regulating
(86)	Sleep clinic			graph theory for global and	autonomic, affective, sensorimotor and
				regional connectivity	cognitive functions. Reduced global efficiency
					(specialization and integration) and trend
		ซ จุ ฬ iUL	COL.		towards decreased local efficiency
Peng et al. 2014	China/	25/25	39.4 1.7	ReHo	Altered ReHo in several regions (MFG, SFG, PC,
(87)	Sleep clinic	งก งก 0N0			angular, SP, cerebellum, cingulate, lentiform,
		รณ์ GKC		A Municipal	putamen, insula), some correlation to sleep
		โมว)RN			stages
Santarnecchi et	Italian/	19/19	43.2 8	ReHo	ReHo abnormality in regions (thalamus, frontal,
al. 2012 (88)	Sleep clinic	อ้าย			somatosensory)
Song et al. 2018	USA/	70/89	48.3 9.2	Seed-based ROI	Impaired FC of hippocampus and caudate to
(89)	Sleep clinic	รัย เรเา	2	(hippocampus and	cortical regions.
				caudate)	
Yu et al. 2019 (90) China/	China/	40/40	37.03 8.74	Seed-based ROI in	Aberrant connection between amygdala and
	Sleep clinic			amygdala	cerebellum, PFC, IFG, STG
Zhang et al. 2013	China/	24/21	44.6 7.4	ICA	Altered rsFC in cognitive and sensorimotor
(91)	Sleep clinic				networks

					41
Author/Year	Country/ Setting	Total No. Mean a (Patients/Controls) (years)	Mean age (SD) (years)	Mean age (SD) Imaging modality (years)	Outcome
Zhang et al. 2015 China/	China/ Sleen clinic	24/21	44.6 7.4	Seed-based ROI at right	Reduced functional connectivity between Al
Abbreviation: Al, arousal	l index. ALFF, amplit	ude of low frequency fluct	tuations. CEN, cent	tral executive network. DMN, defa	Abbreviation: Al, arousal index. ALFF, amplitude of low frequency fluctuations. CEN, central executive network. DMN, default mode network. FC, functional connectivity. ICA,
independent componer	nt analysis. IFG, infer	ior frontal gyrus. MGF, mid	dle frontal gyrus. N	AMSE, Mini-Mental State Examinat	independent component analysis. IFG, inferior frontal gyrus. MGF, middle frontal gyrus. MMSE, Mini-Mental State Examination. MoCA, Montreal Cognitive Assessment. O2, oxygen. OSA,
obstructive sleep apnes	a. PC, precuneus. PC	C, posterior cingulate corte	x. PFC, prefrontal	cortex. ROI, region of interest. Ref	obstructive sleep apnea. PC, precuneus. PCC, posterior cingulate cortex. PFC, prefrontal cortex. ROI, region of interest. ReHo, regional homogeneity. rsFC, resting-state functional
connectivity. SFG, superior frontal gyrus. SN, salience network.	ior frontal gyrus. SN,	, salience network. SP, sup	erior parietal. STG,	SP, superior parietal. STG, superior temporal gyrus.	
		nst			
		ณ์ (01			



Chapter 3 Research Methodology

3.1 Research design

Cross-sectional, descriptive study

- 3.2 Research Methodology
- Study population
- Target Population

Newly-diagnosed moderate to severe OSA by a split-night laboratory

polysomnography, AHI ≥ 15, from the Excellence Center for Sleep Disorders, King

Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital.

• Inclusion criteria

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

1. Newly diagnosed with moderate to severe OSA by a split-night laboratory

polysomnography, AHI \geq 15, according to the International Classification of

Sleep Disorders – third edition.

- 2. Age \geq 50 years
- Exclusion criteria

1. Severe systemic diseases: cirrhosis (Child-Pugh score B or C), chronic kidney

disease stage 3 or more, pulmonary disease with chronic hypoxia or hypercarbia, heart failure NYHA II or more

- 2. Psychiatric illness
- 3. Neurological diseases: brain tumor, stroke, epilepsy, coma, history loss of

consciousness of more than 30 mins after head trauma, encephalitis

- 4. Use of psychotropic medications
- 5. Alcohol or illicit drug abuse
- 6. Prior therapy for OSA
- 7. Sleep disorders other than OSA including central sleep apnea, insomnia,

REM behavioral disorder, restless leg syndrome, periodic limb movement

disorder, narcolepsy

- 8. TMSE score < 24
- 9. Inability to complete neuropsychological assessments or not fluent in Thai

10. Contraindications for MRI: presence of cardiac pacemaker or defibrillator,

presence of metallic implants, claustrophobia, or uncomfortable or unable

to lie down still for the MRI.

Sampling method

Consecutive cases

Sample size calculation

Previous studies from Sharma et al. and Ferini-Strambi et al. demonstrated weak

to moderate correlation between measurements of hypoxia (T90) and scores from

neuropsychological tests measuring executive function (59, 71).

The sample size that is required to demonstrate a moderate correlation

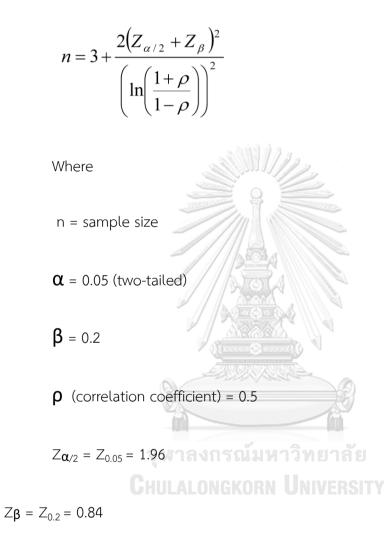
จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

(Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.5) between the degree of hypoxia (T90 or ODI) and

scores from neuropsychological tests measuring executive function in the studied group

is 29. The significance level is 0.05 and the statistical power is 0.8.

As demonstrated in the following equation (93)



3.3 Observation and Measurement

Respiratory parameters

• Respiratory parameters from the split-night polysomnography were scored according to the AASM 2012 update for Rules for Scoring Respiratory Events in Sleep (36). All respiratory recordings were reviewed and reported by experts in sleep

medicine.

- 1. Sleep-disordered breathing was rated by the apnea-hypopnea index (AHI).
 - a. AHI is the sum of number of apneas and hypopneas per hour of sleep, a

discreet variable which ranges from zero to infinity.

2. Degree of hypoxia was rated using indices of hypoxia including oxygen desaturation

index (ODI), defined as the average number of oxygen desaturation ≥3% per hour

CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

of sleep, as well as the percentage of total sleep time spent below 90% oxygen

saturation(T90), and nadir oxygen saturation.

a. ODI is the average number of \geq 3% arterial oxygen desaturations per hour of

sleep, a discreet variable which ranges from zero to infinity.

b. T90 is the percentage of total sleep time spent below 90% arterial oxygen

saturation, a continuous variable which ranges from zero to 100%.

c. Nadir oxygen saturation is the lowest oxygen saturation measured during the

entire total sleep time, a continuous variable which ranges from zero to

100%.

3. Sleep fragmentation were rated by the arousal index (AI) defined as the number of

arousals per hour of sleep.

a. Arousal index is the average number of arousals per an hour of sleep, a

discreet variable which ranges from zero to infinity.

Parameters from the neuropsychological assessments

• Neuropsychological assessments were administered by neuropsychologist where

tests were selected to cover the main cognitive domains as listed in Table 5.

Tests were selected on the basis that they are least affected by the subject's

cultural difference, educational level, and literacy. Standardized scores were obtained

to adjust for differences in age and educational level when available. Scores were then

expressed in a distribution-based scale to allow for comparison between tests. The main limitation to neuropsychological assessment was the test duration, a more comprehensive and through assessment should be able to provide more information but exhaustion would ensue as time of assessment lengthens resulting in inaccurately lower test scores. All tests were administered in a semi-structured interview session according to the standardized manual for each tests. Summary of neuropsychological tests and the domains assessed are illustrated in Table 5.

Details of each test and its scoring are described as following:

- 1. D-KEFS Tower Test (94)
 - The test was designed to measure planning, rule learning, inhibition, and

ability to maintain the instructional set.

The test features three wooden pegs of equal length and five disks of

varying sizes. There are a total of 9 items to be completed consecutively,

each item increases in difficulty from the former item. For each item, the

examiner places the disks on the pegs in a predetermined starting position,

then display the ending position of the disks. The examinee was asked to

move the disks to match the ending position with the fewest moves while adhering to the rule of moving only one disk at a time and never place a larger disk over a smaller disk.

The number of moves to completion, the item-completion time and the

final achievement were recorded.

The total achievement score is the sum of achievement scores for each

item. The scores for each item were determined by the total moves and

whether the final ending position was achieved for that item.

The total achievement score was converted to a 19-point scaled score that

was adjusted for age, the minimum score is 1 and the maximum score is 19.

- 2. D-KEFS Design Fluency Test (94)
 - This test was designed to measure initiation, inhibition, and cognitive

flexibility.

Row of boxes, with each containing an array of dots are presented to the

examinee, who was asked to draw a different design in each box using only

filled dots and only four lines to connect the dots.

- Three conditions are tested, a time limit of 60-second per condition is given:
 - a. Boxes contained only filled dots.
 - b. Boxes contained both filled and unfilled dots, examinee was required

to connect only the unfilled dots.

c. Boxes contained both filled and unfilled dots, examinee was asked to

draw the designs by alternatively connecting filled and empty dots.

The Design Fluency total correct measure is a 19-point composite

measurement that is derived from a sum of 19-point scaled scores from all

three conditions, the minimum score is 1 and the maximum score is 19.

Scaled score from each condition is determined by the number of correct

designs achieved in that condition adjusted for each age group.

- 3. D-KEFS Color-Word Interference Test (94)
 - This test is based on the Stroop procedure, designed to measure inhibition

and cognitive flexibility.

The examinee was instructed to name the color or read the word printed

on a page according to each condition. There were a total of four conditions.

The first condition, the examinee was asked to name the color patches. The

second condition, the examinee was asked to read the color-words printed

in blank ink. The third condition, the examinee was asked to name the

dissonant ink color in which those words are printed. The fourth condition,

the examinee was asked to switch between naming the dissonant ink colors

and reading the words. The first and second condition have a 90-second

time limit, while the third and fourth condition have a 180-second time limit.

The completion time in seconds for each condition was recorded.

The 19-point contrast scaled score was derived by comparing the scaled

score from the fourth condition (inhibition/switching) and combination of

scaled scores from the first and second condition (naming and reading). The

scaled score was also adjusted for age, the minimum score is 1 and the

maximum score is 19.

- 4. WAIS-IV Digit Span (95)
 - This test is designed to assess the attention and working memory domain.

- Comprises of three subtests
 - a. Digit Span Forward: examinee was read a sequence of numbers and

asked to recall the numbers in the same order.

b. Digit Span Backward: examinee was read a sequence of numbers and

asked to recall the numbers in reverse order.

c. Digit Span Sequencing: examinee was read a sequence of number and

asked to recall the numbers in ascending order.

• Each item consists of two trials. The test would be discontinued when the

examinee failed both trials of an item.

Correct response for each trial of each item was recorded.

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

The Digit Span Total Raw Score was obtained by summing the raw scores

from Digit Span Forward, Digit Span Backward and Digit Span Sequencing.

The 19-point Digit Span scaled score derived from the Digit Span Total Raw

Score corrected by age group, the minimum score is 1 and the maximum

score is 19.

5. WAIS-IV Symbol Search (95)

- This test was designed to assess the processing speed.
- Examinee was given a task to match one item among the two target symbols

with one of the five items in the search group.

• The examinee was asked to complete the items as fast as possible within

the time limit of 120 seconds, there are a total of 80 items.

Correct and incorrect responses were recorded for each item. The total raw

score was the number of correct responses minus the number of incorrect

responses, items that have not been completed would not be scored.

