

1 **Comparison of Collapsibility of the Human Upper Airway During Anesthesia and During**
2 **Sleep**

3

4 Kathleen J Maddison PhD ^{1,2}, Jennifer H Walsh PhD^{1,2}, Kelly L Shepherd PhD ^{1,2}, Chrianna
5 Bharat BSc (Hons) ^{3,4}, Bradley K Lawther MBBCh ⁵, Peter R Platt MBBS ⁵, Peter R Eastwood
6 PhD ^{1,2} and David R Hillman MBBS ^{1,2}

7

8 ¹ Centre for Sleep Science, School of Human Sciences, The University of Western Australia,
9 Crawley, WA, Australia

10 ² West Australian Sleep Disorders Research Institute, Department of Pulmonary Physiology
11 & Sleep Medicine, Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Nedlands, WA, Australia

12 ³ Centre for Applied Statistics, The University of Western Australia, Crawley, WA, Australia

13 ⁴ Department of Research, Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Nedlands, WA, Australia

14 ⁵ Department of Anaesthesia, Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital, Nedlands, WA, Australia

15

16 **Running Head Title (max 60 characters):** Upper airway collapsibility: anesthesia versus sleep

17

18 **Corresponding Author:**

19 Dr Kathleen J Maddison

20 Department of Pulmonary Physiology & Sleep Medicine

21 Internal Mailbox 201

1 QEII Medical Centre
2 Hospital Ave, Nedlands
3 West Australia 6009
4 Australia
5 Tel: +61 8 9346 1192
6 Fax: +61 8 9346 2034
7 Email: Kath.Maddison@health.wa.gov.au

8

9 **Acknowledgements:** The authors would like to thank Adam Benjafeld, Jeff Armistead and
10 Glenn Richards from the ResMed Science Center (Australia) for providing the Pcrit device
11 with which we made our measurements.

12

13 **Word count:** Abstract – 247/400 words

14 Introduction – 386/400 words

15 Discussion – 1182/1000 words

16

17 **Abbreviated Title:** Upper airway collapsibility: anesthesia versus sleep

18

19 **Funding:** This study work was supported by a National Health and Medical Research Council
20 of Australia Project Grant [No. 572647] and the Australia and New Zealand College of
21 Anaesthetists [No. 11027]. DR Hillman was awarded the Mundipharma Australian and New

1 Zealand College of Anaesthetists Research Fellowship for 2011. KJ Maddison received an
2 Australian Postgraduate Award Scholarship from the Australian Government and Safety Net
3 Top-up Scholarship from The University of Western Australia. PR Eastwood is funded by a
4 National Health and Medical Research Council Senior Research Fellowship [No. 1042341].

5

6 **Disclosure of Conflict of Interest:** The authors have no conflicts of interest declare relevant
7 to this paper.

8

9 **Author Contributions:** Kathleen Jenni Maddison: This author helped with the conception
10 and design, subject recruitment, data collection, data analysis and drafting of the
11 manuscript. Jennifer Helene Walsh: This author helped with the conception and design, data
12 collection and critical review of the manuscript. Kelly Lee Shepherd: This author helped with
13 the data collection and critical review of the manuscript. Chrianna Bharat: This author
14 helped with statistical analysis and critical review of the manuscript. Bradley K Lawther: The
15 author helped with data collection and critical review of the manuscript. Peter R Platt: This
16 author helped with the conception and design, data collection and critical review of the
17 manuscript. Peter Raymond Eastwood: This author helped with the conception and design,
18 data collection and critical review of the manuscript; David Russell Hillman: The author
19 helped with the conception and design, data collection and critical review of the
20 manuscript.

1 ABSTRACT

2 **Background** The propensities for the upper airway (UA) to collapse during anesthesia and
3 sleep are related, although much of our understanding of this relationship has been inferred
4 from clinical observation and indirect measures such as the apnea hypopnea index. The aim
5 of this study was to use an identical, rigorous, direct measure of UA collapsibility (UA critical
6 closing pressure (Pcrit)) under both conditions to allow the magnitude of UA collapsibility in
7 each state to be precisely compared.

8 **Methods** Ten subjects (8 males, 2 females; mean±SD; age 40.4±12.1years; body mass index
9 28.5±4.0kg.m⁻²) were studied. Pcrit was measured in each subject on separate days during:
10 (i) propofol anesthesia; and (ii) sleep.

11 **Results** Pcrit measurements were obtained in all 10 subjects during non-rapid eye
12 movement (NREM) sleep and, in 4 of these 10 subjects, also during rapid eye movement
13 (REM) sleep. Pcrit during anesthesia was linearly related to Pcrit during NREM sleep ($r=0.64$
14 [95%CI: 0.02, 0.91], $n=10$, $p=0