The total raw score was then converted to a 19-point scaled score adjusted

for each age group, the minimum score is 1 and the maximum score is 19.

- 6. WAIS-IV Coding (95)
 - This test was designed to assess the processing speed.
 - Examinee was given a task to copy symbols that are paired with numbers

by using a key, the time limit is 120 seconds.

Correct responses were given a score of 1 point, incorrect responses or

items that the examinee did not complete would not be given any point.

The total raw score was the sum of items with correct responses.

The total raw score was converted to a 19-point scaled score adjusted for

each age group, the minimum score is 1 and the maximum score is 19.

- 7. WMS-IV Verbal Pair Association Test (96)
 - This test was designed to assess the immediate and delayed auditory memory.
 - In the first subtest, the Verbal Paired Associates I, the examinee was read

10 or 14 word pairs and asked to recall the word-pair when read the first

word of each pair. There were a total of four trials with varying word

sequence. The score was obtained by summing the correct responses from

the four trials then transformed to an age-adjusted 19-point scaled score

■ In the second subtest, the Verbal Paired Associates II, which was

administered 20-30 minutes after the Verbal Pair Associates I, the examinee

was asked to recall the paired word when presented with the first word of

each pair for the delayed recall. The total correct responses was transformed to an age-adjusted 19-point scaled score, the minimum score is 1 and the maximum score is 19.

- 8. WMS-IV Visual Reproduction Test (96)
 - This test was designed to assess the immediate and delayed visual memory.
 - In the first subtest, the Visual Reproduction I, the examinee was shown a

design for 10 seconds per item and asked to draw the design from memory.

There were a total of five items. Each design was scored according to a

prespecified criteria, the total scores of the five items was summed and

transformed to an age-adjusted 19-point scaled score.

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

In the second subtest, the Visual Reproduction II, which was administered

20-30 minutes after the Visual Reproduction II, the examinee was asked to

draw the designs which were shown to them in the Visual Reproduction I

test. Each design was scored according to a prespecified criteria, the total

scores of the five items was summed and transformed to an age-adjusted

19-point scaled score, the minimum score is 1 and the maximum score is

19.

The composite measurement of each domain - attention, executive function,

memory, processing speed, derived from the average of the age-adjusted 19-point

scaled score of tests in each domain. Additionally, a composite measurement of 2

subdomains of memory, the immediate memory domain and the delayed memory

domain, derived from the immediate auditory and visual memory and the delayed

auditory and visual memory, respectively.

• Mood symptoms were assessed using the Symptom Checklist-90-Revised (SCL-90-

R).

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

• Sleepiness was measured using the Epworth Sleepiness Scale (ESS). Measured using

an 8-item self-administered questionnaire assessing the degree of sleepiness in

everyday situation. The minimum score is 0 and the maximum score is 24. A score

over 10 signifies excessive sleepiness (97, 98).

(95, 96, 99, 100)

Cognitive Domain	Test	Primary Domains	Other Domains
Global cognition	Thai Mental State	Global cognition	-
	Examination		
	(TMSE)		
Attention	WAIS-IV Digit span		
	- digit span forward	Attention, working	Encoding process,
	- digit span backward	memory	manipulation
	- digit span sequencing	11122	
Executive function	D-KEFS Tower test	Planning	Rule learning, inhibition,
			establishing and
			maintaining cognitive
			set
	D-KEFS Design fluency test	Initiation, flexibility	Inhibitory control
	D-KEFS Color-word	Inhibitory control	Cognitive flexibility,
	interference test	A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A	naming, reading
Memory	WMS-IV auditory memory	Auditory immediate and	
	(verbal pair association test)	delayed memory	
	WMS-IV visual memory	Visual immediate and	
	(visual reproduction test)	delayed memory	
Processing speed	WAIS-IV processing speed		Attention, short-term
	index	Processing speed	visual memory,
	- Symbol search		psychomotor speed,
	- Coding		visual-motor
			coordination

Parameters from magnetic resonance imaging of the brain

Image acquisition

• Brain magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the whole brain was performed using a 3.0

Tesla system. The following sequences were conducted for all subjects:

- 1. 3D-T1-weighted image
- 2. T2-weighted image
- 3. Fluid attenuated inversion recovery image (FLAIR)
- 4. Diffusion weighted image (DWI)
- 5. Resting state functional magnetic resonance imaging (rs-FMRI)

Image pre-processing

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine (DICOM) files of all MRI

sequences are converted into Neuroimaging informatics Technology Initiative (NifTI)

files.

Structural MRI image pre-processing

• Cortical reconstruction process was carried out by the recon-all command from the

Freesurfer software, version 4.1.0 (http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/) on each

subject's 3D-T1-weighted image which performs all of the reconstruction process

automatically (101-118). The preprocessed white and pial surfaces, the reconstructed cortical surface and its labelling are illustrated in Figure 2.

- The steps include:
 - 1. Motion correction
 - 2. Non-parametric non-uniform intensity normalization
 - 3. Computes the affine transform from the subject's image to the Montreal

Neurological Institute (MNI) 305 atlas

4. Intensity normalization

5. Skull stripping

จุฬาลงกรณมหาวทยาลย

- 6. Subcortical segmentation
- 7. Second intensity normalization
- 8. White matter segmentation
- 9. The midbrain is cut from the cerebrum and the hemispheres are cut from

each other

10. Creation of the cortical surface (Tessellation)

- 11. Smoothing of the cortical surface
- 12. Inflation of the cortical surface
- 13. Automatic topology fixing (QSphere)
- 14. Creation of the final white and pial surfaces (outputs the cortical thickness

data and curvature data)

- 15. Creates the cortical ribbon mask
- 16. Inflates the cortical surface into a sphere
- 17. Register the cortical surface to the ipsilateral spherical atlas
- 18. Register the cortical surface to the contralateral atlas

19. Outputs the average curvature

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

- 20. Cortical parcellation and labelling of each cortical surface
- 21. Outputs the statistics from the cortical parcellation of each structure
- All images were visually inspected before further measurement.
- Measurement of cortical thickness of each gyrus was measured in centimeter. The value

of cortical thickness of each area is the average of the measurement from the outer

surface of the white matter, "white surface", to the cortical surface of that area or "pial

surface". Measurement of the cortical thickness was undertaken by measuring the distance radially from the "white surface" to the "pial surface" at each vertex on the surface. The value of the cortical thickness measurement of each gyri derived from averaging the measurement of cortical thickness of the vertexes on the surface in that



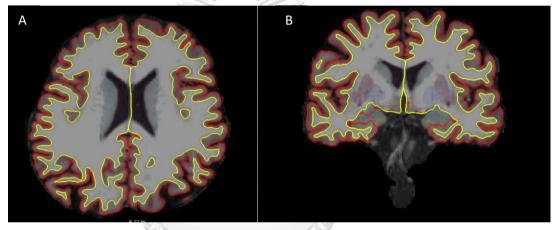


Figure 2 Cortical ribbon mask.

gyri (104).

Demonstrate the axial (A) and coronal (B) view of the T1-weighted image of the brain. The red line delineates the "pial surface" or cortical surface and the yellow line delineates the "white surface". The measurement of cortical thicknesss is the distance measured radially from the "white surface" (yellow line) to the "pial surface" (red line).

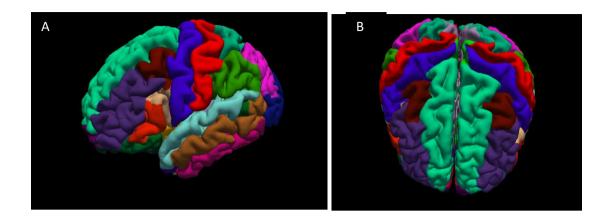


Figure 3 Gray matter parcellation.

Demonstrate the left cortical surface (A) and bilateral frontal and parietal surface (B) of the brain. Each gyrus is labeled in different color according to the brain atlas of the program where one color is designated for one specific gyrus. The same gyrus on both cerebral hemispheres are labeled with the same color.

Diffusion tensor image pre-processing

• The preprocessing of the diffusion weighted images were carried out using the FMRIB's

Diffusion Toolbox (FDT) under the FMRIB's Software Library (FSL) (119).

Chulalongkorn University

- The following process were applied to each subject's diffusion weighted images:
 - 1. Brain extraction of the diffusion weighted images by the Brain Extraction Tool

(BET) (120), the fractional intensity threshold was set at 0.4.

2. Correction for Eddy current distortions and subject motion was done by using

the Eddy Current Correction (121).

3. DTIFIT was used to fit the tensor models onto the diffusion weighted image at

each voxel. Three eigenvalues and its' corresponding eigenvectors were obtained from the diffusion tensor matrix. The fractional anisotropy (FA), mean diffusivity (MD), axial diffusivity and radial diffusivity images were created from

the eigenvalues.

i. The FA represents the degree of anisotropic diffusion which

represents the alignment and integrity of structures in each area

of the white matter with values ranging from 0 – 1. A value of

zero means there is no anisotropic diffusion (isotropic diffusion),

for example the CSF has an FA value of zero. While value of one

หาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

means the diffusion occurs only in one axis. Therefore, a lower

FA value in the white matter could infer decreased integrity and

alignment of the white matter in that area. The MD represents

the average of all diffusivity in that area and is measured in square

of millimeter per second, a lower MD could represent decreased

integrity of structures in that area (122).

ii. The axial diffusivity measures the diffusivity of water parallel to

the axons and radial diffusivity measures the diffusivity of water

perpendicular to the axons. The increase in axial diffusivity is

rather specific to axonal degeneration while the increase in radial

diffusivity is more specific to pathology of the myelin (123, 124)

4. Tract-Based Spatial Statistic (TBSS) tool, part of the FSL, was used to process the

images for statistical analysis (120, 125-129).

i. Each subject's FA image was normalized to the standard FMRIB58

template and transformed into a common space.

ii. The mean of all FA images was created from the normalized FA

and narrowed down to create the mean FA skeleton, a single line

at the center of each tract. A FA threshold of 0.2 was used to

exclude the voxels that were either gray matter or cerebrospinal

fluid.

iii. Each subject's FA data was then projected onto the mean FA

skeleton illustrated in Figure 4.

iv. Similar procedures were carried out for MD, axial diffusivity, and

radial diffusivity images.

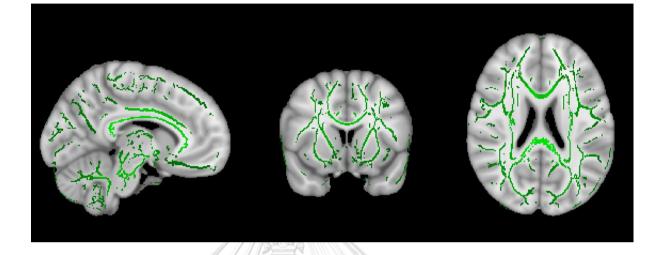


Figure 4 White matter tract FA skeleton.

Demonstrate the sagittal, coronal, and axial view of the mean FA skeleton (green) of all of the subjects projected onto the T1-weighted image of the brain.

fMRI preprocessing

The preprocessing was done with tools that are part of the FMRIB's Software Library

(FSL) (119).

- Single subject ICA
 - 1. Each subject's resting 4D fMRI image was input into the FMRI Expert Analysis

Tool (FEAT) (130).

- 2. High-pass filtering was set at 0.01 Hz (100 seconds).
- 3. Motion correction was done using MCFLIRT (131). Slice timing correction and

brain extraction was done.

4. Linear registration of 4D fMRI image to subject's brain-extracted 3D-T1-weighted

image was done using boundary-based registration in FMRIB's Linear Image

Registration Tool (FLIRT) (132).

5. 3D linear registration to standard space (Montreal Neurological Institute 305

atlas) was done using FLIRT) (132) with 12 degrees of freedom.

6. Non-linear transformation was done using FMRIB's Nonlinear Registration

Tool (FNIRT) (128) with a warp resolution of 10 mm.

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

7. Independent component analysis for each individual subject was done using

Multivariate Exploratory Linear Optimized Decomposition into Independent

Components tool (MELODIC) (133).

- Classifying and removing noise components from single-subject ICA
 - 1. Classification and labelling of each ICA component into signal or noise was

done manually for all subjects.

- 2. Removal of noise components in each subject was done using the fsl_regfilt tool.
- 3. Cleaned single-subject ICA was then registered to the standard space

(Montreal Neurological Institute 305 atlas) using apply warp from FNIRT

(128).

- Group ICA
 - 1. Group ICA was done using MELODIC (133).
 - 2. Subjects were divided into the mild and severe group of each hypoxic

parameters based on the value of that parameter relative to the median

value of the group.

3. ICA components of the group were set at 30 components.

<u>Demographic data</u>

• Basic characteristics (e.g., age, sex, years of education, occupation, medical history,

medication use, BMI) will be obtained by an interview and recorded in the case

record form

3.4 Research Process

1. Recruitment of subjects with newly-diagnosed moderate to severe obstructive

sleep apnea by split-night polysomnography from the Excellence Center for

Sleep Disorders, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital.

2. Subjects were informed of details of the research and its methodology, written

information documents were given to each participant, all inquiries from

participants were addressed by the principle investigator, after that, participants

were given time to decide to sign the informed consent.

3. Basic characteristics, medical history, and current medication were obtained by

an interview with the subject and recorded in the case record form.

4. Schedule for cognitive assessment and brain MR imaging were within one month

Chulalongkorn University

from the date of polysomnography. The participants would only be required to

be present at the venue of study only for these two visits, the two visits were

preferably scheduled within the same day.

- 5. Assessment of cognitive function by a battery of selected neuropsychological tests administered by neuropsychologists, a regular session should take approximately one hour and a half.
- 6. Brain MR imaging would be acquired according to the prespecified protocol. In

cases where abnormal findings are found on the brain MR imaging, the patient was informed of the result within a week of the brain MR imaging and advised

to pursue further diagnostic tests or treatment.

7. Respiratory parameters from the split-night polysomnography was assessed by

trained sleep technicians and interpreted by sleep medicine specialists in which

the parameter was recorded in the polysomnography report.

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

3.5 Data Collection CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

Data of the basic characteristics, medical history, and medications were

collected in an interview session between the investigator and the subject and

recorded in the case record form. All neuropsychological tests and mood assessments

will be administered and data collected by neuropsychologists in the clinic. Respiratory

parameters from the split-night polysomnography was recorded in the

polysomnography report. Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine (DICOM) files

of brain MR imaging will be converted to the Neuroimaging Informatics Technology

Initiative (NifTI) format for further analysis.

3.6 Data Analysis

Analysis of demographic data, clinical data, and neuropsychological test scores

- The characteristics of the subjects were summarized as median and range for continuous variables and as frequencies and percentages for categorical variables.
- The correlation between respiratory parameters and z-scores of each cognitive domain were analyzed using the Spearman rank correlation analysis. The effect

sizes of the correlations were defined as small (0.30), medium (0.50), or large

(0.80).

• Multiple linear regression was used to determine factors that contribute to cognitive impairment in each domain. Z-scores of each cognitive domain were

Participants were divided in to two groups based on the severity of the respiratory parameters. The degree of severity of hypoxia was determined by the frequency of the desaturation (ODI), the duration of the desaturation (T90), and the severity of the desaturation (nadir oxygen saturation). The degree of arousal was determined by the arousal index. Participants were classified as mild when their value of the given feature were below the median for ODI, T90 and arousal index; higher than the median for nadir oxygen saturation. Participants were classified as severe when their value of the given feature were

equal to or above the median for ODI, T90 and arousal index; lower or equal

to the median for nadir oxygen saturation.

- Demographics, respiratory parameters, and neuropsychological test results were compared between the mild and severe groups using the Mann-Whitney U test and the Fisher Exact test.
- All tests are two-tailed and p < 0.05 is considered statistically significant.

• All statistical analyses were performed using Python version 3.7.6.

Analysis of cortical thickness

• General linear model (GLM) was used to determine the difference of the cortical

thickness between each groups of mild and severe hypoxia in OSA, as well as

the correlation of the respiratory parameters to cortical thickness of each area.

- The vertex-wise gray matter cortical thickness was the dependent variable.
- The frequency of the desaturation (ODI), the duration of the desaturation (T90),

the severity of the desaturation (nadir oxygen saturation), and the degree of

arousal (AI) were used to classify patients into mild and severe groups for the

analysis by GLM.

• ODI, T90, nadir oxygen saturation, and AI were also assessed for their correlation

to the cortical thickness of each area.

• Cluster-wise correction for multiple comparison through Monte Carlo simulation

was done, cluster-forming threshold p<0.05 (one-tailed).

• The analysis was performed with the Freesurfer Qdec (134).

Analysis of diffusion tensor imaging

- The nonparametric permutation inference for the general linear model, randomise tool, in FSL was used to test for voxel-wise statistical difference of FA between groups (125, 135).
- The Threshold-Free Cluster Enhancement (TFCE) approach was used and the p level of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.
- Similar process was carried out for MD, axial diffusivity, and radial diffusivity

images.

Analysis of resting-state fMRI

Comparison of resting-state functional connectivity in each resting-state

network between groups. ONGKORN CONVERSITY

• Dual Regression (136, 137) was done to generate the subject-specific spatial

maps and associated timeseries from the group-average analysis.

• The nonparametric permutation inference for the general linear model,

randomise tool, was used to test for voxelwise statistical difference (135).

• The Threshold-Free Cluster Enhancement (TFCE) approach was used and the p

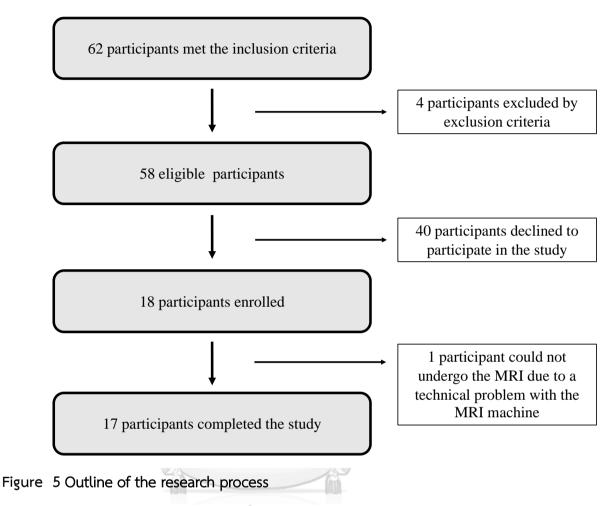
level of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.



Chapter 4 Result

There were 62 OSA patients from the Excellence Center for Sleep Disorders, King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital who met the inclusion criteria from January 2019 to January 2020. Four participants were excluded according to the exclusion criteria, 40 participants declined to participate in the study, and 1 participant was not able to undergo the MRI study due to a problem with the MRI machine. The study was terminated earlier than the prespecified date due to an unprecedented technical problem with the MRI machines. Ultimately, 17 participants were enrolled in this study. The details of the process are depicted in figure 5.

จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย Chulalongkorn University



ุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

- 4.1 Demographic data, clinical data, and neuropsychological test results
 - Of the 17 participants, 8 (47%) were men and 9 (53%) were women. The median

age was 57 years and the median years of education was 16 years. Fourteen of the

participants were identified with either a history of cardiovascular disease or had

cardiovascular risk such as diabetes mellitus, hypertension, or dyslipidemia prior to

enrollment. The median BMI was 25.2 kg/m² (range 21.1 kg/m² -52.3 kg/m²). All of the

participants had been recently diagnosed with moderate or severe OSA by a split-night

polysomnography. None has received treatment for OSA.

The median AHI was 60.6 with a range between 15 and 110. The median nadir

oxygen saturation was 77% (range, 51% - 95%), the median ODI was 26.9 (range, 0 -

105.5), and the median T90 was 3.15% (range, 0% - 16.8%). The median sleepiness

measured by ESS was 12 signifying excessive sleepiness.

All participants scored over 23 on the TMSE test, the median TMSE score was

30 (range, 27 – 30). A summary of the demographic, clinical data, respiratory

parameters, and neuropsychological tests results are illustrated in table 6 and 7.

Comparison of the demographic and clinical features of those included and

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

excluded in the research are demonstrated in table 8.

		•	•				
Characteristics	All subjects	Severe desaturation	Mild desaturation	Frequent	Infrequent	Long desaturation	Short desaturation
				desaturation	desaturation		
No. of subject	17	6	8	6	8	6	ω
Age	57 (51 - 76)	57 (52 – 76)	56 (51 – 66)	57 (51 – 76)	56.5 (52 – 65)	60 (54 – 76)	55 (51 – 66)
Male (%)	8 (47%)	5 (55%)	3 (37.5%)	4 (44%)	4 (50%)	5 (55%)	3 (37.5%)
Education (years)	16 (6 - 23)	16 (12 – 23)	16 (6 - 19)	16 (12 - 23)	16 (6 - 18)	16 (12 – 23)	16 (6 - 19)
BMI	25.2	25.2	25.2	28.9	24.89	25.2	24.99
	(21.1 - 52.3)	(23.3 – 52.3)	(21.1 - 31.1)	(23.4 – 52.3)	(21.1 - 30.9)	(23.3 -52.3)	(21.1 - 31)
AHI	60.6	47.8	6:09	63.7	27.6	61.7	49.95
	(15 - 110.3)	(22.7-110.3)	(15 – 81.1)	(35.1 - 110.3)*	$(15 - 81.1)^*$	(22.7 - 110.3)	(15 - 81.1)
Mean oxygen saturation (%)	94 (90 – 98)	93 (90 - 95)*	95.5 (92 – 98)*	92 (90 – 94)*	95.5 (93 – 98)*	92 (90 – 95)*	95.5 (93 – 98)*
Nadir oxygen saturation (%)	77 (51 – 95)	72 (51 – 77)*	82.5 (78 – 95)*	77 (51 – 88)	80 (67 – 95)	73 (51 – 78)*	82.5 (67 – 95)*
ODI	26.9	41.17	18.32	41.96	13.72	41.68	17.58
	(0 - 105.5)	(16.35 – 105.5)	(0 - 49.6)	(26.91 - 105.5)*	(0 - 25.54)*	$(16.35 - 105.5)^{*}$	(0 - 49.6)*
て (%) 100 (%)	3.15	6.01	1.09	6.11	1.53	6.11	1.09
	(0 - 16.8)	(3.01 - 16.78)*	(0 - 9.05)*	(0.2 - 16.78)*	$(0 - 4.02)^{*}$	(3.15 - 16.78)*	(0 - 3.01)*
AI	32	34.2	30.7	35.6	24.65	32	32.5
	(14.9 - 67.6)	(14.9 – 67.6)	(15.3 - 66.8)	(14.9 - 67.6)	(15.3 - 66.8)	(14.9 - 67.6)	(15.3 - 66.8)
ESS	12 (3 – 21)	12 (5- 18)	12 (3 – 21)	12 (3 – 16)	12 (5 – 21)	12 (3 – 18)	12 (6 – 21)

Table 6 Demographics, clinical characteristics, and respiratory parameters

Data are presented as median or count (range or proportion).

*Significant at p <0.05 based on Mann-Whitney U test or Fisher Exact test.

AHI, apnea-hypopnea index. AI, arousal index. BMI, body mass index. ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale. ODI, oxygen desaturation index. T90, percentage of total sleep time spent below 90% oxygen saturation.

78

Table 7 Neuropsychological test results

Cognitive	All subjects	Severe	Mild desaturation	Frequent	Infrequent	Long	Short
test/domain		desaturation		desaturation	desaturation	desaturation	desaturation
No. of subject	17	6	8	6	ω	6	ω
TMSE	30	30	29.5	30	29	30	29.5
	(27 – 30)	(28 - 30)	(27 – 30)	(28 – 30)	(27 – 30)	(28 – 30)	(27 – 30)
Executive function	0.22	0.44*	-0.17*	0.33	-0.06	0.33	-0.17
	(-1 - 1)	(-0.44 – 1)	(-1 - 0.33)	(-0.89 - 1)	(-1 - 0.89)	(-0.44 - 1)	(-1 - 0.44)
Memory	0.17	0.17	0.34	0	0.55	0	0.8
	(-0.75 - 1.83)	(-0.75 - 1.83)	(-0.16 - 1.25)	(-0.75 - 1.83)	(-0.16 - 1.25)	(-0.75 - 1.83)	(-0.16 - 1.25)
Attention	0	0 1 M 2 N	0	0	0.17	0	0.09
	(-0.67 - 1.17)	(-0.67 - 1.17)	(-0.67 - 0.67)	(-0.67 - 0.67)	(-0.5 - 1.17)	(-0.67 - 1.17)	(-0.5 - 0.67)
Processing speed	0.34	0.67	0.25	0.67	0.08	0.34	0.34
	(-2.17 – 2)	(-0.34 – 2)	(-2.17 - 0.83)	(-0.33 – 2)	(-2.17 - 1.87)	(-0.34 - 2)	(-2.17 - 1.84)
Data are presented as median (range). The neuropsychological test result of each cognitive domain are presented as z-score.	in (range). The neuropsy	ychological test result o	f each cognitive domain	i are presented as z-so	core.		

5 2

*Significant at p <0.05 based on Mann-Whitney U test or Fisher Exact test.

79

	Included	Excluded
No.	17	41
Age	57	56
Male (%)	47%	63%
BMI	25.2	27.4
CV risk (%)	82.4	65%
АНІ	60.6	54.5
ODI	26.9	20.6
Т90	3.15	2.8
Nadir O ₂	77	77.5
AI	32	49.3
ESS	12	11

Table 8 Comparison of included and excluded participants

4.2 Association between respiratory parameters and neuropsychological test results The Spearman's rank correlation analysis was used to assess the correlation

between the respiratory parameters and the neuropsychological test results. The

results are illustrated in Table 9. There was no correlation between ODI, as well as

other respiratory parameters, with the z-score of the tower test. In addition, there was

no correlation between ODI and any cognitive domain tested in this study.

However, we found a significantly negative correlation between nadir oxygen

saturation level and the z-score of the executive function domain. Also, there was a

significantly positive correlation between T90 and the z-score of the executive domain.

Lastly, a positive correlation was found between ESS and the z-score of the attention domain.

Next, a multivariate linear regression analysis was used to assess the association between the respiratory parameters and the neuropsychological test results. The number of years of education and the presence of cardiovascular disease or cardiovascular risks were added to the model as covariates. There was no association

between the respiratory parameters including nadir oxygen saturation, ODI, T90, ESS, or

AI and any z-score neuropsychological test results. The results of the analysis are shown

in Table 10.

Chulalongkorn University

		·			.		
Characteristics	Tower test	Design fluency	Color-word	Executive	Memory	Attention	Processing
			interference	function			speed
Age	-0.13	-0.35	0.11	-0.24	-0.16	-0.5	-0.23
Education (years)	0.22	0.32	0.38	0.43	0.38	0.47	0.27
AHI	0.37	0.36	-0.1	0.33	0.25	-0.11	0.34
Nadir oxygen	-0.39	-0.52*	-0.1	-0.52*	-0.13	0.04	-0.26
saturation (%)		1ลง					
ODI	0.21	0.15 V	-0.03	0.22	-0.17	-0.32	0.41
T90 (%)	0.35	0.41	0.19	*67.0	-0.11	-0.17	0.25
AI	0.42	0.16	-0.34	0.07	0.25	-0.07	0:30
ESS	0.34	0.18	-0.01	0.08	0.12	0.6*	-0.18
Data are presented as Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.	earman's rank correla	tion coefficient.			1.3		

Table 9 Correlation between demographics, respiratory parameters and neuropsychological test results

*Significant at p <0.05. AHI, apnea-hypopnea index. AI, arousal index. ESS, Edworth Sleepiness Scale. ODI, oxygen desaturation index. T90, percentage of total sleep time spent below 90% oxygen saturation.

Cognitive domain	Respiratory parameters	Beta	p-value
Tower test	AHI	0.006	0.39
	Nadir O2	-0.012	0.47
	ODI	0.003	0.69
	Т90	0.015	0.64
	AI	0.064	0.08
	ESS	0.012	0.22
Executive function	AHI	0.006	0.31
	Nadir O2	-0.013	0.34
	ODI	0.007	0.20
	Т90	0.033	0.22
	Al	-0.004	0.63
	ESS	0.038	0.25
Memory	AHI	0.002	0.79
	Nadir O2	-0.003	0.85
	ODI	-0.008	0.27
	Т90	-0.017	0.63
	AI	0.01	0.33
	ESS	0.039	0.35
Attention	AHI	-0.001	0.86
	Nadir O2	0.002	0.84
	ODI	-0.0004	0.93
	Т90	0.001	0.96
	Al	-0.005	0.49
	ESS	0.046	0.06
Processing speed	CAHILALONGKORN	0.012 / ERSITY	0.21
	Nadir O2	-0.023	0.36
	ODI	0.017	0.08
	Т90	0.049	0.32
	AI	0.017	0.29
	ESS	0.037	0.53

Table 10 Association between respiratory parameters and cognitive function

All multivariate linear regression analyses were adjusted for years of education and presence of cardiovascular risk factors or cardiovascular disease. AHI, apnea-hypopnea index. ESS, Epworth Sleepiness Scale. O2, oxygen. ODI, oxygen desaturation index. T90, percentage of total sleep time spent below 90% oxygen saturation.

4.3 Defining the characteristics and severity of hypoxia in OSA

brain is through hypoxia. In this study, we aimed to study the effect of hypoxia on the brain using parameters of hypoxia severity rather than the AHI commonly used to measure the severity of OSA. We have identified the characteristic of hypoxia in OSA by three features that were measured by the polysomnography, namely, the degree of desaturation (nadir oxygen saturation), the duration of the desaturation (T90), and the frequency of the desaturation (ODI), as mentioned above. Of note, the correlation of AHI to each of the hypoxia features and the arousal index (AI) are demonstrated in figure 6. Interestingly, only ODI and AI demonstrated a moderately positive correlation

As previously mentioned, one of the main mechanisms causing injury to the

to AHI. We did not observe any correlation between T90 or nadir oxygen saturation CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

level to AHI in this study.

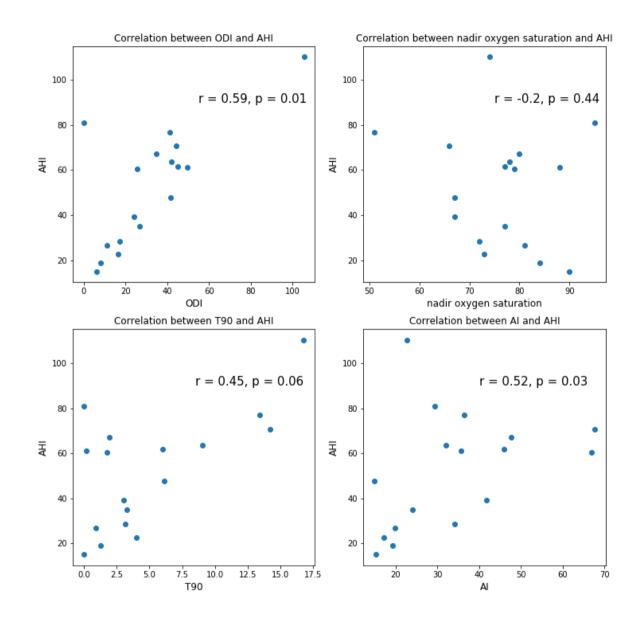


Figure 6 Correlation of hypoxic parameters and arousal index to AHI. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient and p-value are demonstrated.

Participants were classified into two groups, the severe group and the mild group, per each feature of hypoxia with regards to their value of each hypoxic feature relative to the median value of the group. Consequently, the number of participants classified as severe and mild for each hypoxic feature are 9 and 8, respectively. The characteristics, respiratory parameters, and neuropsychological test results of the groups are illustrated in Table 6 and 7. Between the severe and the mild groups of each hypoxic feature, there was no difference in age, years of education or BMI. There was also no difference noted in sleep fragmentation or sleepiness measured by the arousal index and ESS, respectively. The AHI was comparable between the severe and the mild groups except between the more frequent and less frequent desaturation

groups measured by ODI.

Neuropsychological test results demonstrated higher z-score in only the

executive function domain in the severe desaturation group compared to the mild

desaturation group. Comparing between the severe and mild groups of hypoxia when

the frequency and the duration of hypoxia were considered, there was no significant

difference in any of the cognitive domains z-score between the groups.

4.4 Neuroimaging results

Cortical thickness analysis: correlation of respiratory parameters to the cortical

<u>thickness</u>

A whole-brain voxel-wise analysis of correlation between respiratory parameters

and cortical thickness of each region was undertaken for the following respiratory

parameters: ODI, T90, nadir oxygen saturation, and AI.

There was no correlation between the aforementioned respiratory parameters

and the cortical thickness in any region of the brain.

Cortical thickness analysis: difference between mild and severe hypoxia groups

Whole-brain cortical thickness analysis was done to compare cortical gray

matter thickness between the severe group and the mild group for each hypoxic

Chulalongkorn University

feature. Total brain volume, age, and gender were added as covariates. Monte Carlo

cluster correction was performed with a significant level of p < 0.05, one-tailed.

Compared to mild degree of desaturation, the group with severe desaturation,

lower nadir oxygen saturation, demonstrated two clusters of decreased cortical

thickness at the right pars triangularis (Tailarach coordinates x, y, z mm, size mm²: 39.7,

33.1, 9.8, 1365.57) and the right inferior parietal (Tailarach coordinates x, y, z mm, size

mm²: 40.9, -66.7, 37.9, 1443.02) demonstrated in Figure 7.

Those with higher frequency of desaturation, higher ODI, showed one cluster

of cortical thinning compared to patients with lower frequency of desaturation. The

cluster was identified at the right superior parietal (Tailarach coordinates x, y, z mm,

size mm²: 19.2, -81.2, 36.4, 1381.35) as demonstrated in Figure 8.

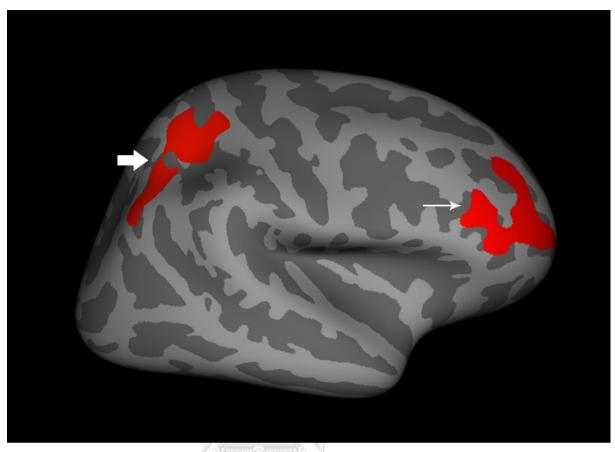
There was no demonstrable difference in cortical thickness between the long

and short duration groups (higher T90 vs. lower T90).

There was no demonstrable difference in cortical thickness between the groups

with high AI compared to low AI.

88



. Kernander

Figure 7 Cortical thickness analysis: desaturation groups.

An inflated pial surface of the right cerebral hemisphere demonstrating two clusters of cortical thinning at the right pars triangularis (Tailarach coordinates x, y, z mm, size mm^2 : 39.7, 33.1, 9.8, 1365.57; cluster-wise p-value = 0.0083) (small arrow) and the right inferior parietal (Tailarach coordinates x, y, z mm, size mm^2 : 40.9, -66.7, 37.9, 1443.02; cluster-wise p-value = 0.0057) (large arrow) when compared between the group with severe desaturation to the group with mild desaturation. The mean cortical thickness of the severe and mild desaturation groups were 2.21 mm and 2.27 mm at the right pars triangularis and 2.27 mm and 2.37 mm at the right inferior parietal (thickness of the structure from cortical parcellation).

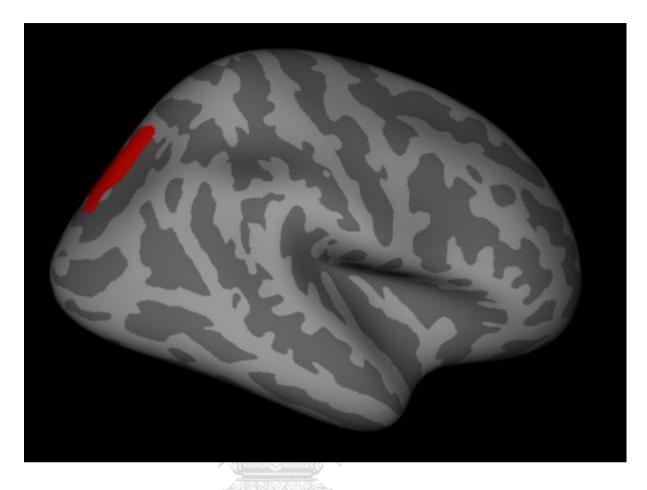


Figure 8 Cortical thickness analysis: ODI groups.

An inflated pial surface of the right cerebral hemisphere demonstrating one cluster of decreased cortical thickness at the right superior parietal (Tailarach coordinates x, y, z mm, size mm²: 19.2, -81.2, 36.4, 1381.35; cluster-wise p-value = 0.0077) (red) when compared between the group with high ODI to the group with low ODI. The mean cortical thickness of the high and low frequency groups were 2.00 mm and 2.08 mm (thickness of the structure from cortical parcellation).

Diffusion tensor imaging analysis

The Tract-Based Spatial Statistic (TBSS) tool was used to analyzed the voxel-

wise statistical difference in FA, MD, radial diffusivity, and axial diffusivity between the

mild and the severe groups in each hypoxia feature.

Fractional anisotropy (FA)

Comparison between the mild and the severe desaturation groups (nadir

oxygen saturation) revealed no statistically difference in FA between both groups.

Comparison between the short and long desaturation groups (T90) revealed no

statistically difference in FA between both groups.

Comparison between the less frequent and more frequent desaturation groups

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

(ODI) revealed no statistically difference in FA between both groups.

Comparison between the high AI and low AI revealed no statistically difference

in FA between both groups.

<u>Median diffusivity (MD)</u>

Comparison between the mild and the severe desaturation groups (nadir

oxygen saturation) revealed no statistically difference in MD between both groups.

Comparison between the short and long desaturation groups (T90) revealed no

statistically difference in MD between both groups.

Comparison between the less frequent and more frequent desaturation groups

(ODI) revealed no statistically difference in MD between both groups.

Comparison between the high AI and low AI revealed no statistically difference

in MD between both groups.

<u>Axial diffusivity</u>

Comparison between the mild and the severe desaturation groups (nadir

oxygen saturation) revealed no statistically difference in axial diffusivity between both

groups.

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Comparison between the short and long desaturation groups (T90) revealed no

statistically difference in axial diffusivity between both groups.

Comparison between the less frequent and more frequent desaturation groups

(ODI) revealed no statistically difference in axial diffusivity between both groups.

Comparison between the high AI and low AI revealed no statistically difference

in axial diffusivity between both groups.

Comparison between the mild and the severe desaturation groups (nadir oxygen saturation) revealed no statistically difference in radial diffusivity between both

groups.

Comparison between the short and long desaturation groups (T90) revealed no

statistically difference in radial diffusivity between both groups.

Comparison between the less frequent and more frequent desaturation groups

(ODI) revealed no statistically difference in radial diffusivity between both groups.

Comparison between the high AI and low AI revealed no statistically difference

in radial diffusivity between both groups.

จุหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

FMRI analysis

The default mode network (DMN), central executive network (CEN),

sensorimotor network (SMN), language network, visual network, and the auditory

network were identified from the resting-state fMRI group ICA analysis as demonstrated

in figure 9-14.

Comparison between the mild and the severe desaturation groups (nadir oxygen saturation) revealed no statistically difference in the resting-state functional connectivity in any of the networks between both groups.

Comparison between the short and long desaturation groups (T90) revealed no

statistically difference in the resting-state functional connectivity in any of the networks

between both groups.

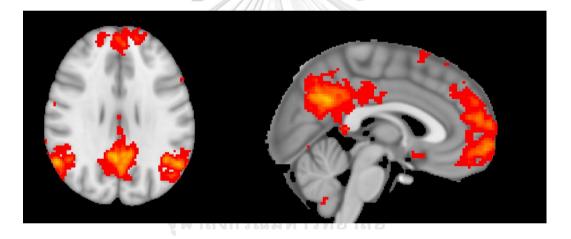


Figure 9 Default mode network (DMN) (axial view and sagittal view).

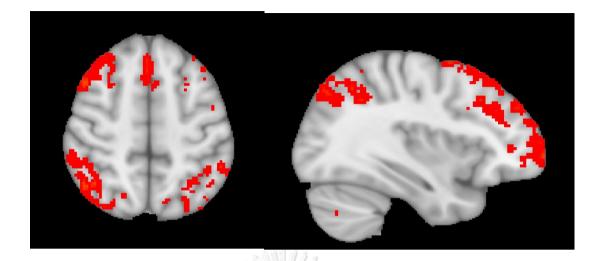
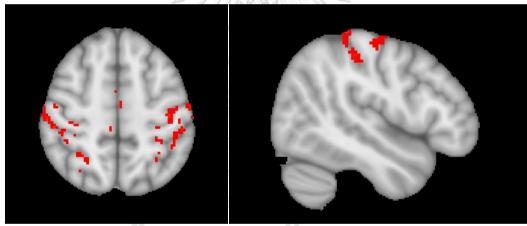


Figure 10 Central executive network (CEN) (axial view and sagittal view).



CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

Figure 11 Sensory motor network (SMN) (axial view and sagittal view).

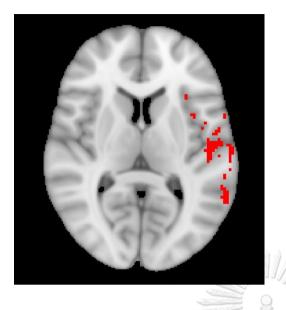


Figure 12 Language network (axial view).

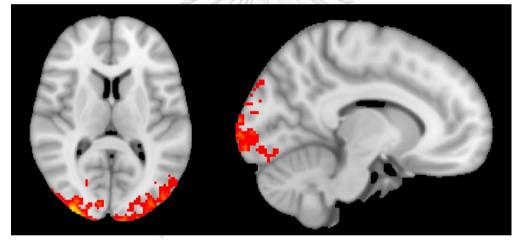


Figure 13 Visual network (axial and sagittal view).

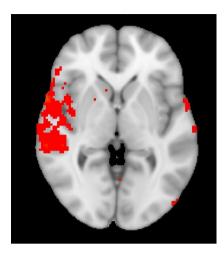


Figure 14 Auditory network (axial view).

Comparison between the less frequent and more frequent desaturation groups

(ODI) revealed no statistically difference in the resting-state functional connectivity in

any of the networks between both groups.

Comparison between the high AI and low AI revealed no statistically difference

in the resting-state functional connectivity in any of the networks between both groups.

Chulalongkorn University

Chapter 5 Discussion

5.1 Association between hypoxia and cognitive function

This is the first study to assess the parameters measuring the degree of intermittent hypoxia in OSA and its effect on the brain. The degree of desaturation (nadir oxygen saturation), the duration of the desaturation (T90), and the frequency of the desaturation (ODI) were chose to represent the different parameters of intermittent hypoxia. Our study did not find any association between the features of hypoxia and cognitive function tests in any of the domain tested. There was no association between other respiratory parameters - AHI, AI, or ESS - with cognitive function tests as well. Other studies that explored this relationship have reported mixed findings. Ju et al. (56) had found that hypoxia measured by ODI was associated with lower scores on the auditory memory test. Two other studies found T90 to be associated with lower performance in executive function tests (59, 71), while another two studies reported no association between the two (69, 70). Moreover, two large community studies

reported no significant relationship between ODI (68) or T90 (42, 68) and executive

function (68). Several factors could explain this discrepant finding between the studies.

First, different tests were used for the measurement of executive function or memory

in these studies. Second, the severity of OSA in participants also varies, ranging from

the mildest severity in the community studies to more severe OSA in the sleep clinic

studies. Finally, limitation of the sample size in our study as well as some other studies

(69, 70) might prevent the outcome from reaching a statistically significant threshold.

5.2 Association of hypoxia in OSA to cortical gray matter thickness Structural changes of the cortical gray matter between groups were assessed

using the cortical thickness analysis. The result of the analysis revealed two clusters of

cortical thinning at the right inferior frontal gyrus and right inferior parietal gyrus in the

group with severe desaturation compared to the group with mild desaturation. Another

Chulalongkorn University

cluster of cortical thinning was found at the superior parietal gyrus when comparing

between the high ODI group and the low ODI group. Studies of the association between

hypoxia and cortical thickness have reported mixed findings. A study by Cross et al.

reported an association between the severity of the hypoxia component in OSA and a

decreased in cortical thickness at the left temporal pole and right fusiform gyrus (76).

While, another study by Baril et al. reported an increase in cortical thickness at the left

middle frontal gyrus, right frontal pole, right superior and inferior parietal lobule and

left posterior cingulate gyrus in relation to the severity of hypoxia measured by nadir

oxygen and T90 (74).

5.3 Association of hypoxia in OSA to white matter integrity

DTI analysis was used to identify changes in the white matter tracts of the brain.

There was no significant difference in any of the DTI parameters when the severe and

the mild groups of each hypoxic parameter were compared. No other study had

investigated the relationship between hypoxia and parameters from DTI. Changes in

the white matter integrity had been reported in OSA patients compared to controls in

many of the known fiber tracts in the frontal, parietal, temporal, cingulate cortices and

CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

the brainstem and the cerebellum (57, 77, 79). Compared to our study where all of

the participants were diagnosed with moderate or severe OSA, the difference of in the

change of the white matter integrity between the two groups-

mild and severe hypoxia—might be too subtle to be detected.

5.4 Association of hypoxia in OSA to functional connectivity of the brain

Independent component analysis (ICA) of functional MRI data between the

mild and severe group of each hypoxic parameter did not reveal any difference in

resting-state functional connectivity in any of the networks. A study by Zhang et al.

(91) using ICA to determine alteration in resting-state functional connectivity between

OSA and controls reported decreased in resting-state functional connectivity in the

anterior DMN, bilateral CEN and SMN and increased in resting-state functional

connectivity in the posterior DMN. Other studies that used techniques such as ReHo,

seed-based analysis, and ALFF found decreased, aberrant, or increased resting-state

functional connectivity in areas that are part of the DMN, CEN, SN, and SMN networks

(80, 83-85, 87-90, 92). Moreover, graph theoretical analysis in studies (81, 82, 86)

Chulalongkorn University

comparing OSA and controls also reported reduced both global and regional efficiency,

as well as reduced specialization and integration. This demonstrates that OSA affects

many large scale networks in the brain as well as reduced the efficiency in these

networks. Findings from fMRI studies resonate with the multi-domain impairment in

cognitive functions reported in past studies. Apart from the small sample size, the lack

of detectable change in the resting-state functional connectivity across large scale networks in our study could be attributed to the multiple smoothing of the data in the preprocessing stage of the fMRI analysis to mitigate the effect of artifacts acquired

during the fMRI scan.

5.5 Mechanisms causing pathological changes as a result of hypoxia in OSA The main mechanisms causing cerebral insult in OSA are intermittent hypoxia and sleep fragmentation. The intermittent nature of the hypoxia in OSA is known to cause brain injury similar to the ischemic-reperfusion injury. The pathological cascade that follows includes excessive oxidative stress, production of reactive oxygen species,

neuroinflammation, sympathetic activation, endothelial dysfunction, and subsequent

neuronal loss (138). In the acute stage, hypoxia causes energy deprivation and CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

produces cytotoxic edema as a result of the reactive and inflammatory process which

later progress to cortical atrophy in the chronic stage. This pathological process could

explain the mixed findings of the cortical thickness changes in OSA, with studies

reporting an increased in cortical thickness and some studies reporting a decreased in

cortical thickness. Another interesting aspect of our finding is the asymmetric structural

change of the cortical thickness which has also been reported in other studies. There is still no clear explanation but some postulated that the result is attributable to the difference in the vascular supply and perfusion to both sides of the brain and the lateralization of the brain (139, 140).

Our study further highlights the distinct effect of the intermittent hypoxia on the brain. Of interest, the areas affected by the higher degree of desaturation and the frequency of desaturation are localized to the frontal and parietal regions. This is in agreement with other studies that found changes in the gray matter cortical thickness in the frontal, parietal, temporal, and cingulate gyri region (74, 76). Contrary to common findings of hypoxic injury where the CA1 in the hippocampus and the cerebellum are most commonly affected (139). We hypothesize that the unique characteristic of the intermittent hypoxia, namely, the frequent and recurrent desaturation within a night reaching as high as 105 times per hour and the possibility of a significant desaturation with nocturnal oxygen saturation as low as 51% in this study, contributed to injuries in brain areas other than that affected by hypoxic injury in other conditions. However,

due to the small size of the hippocampus, the cortical thickness analysis might merely

not be sensitive enough to detect changes in the structure. Future studies might employ a hippocampal subfield analysis to specifically explore the structural change in the hippocampus.

We did not find any difference in the cognitive profile of participants between the severe and mild groups of each hypoxic parameter. The fact that there is no detectable impairment in the cognitive functions measured by neuropsychological tests in light of an evident structural changes of the cortex lead us to three possible explanations. First, although the structural change is located within the central executive network associated with executive function and attention, the compensatory mechanism of the brain prevents impairment of those functions through mechanisms such as increased activation or loss of lateralization of the brain (141). The compensatory mechanisms of the brain have been described in many circumstances of brain pathology with the decrease or loss of lateralization of the brain and increased activation in the aging brain being one of prototype of the mechanism (141). This interpretation is further supported by findings from many functional MRI studies in OSA patients where increased resting-state connectivity was found in some regions, as well

as loss of specialization and integration in certain brain regions. Second, there are less cortical confounder regarding thickness change involved compared to neuropsychological tests or functional MRI. Cognitive reserve plays an important part in determining the outcome of the neuropsychological tests given the same pathological change of the brain. However, the number of years of education was the only surrogate marker of cognitive reserve in our study. Finally, the neuropsychological tests employed might lacked sensitivity to detect the subtle cognitive changes. Other studies that investigated the association between executive function and hypoxia in OSA have reported mixed results (59, 69-71). The results are difficult to conclude as the studies differ in both the parameters of hypoxia and the neuropsychological tests used to assess cognitive functions. In this study, the structural change was detected only in the cortical gray matter but not the white matter. We have not found any study that reports both the cortical

thickness analysis and the DTI analysis of the white matter in the same study. However,

a study by Macey et al. have reported a reduction of gray-white matter ratio in OSA

(50). Claiming that the neurons in the gray matter are more susceptible than axons to

the damage inflicted by recurrent intermittent apneic episodes in OSA. Taking into account the technical difference of analysing the gray and white matter in this study, we cannot conclude that the gray matter is more severely affected than the white matter. Finally, it remains to be clarified which part of the brain is more vulnerable.

5.6 Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, causality cannot be inferred of the association between hypoxia in OSA and the changes of the brain structures and functions due to the cross-sectional design of the study. Second, the power of the difference is generally limited by the small sample size which was due to an unforsseable obstacle in the research process and the lack of a control group. Third,

there are no other quantifiable features for cognitive reserve to adjust for the results CHULALONGKORN UNIVERSITY

on neuropsychological tests other than years of education. Fourth, it is evident that

duration of OSA, in addition to severity, contributes to the effects of OSA on end

organs. However, we were not able to get an accurate estimate of OSA duration for

each participant. Fifth, some neuroimaging studies such as fMRI are especially

susceptible to artefacts that occurred during image acquisition and processing which

prevents accurate measurement and analysis of the data. Future studies should employ a longitudinal study design with larger sample size and measure the pre-post treatment effects on end organs in OSA patients. In addition, there are many novel imaging techniques to measure functional changes of the brain other than the neuropsychological tests and fMRI, such as Single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT), fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG)-positron emission tomography (PET) or magnetoencephalography (MEG) scan that would allow further exploration of functional brain changes associated with hypoxia in OSA. Finally, due to the selection process of participants which were based on voluntary decision to participate in the research, participants who were more highly educated or concerned of their health were more likely to volunteer which might have resulted in a selection bias. 5.7 Conclusion OSA is still largely underrecognized and underdiagnosed compared to other respiratory diseases. Our study demonstrates the association of the unique

characteristic of intermittent hypoxia in OSA on structural changes of the brain,

specifically cortical thinning at the frontal and parietal regions despite no detectable

cognitive symptom or changes on the neuropsychological evaluation. This finding calls for more attention to detect and treat OSA in its early or presymptomatic stage to prevent future cognitive impairment and mitigate cardiovascular risks.



REFERENCES

1. Young T, Palta M, Dempsey J, Skatrud J, Weber S, Badr S. The occurrence of sleep-disordered breathing among middle-aged adults. N Engl J Med. 1993;328(17):1230-5.

2. Levy P, Kohler M, McNicholas WT, Barbe F, McEvoy RD, Somers VK, et al. Obstructive sleep apnoea syndrome. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2015;1:15015.

3. Jordan AS, McSharry DG, Malhotra A. Adult obstructive sleep apnoea. Lancet. 2014;383(9918):736-47.

4. Kendzerska T, Mollayeva T, Gershon AS, Leung RS, Hawker G, Tomlinson G. Untreated obstructive sleep apnea and the risk for serious long-term adverse outcomes: a systematic review. Sleep Med Rev. 2014;18(1):49-59.

5. Sateia MJ. International classification of sleep disorders-third edition: highlights and modifications. Chest. 2014;146(5):1387-94.

 Peppard PE, Young T, Barnet JH, Palta M, Hagen EW, Hla KM. Increased prevalence of sleep-disordered breathing in adults. Am J Epidemiol. 2013;177(9):1006-14.

7. Neikrug AB, Ancoli-Israel S. Sleep disorders in the older adult - a mini-review. Gerontology. 2010;56(2):181-9.

8. Kirkness JP, Schwartz AR, Schneider H, Punjabi NM, Maly JJ, Laffan AM, et al. Contribution of male sex, age, and obesity to mechanical instability of the upper airway during sleep. J Appl Physiol (1985). 2008;104(6):1618-24.

9. Martin SE, Mathur R, Marshall I, Douglas NJ. The effect of age, sex, obesity and posture on upper airway size. Eur Respir J. 1997;10(9):2087-90.

10. Edwards BA, Wellman A, Sands SA, Owens RL, Eckert DJ, White DP, et al. Obstructive sleep apnea in older adults is a distinctly different physiological phenotype. Sleep. 2014;37(7):1227-36.

11. Eckert DJ. Phenotypic approaches to obstructive sleep apnoea - New pathways for targeted therapy. Sleep Med Rev. 2018;37:45-59.

12. Redolfi S, Yumino D, Ruttanaumpawan P, Yau B, Su MC, Lam J, et al.

Relationship between overnight rostral fluid shift and Obstructive Sleep Apnea in nonobese men. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2009;179(3):241-6.

13. Malhotra A, Huang Y, Fogel R, Lazic S, Pillar G, Jakab M, et al. Aging influences on pharyngeal anatomy and physiology: the predisposition to pharyngeal collapse. Am J Med. 2006;119(1):72 e9-14.

14. Eikermann M, Jordan AS, Chamberlin NL, Gautam S, Wellman A, Lo YL, et al.
The influence of aging on pharyngeal collapsibility during sleep. Chest.
2007;131(6):1702-9.

Patil SP, Schneider H, Marx JJ, Gladmon E, Schwartz AR, Smith PL.
 Neuromechanical control of upper airway patency during sleep. J Appl Physiol (1985).
 2007;102(2):547-56.

16. Klawe JJ, Tafil-Klawe M. Age-related response of the genioglossus muscle EMGactivity to hypoxia in humans. J Physiol Pharmacol. 2003;54 Suppl 1:14-9.

17. Dzierzewski JM, Dautovich N, Ravyts S. Sleep and Cognition in Older Adults. Sleep Med Clin. 2018;13(1):93-106.

18. Olaithe M, Bucks RS, Hillman DR, Eastwood PR. Cognitive deficits in obstructive sleep apnea: Insights from a meta-review and comparison with deficits observed in COPD, insomnia, and sleep deprivation. Sleep Med Rev. 2018;38:39-49.

Bucks RS, Olaithe M, Rosenzweig I, Morrell MJ. Reviewing the relationship
 between OSA and cognition: Where do we go from here? Respirology. 2017;22(7):1253 61.

20. Zimmerman ME, Aloia MS. Sleep-disordered breathing and cognition in older adults. Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep. 2012;12(5):537-46.

21. Yaffe K, Falvey CM, Hoang T. Connections between sleep and cognition in older adults. Lancet Neurol. 2014;13(10):1017-28.

22. Kerner NA, Roose SP. Obstructive Sleep Apnea is Linked to Depression and Cognitive Impairment: Evidence and Potential Mechanisms. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2016;24(6):496-508.

23. Gagnon K, Baril AA, Gagnon JF, Fortin M, Decary A, Lafond C, et al. Cognitive impairment in obstructive sleep apnea. Pathol Biol (Paris). 2014;62(5):233-40.

24. Beebe DW, Groesz L, Wells C, Nichols A, McGee K. The neuropsychological effects of obstructive sleep apnea: a meta-analysis of norm-referenced and case-controlled data. Sleep. 2003;26(3):298-307.

25. Blackwell T, Yaffe K, Ancoli-Israel S, Redline S, Ensrud KE, Stefanick ML, et al. Associations between sleep architecture and sleep-disordered breathing and cognition in older community-dwelling men: the Osteoporotic Fractures in Men Sleep Study. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2011;59(12):2217-25.

26. Bucks RS, Olaithe M, Eastwood P. Neurocognitive function in obstructive sleep apnoea: a meta-review. Respirology. 2013;18(1):61-70.

27. Wallace A, Bucks RS. Memory and obstructive sleep apnea: a meta-analysis. Sleep. 2013;36(2):203-20.

28. Chang WP, Liu ME, Chang WC, Yang AC, Ku YC, Pai JT, et al. Sleep apnea and the risk of dementia: a population-based 5-year follow-up study in Taiwan. PLoS One. 2013;8(10):e78655.

29. Cohen-Zion M, Stepnowsky C, Marler, Shochat T, Kripke DF, Ancoli-Israel S. Changes in cognitive function associated with sleep disordered breathing in older people. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2001;49(12):1622-7.

30. Martin MS, Sforza E, Roche F, Barthelemy JC, Thomas-Anterion C, group Ps. Sleep breathing disorders and cognitive function in the elderly: an 8-year follow-up study. the proof-synapse cohort. Sleep. 2015;38(2):179-87.

31. Osorio RS, Gumb T, Pirraglia E, Varga AW, Lu SE, Lim J, et al. Sleep-disordered breathing advances cognitive decline in the elderly. Neurology. 2015;84(19):1964-71.

32. Beebe DW. Neurobehavioral effects of obstructive sleep apnea: an overview and heuristic model. Curr Opin Pulm Med. 2005;11(6):494-500.

33. Beebe DW, Gozal D. Obstructive sleep apnea and the prefrontal cortex: towards a comprehensive model linking nocturnal upper airway obstruction to daytime cognitive and behavioral deficits. J Sleep Res. 2002;11(1):1-16.

34. Aloia MS, Arnedt JT, Davis JD, Riggs RL, Byrd D. Neuropsychological sequelae of obstructive sleep apnea-hypopnea syndrome: a critical review. J Int Neuropsychol Soc. 2004;10(5):772-85.

35. Yaffe K, Laffan AM, Harrison SL, Redline S, Spira AP, Ensrud KE, et al. Sleepdisordered breathing, hypoxia, and risk of mild cognitive impairment and dementia in older women. JAMA. 2011;306(6):613-9.

36. Berry RB, Budhiraja R, Gottlieb DJ, Gozal D, Iber C, Kapur VK, et al. Rules for scoring respiratory events in sleep: update of the 2007 AASM Manual for the Scoring of Sleep and Associated Events. Deliberations of the Sleep Apnea Definitions Task Force of the American Academy of Sleep Medicine. J Clin Sleep Med. 2012;8(5):597-619.

37. Sleep-related breathing disorders in adults: recommendations for syndrome definition and measurement techniques in clinical research. The Report of an American Academy of Sleep Medicine Task Force. Sleep. 1999;22(5):667-89.

38. Kim SJ, Lee JH, Lee DY, Jhoo JH, Woo JI. Neurocognitive dysfunction associated with sleep quality and sleep apnea in patients with mild cognitive impairment. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry. 2011;19(4):374-81.

39. O'Hara R, Schroder CM, Kraemer HC, Kryla N, Cao C, Miller E, et al. Nocturnal sleep apnea/hypopnea is associated with lower memory performance in APOE epsilon4 carriers. Neurology. 2005;65(4):642-4.

40. Spira AP, Blackwell T, Stone KL, Redline S, Cauley JA, Ancoli-Israel S, et al. Sleep-disordered breathing and cognition in older women. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2008;56(1):45-50.

41. Zimmerman ME, Bigal ME, Katz MJ, Brickman AM, Lipton RB. Sleep onset/maintenance difficulties and cognitive function in nondemented older adults: the role of cognitive reserve. J Int Neuropsychol Soc. 2012;18(3):461-70.

42. Boland LL, Shahar E, Iber C, Knopman DS, Kuo TF, Nieto FJ, et al. Measures of cognitive function in persons with varying degrees of sleep-disordered breathing: the Sleep Heart Health Study. J Sleep Res. 2002;11(3):265-72.

43. Foley DJ, Masaki K, White L, Larkin EK, Monjan A, Redline S. Sleep-disordered breathing and cognitive impairment in elderly Japanese-American men. Sleep. 2003;26(5):596-9.

44. Phillips BA, Berry DT, Schmitt FA, Magan LK, Gerhardstein DC, Cook YR. Sleepdisordered breathing in the healthy elderly. Clinically significant? Chest. 1992;101(2):345-9. 45. Sforza E, Roche F, Thomas-Anterion C, Kerleroux J, Beauchet O, Celle S, et al. Cognitive function and sleep related breathing disorders in a healthy elderly population: the SYNAPSE study. Sleep. 2010;33(4):515-21.

46. Joo EY, Tae WS, Lee MJ, Kang JW, Park HS, Lee JY, et al. Reduced brain gray matter concentration in patients with obstructive sleep apnea syndrome. Sleep. 2010;33(2):235-41.

47. Robbins J, Redline S, Ervin A, Walsleben JA, Ding J, Nieto FJ. Associations of sleep-disordered breathing and cerebral changes on MRI. J Clin Sleep Med. 2005;1(2):159-65.

48. Zimmerman ME, Aloia MS. A review of neuroimaging in obstructive sleep apnea. J Clin Sleep Med. 2006;2(4):461-71.

49. Kim H, Yun CH, Thomas RJ, Lee SH, Seo HS, Cho ER, et al. Obstructive sleep apnea as a risk factor for cerebral white matter change in a middle-aged and older general population. Sleep. 2013;36(5):709-15B.

50. Macey PM, Henderson LA, Macey KE, Alger JR, Frysinger RC, Woo MA, et al. Brain morphology associated with obstructive sleep apnea. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2002;166(10):1382-7.

51. Morrell MJ, McRobbie DW, Quest RA, Cummin AR, Ghiassi R, Corfield DR.
Changes in brain morphology associated with obstructive sleep apnea. Sleep Med.
2003;4(5):451-4.

52. Weng HH, Tsai YH, Chen CF, Lin YC, Yang CT, Tsai YH, et al. Mapping gray matter reductions in obstructive sleep apnea: an activation likelihood estimation metaanalysis. Sleep. 2014;37(1):167-75.

53. Yaouhi K, Bertran F, Clochon P, Mezenge F, Denise P, Foret J, et al. A combined neuropsychological and brain imaging study of obstructive sleep apnea. J Sleep Res. 2009;18(1):36-48.

54. Torelli F, Moscufo N, Garreffa G, Placidi F, Romigi A, Zannino S, et al. Cognitive profile and brain morphological changes in obstructive sleep apnea. Neuroimage. 2011;54(2):787-93.

55. Ferini-Strambi L, Marelli S, Galbiati A, Castronovo C. Effects of continuous positive airway pressure on cognitition and neuroimaging data in sleep apnea. Int J Psychophysiol. 2013;89(2):203-12.

56. Ju G, Yoon IY, Lee SD, Kim TH, Choe JY, Kim KW. Effects of sleep apnea syndrome on delayed memory and executive function in elderly adults. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2012;60(6):1099-103.

57. Castronovo V, Scifo P, Castellano A, Aloia MS, Iadanza A, Marelli S, et al. White matter integrity in obstructive sleep apnea before and after treatment. Sleep. 2014;37(9):1465-75.

58. Ayalon L, Ancoli-Israel S, Drummond SP. Obstructive sleep apnea and age: a double insult to brain function? Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2010;182(3):413-9.

59. Ferini-Strambi L, Baietto C, Di Gioia MR, Castaldi P, Castronovo C, Zucconi M, et al. Cognitive dysfunction in patients with obstructive sleep apnea (OSA): partial reversibility after continuous positive airway pressure (CPAP). Brain Res Bull. 2003;61(1):87-92.

60. Naegele B, Launois SH, Mazza S, Feuerstein C, Pepin JL, Levy P. Which memory processes are affected in patients with obstructive sleep apnea? An evaluation of 3 types of memory. Sleep. 2006;29(4):533-44.

61. Bawden FC, Oliveira CA, Caramelli P. Impact of obstructive sleep apnea on cognitive performance. Arq Neuropsiquiatr. 2011;69(4):585-9.

62. Verstraeten E, Cluydts R, Pevernagie D, Hoffmann G. Executive function in sleep apnea: controlling for attentional capacity in assessing executive attention. Sleep. 2004;27(4):685-93.

63. Diamond A. Executive functions. Annu Rev Psychol. 2013;64:135-68.

64. Palta P, Snitz B, Carlson MC. Neuropsychologic assessment. Handb Clin Neurol. 2016;138:107-19.

65. Quan SF, Wright R, Baldwin CM, Kaemingk KL, Goodwin JL, Kuo TF, et al. Obstructive sleep apnea-hypopnea and neurocognitive functioning in the Sleep Heart Health Study. Sleep Med. 2006;7(6):498-507. 66. de Figueiredo EH, Borgonovi AF, Doring TM. Basic concepts of MR imaging, diffusion MR imaging, and diffusion tensor imaging. Magn Reson Imaging Clin N Am. 2011;19(1):1-22.

67. Song SK, Sun SW, Ramsbottom MJ, Chang C, Russell J, Cross AH. Dysmyelination revealed through MRI as increased radial (but unchanged axial) diffusion of water. Neuroimage. 2002;17(3):1429-36.

68. Blackwell T, Yaffe K, Laffan A, Redline S, Ancoli-Israel S, Ensrud KE, et al. Associations between sleep-disordered breathing, nocturnal hypoxemia, and subsequent cognitive decline in older community-dwelling men: the Osteoporotic Fractures in Men Sleep Study. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2015;63(3):453-61.

69. Hoth KF, Zimmerman ME, Meschede KA, Arnedt JT, Aloia MS. Obstructive sleep apnea: impact of hypoxemia on memory. Sleep Breath. 2013;17(2):811-7.

70. Mathieu A, Mazza S, Decary A, Massicotte-Marquez J, Petit D, Gosselin N, et al. Effects of obstructive sleep apnea on cognitive function: a comparison between younger and older OSAS patients. Sleep Med. 2008;9(2):112-20.

71. Sharma H, Sharma SK, Kadhiravan T, Mehta M, Sreenivas V, Gulati V, et al. Pattern & correlates of neurocognitive dysfunction in Asian Indian adults with severe obstructive sleep apnoea. Indian J Med Res. 2010;132:409-14.

72. Joo EY, Jeon S, Kim ST, Lee JM, Hong SB. Localized cortical thinning in patients with obstructive sleep apnea syndrome. Sleep. 2013;36(8):1153-62.

73. Dalmases M, Sole-Padulles C, Torres M, Embid C, Nunez MD, Martinez-Garcia MA, et al. Effect of CPAP on Cognition, Brain Function, and Structure Among Elderly Patients With OSA: A Randomized Pilot Study. Chest. 2015;148(5):1214-23.

74. Baril AA, Gagnon K, Brayet P, Montplaisir J, De Beaumont L, Carrier J, et al. Gray Matter Hypertrophy and Thickening with Obstructive Sleep Apnea in Middle-aged and Older Adults. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2017;195(11):1509-18.

75. Macey PM, Haris N, Kumar R, Thomas MA, Woo MA, Harper RM. Obstructive sleep apnea and cortical thickness in females and males. PLoS One. 2018;13(3):e0193854.

76. Cross NE, Memarian N, Duffy SL, Paquola C, LaMonica H, D'Rozario A, et al. Structural brain correlates of obstructive sleep apnoea in older adults at risk for dementia. Eur Respir J. 2018;52(1).

77. Kumar R, Chavez AS, Macey PM, Woo MA, Yan-Go FL, Harper RM. Altered global and regional brain mean diffusivity in patients with obstructive sleep apnea. J Neurosci Res. 2012;90(10):2043-52.

78. Kumar R, Pham TT, Macey PM, Woo MA, Yan-Go FL, Harper RM. Abnormal myelin and axonal integrity in recently diagnosed patients with obstructive sleep apnea. Sleep. 2014;37(4):723-32.

79. Macey PM, Kumar R, Woo MA, Valladares EM, Yan-Go FL, Harper RM. Brain structural changes in obstructive sleep apnea. Sleep. 2008;31(7):967-77.

80. Chen L, Fan X, Li H, Ye C, Yu H, Gong H, et al. Topological Reorganization of the Default Mode Network in Severe Male Obstructive Sleep Apnea. Front Neurol. 2018;9:363.

81. Chen LT, Fan XL, Li HJ, Ye CL, Yu HH, Xin HZ, et al. Aberrant brain functional connectome in patients with obstructive sleep apnea. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat. 2018;14:1059-70.

82. Huang Y, Liu Y, Zhao D, Liu B, Zhang H, Huang Z, et al. Small-world properties of the whole-brain functional networks in patients with obstructive sleep apnea-hypopnea syndrome. Sleep Med. 2019;62:53-8.

83. Li HJ, Dai XJ, Gong HH, Nie X, Zhang W, Peng DC. Aberrant spontaneous lowfrequency brain activity in male patients with severe obstructive sleep apnea revealed by resting-state functional MRI. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat. 2015;11:207-14.

84. Li HJ, Nie X, Gong HH, Zhang W, Nie S, Peng DC. Abnormal resting-state functional connectivity within the default mode network subregions in male patients with obstructive sleep apnea. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat. 2016;12:203-12.

85. Park B, Palomares JA, Woo MA, Kang DW, Macey PM, Yan-Go FL, et al. Aberrant Insular Functional Network Integrity in Patients with Obstructive Sleep Apnea. Sleep. 2016;39(5):989-1000. 86. Park B, Palomares JA, Woo MA, Kang DW, Macey PM, Yan-Go FL, et al. Disrupted functional brain network organization in patients with obstructive sleep apnea. Brain Behav. 2016;6(3):e00441.

87. Peng DC, Dai XJ, Gong HH, Li HJ, Nie X, Zhang W. Altered intrinsic regional brain activity in male patients with severe obstructive sleep apnea: a resting-state functional magnetic resonance imaging study. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat. 2014;10:1819-26.

88. Santarnecchi E, Sicilia I, Richiardi J, Vatti G, Polizzotto NR, Marino D, et al. Altered cortical and subcortical local coherence in obstructive sleep apnea: a functional magnetic resonance imaging study. J Sleep Res. 2013;22(3):337-47.

89. Song X, Roy B, Kang DW, Aysola RS, Macey PM, Woo MA, et al. Altered restingstate hippocampal and caudate functional networks in patients with obstructive sleep apnea. Brain Behav. 2018;8(6):e00994.

90. Yu H, Chen L, Li H, Xin H, Zhang J, Wei Z, et al. Abnormal resting-state functional connectivity of amygdala subregions in patients with obstructive sleep apnea. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat. 2019;15:977-87.

91. Zhang Q, Wang D, Qin W, Li Q, Chen B, Zhang Y, et al. Altered resting-state brain activity in obstructive sleep apnea. Sleep. 2013;36(5):651-9B.

92. Zhang Q, Qin W, He X, Li Q, Chen B, Zhang Y, et al. Functional disconnection of the right anterior insula in obstructive sleep apnea. Sleep Med. 2015;16(9):1062-70.

93. Fayers PM, Cuschieri A, Fielding J, Craven J, Uscinska B, Freedman LS. Sample size calculation for clinical trials: the impact of clinician beliefs. Br J Cancer. 2000;82(1):213-9.

94. Swanson J. The Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System. Canadian Journal of School Psychology. 2005;20:117-28.

95. D. W. Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Fourth Edition. Fourth Edition ed. San Antonio, TX: Pearson; 2008.

96. D. W. Wechsler Memory Scale-Fourth Edition. Fourth Edition ed. San Antonio, TX: Pearson; 2009.

97. Johns MW. A new method for measuring daytime sleepiness: the Epworth sleepiness scale. Sleep. 1991;14(6):540-5.

98. Johns M, Hocking B. Daytime sleepiness and sleep habits of Australian workers. Sleep. 1997;20(10):844-9.

99. Committee TTBF. Thai Mental State Examination (TMSE). Siriraj Hosp Gaz. 1993(45):359-74.

100. Delis DC KE, Kramer JH. Delis-Kaplan Executive Function System: Technical Manual. San Antonio, TX: Harcourt Assessment Company; 2001.

101. Fischl B, Sereno MI, Dale AM. Cortical surface-based analysis. II: Inflation, flattening, and a surface-based coordinate system. Neuroimage. 1999;9(2):195-207.

102. Fischl B, Sereno MI, Tootell RB, Dale AM. High-resolution intersubject averaging and a coordinate system for the cortical surface. Hum Brain Mapp. 1999;8(4):272-84.

103. Dale AM, Fischl B, Sereno MI. Cortical surface-based analysis. I. Segmentation and surface reconstruction. Neuroimage. 1999;9(2):179-94.

104. Fischl B, Dale AM. Measuring the thickness of the human cerebral cortex from magnetic resonance images. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2000;97(20):11050-5.

105. Fischl B, Liu A, Dale AM. Automated manifold surgery: constructing geometrically accurate and topologically correct models of the human cerebral cortex. IEEE Trans Med Imaging. 2001;20(1):70-80.

106. Fischl B, Salat DH, Busa E, Albert M, Dieterich M, Haselgrove C, et al. Whole brain segmentation: automated labeling of neuroanatomical structures in the human brain. Neuron. 2002;33(3):341-55.

107. Rosas HD, Liu AK, Hersch S, Glessner M, Ferrante RJ, Salat DH, et al. Regional and progressive thinning of the cortical ribbon in Huntington's disease. Neurology. 2002;58(5):695-701.

108. Kuperberg GR, Broome MR, McGuire PK, David AS, Eddy M, Ozawa F, et al. Regionally localized thinning of the cerebral cortex in schizophrenia. Arch Gen Psychiatry. 2003;60(9):878-88.

109. Fischl B, van der Kouwe A, Destrieux C, Halgren E, Segonne F, Salat DH, et al.
Automatically parcellating the human cerebral cortex. Cereb Cortex. 2004;14(1):11-22.
110. Fischl B, Salat DH, van der Kouwe AJ, Makris N, Segonne F, Quinn BT, et al.
Sequence-independent segmentation of magnetic resonance images. Neuroimage.
2004;23 Suppl 1:S69-84.

111. Salat DH, Buckner RL, Snyder AZ, Greve DN, Desikan RS, Busa E, et al. Thinning of the cerebral cortex in aging. Cereb Cortex. 2004;14(7):721-30.

112. Segonne F, Dale AM, Busa E, Glessner M, Salat D, Hahn HK, et al. A hybrid approach to the skull stripping problem in MRI. Neuroimage. 2004;22(3):1060-75.

113. Desikan RS, Segonne F, Fischl B, Quinn BT, Dickerson BC, Blacker D, et al. An automated labeling system for subdividing the human cerebral cortex on MRI scans into gyral based regions of interest. Neuroimage. 2006;31(3):968-80.

114. Han X, Jovicich J, Salat D, van der Kouwe A, Quinn B, Czanner S, et al. Reliability of MRI-derived measurements of human cerebral cortical thickness: the effects of field strength, scanner upgrade and manufacturer. Neuroimage. 2006;32(1):180-94.

115. Jovicich J, Czanner S, Greve D, Haley E, van der Kouwe A, Gollub R, et al. Reliability in multi-site structural MRI studies: effects of gradient non-linearity correction on phantom and human data. Neuroimage. 2006;30(2):436-43.

116. Segonne F, Pacheco J, Fischl B. Geometrically accurate topology-correction of cortical surfaces using nonseparating loops. IEEE Trans Med Imaging. 2007;26(4):518-29.

117. Reuter M, Rosas HD, Fischl B. Highly accurate inverse consistent registration: a robust approach. Neuroimage. 2010;53(4):1181-96.

118. Dale AM, Sereno MI. Improved Localizadon of Cortical Activity by Combining EEG and MEG with MRI Cortical Surface Reconstruction: A Linear Approach. J Cogn Neurosci. 1993;5(2):162-76.

119. Jenkinson M, Beckmann CF, Behrens TE, Woolrich MW, Smith SM. Fsl. Neuroimage. 2012;62(2):782-90.

120. Smith SM. Fast robust automated brain extraction. Hum Brain Mapp.2002;17(3):143-55.

121. Andersson JLR, Sotiropoulos SN. An integrated approach to correction for offresonance effects and subject movement in diffusion MR imaging. Neuroimage. 2016;125:1063-78.

122. Pierpaoli C, Jezzard P, Basser PJ, Barnett A, Di Chiro G. Diffusion tensor MR imaging of the human brain. Radiology. 1996;201(3):637-48.

123. Alexander AL, Lee JE, Lazar M, Field AS. Diffusion tensor imaging of the brain. Neurotherapeutics. 2007;4(3):316-29. 124. Kumar R, Chavez AS, Macey PM, Woo MA, Harper RM. Brain axial and radial diffusivity changes with age and gender in healthy adults. Brain Res. 2013;1512:22-36.

125. Smith SM, Jenkinson M, Johansen-Berg H, Rueckert D, Nichols TE, Mackay CE, et al. Tract-based spatial statistics: voxelwise analysis of multi-subject diffusion data. Neuroimage. 2006;31(4):1487-505.

126. Smith SM, Jenkinson M, Woolrich MW, Beckmann CF, Behrens TE, Johansen-Berg H, et al. Advances in functional and structural MR image analysis and implementation as FSL. Neuroimage. 2004;23 Suppl 1:S208-19.

127. Andersson J. L. R. JM, Smith S. Non-linear optimisation. FMRIB technical report TR07JA1 2007 [Available from: www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/analysis/techrep.

128. Andersson J. L. R. JM, Smith S. Non-linear registration, aka Spatial normalisation FMRIB technical report TR07JA2 2007 [Available from:

www.fmrib.ox.ac.uk/analysis/techrep.

129. Rueckert D, Sonoda LI, Hayes C, Hill DL, Leach MO, Hawkes DJ. Nonrigid registration using free-form deformations: application to breast MR images. IEEE Trans Med Imaging. 1999;18(8):712-21.

130. Woolrich MW, Ripley BD, Brady M, Smith SM. Temporal autocorrelation in univariate linear modeling of FMRI data. Neuroimage. 2001;14(6):1370-86.

131. Jenkinson M, Bannister P, Brady M, Smith S. Improved optimization for the robust and accurate linear registration and motion correction of brain images. Neuroimage. 2002;17(2):825-41.

132. Jenkinson M, Smith S. A global optimisation method for robust affine registration of brain images. Med Image Anal. 2001;5(2):143-56.

133. Beckmann CF, Smith SM. Probabilistic independent component analysis for functional magnetic resonance imaging. IEEE Trans Med Imaging. 2004;23(2):137-52.

134. FreeSurfer Qdec [Available from:

https://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/fswiki/Odec.

135. Winkler AM, Ridgway GR, Webster MA, Smith SM, Nichols TE. Permutation inference for the general linear model. Neuroimage. 2014;92:381-97.

136. Beckmann CF, Mackay, C.E., Filippini, N., Smith, S.M. Group comparison of resting-state FMRI data using multi-subject ICA and dual regression. Organization for Human Brain Mapping2009.

137. Nickerson LD, Smith SM, Ongur D, Beckmann CF. Using Dual Regression to Investigate Network Shape and Amplitude in Functional Connectivity Analyses. Front Neurosci. 2017;11:115.

138. Dewan NA, Nieto FJ, Somers VK. Intermittent hypoxemia and OSA: implications for comorbidities. Chest. 2015;147(1):266-74.

139. Harper RM, Kumar R, Macey PM, Woo MA, Ogren JA. Affective brain areas and sleep-disordered breathing. Prog Brain Res. 2014;209:275-93.

140. Joo EY, Tae WS, Han SJ, Cho JW, Hong SB. Reduced cerebral blood flow during wakefulness in obstructive sleep apnea-hypopnea syndrome. Sleep. 2007;30(11):1515-20.

141. Park DC, Reuter-Lorenz P. The adaptive brain: aging and neurocognitive scaffolding. Annu Rev Psychol. 2009;60:173-96.





Chulalongkorn University

VITA

NAME

Anthipa Chokesuwattanaskul

DATE OF BIRTH 22 October 1990

PLACE OF BIRTH Bangkok

INSTITUTIONS ATTENDED Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University

HOME ADDRESS

950/29 Royal River Place, Rama III road, Soi 38, Bang Phongphang, Yannawa district, Bangkok, 10120



จุฬาลงกรณมหาวทยาลย Chulalongkorn University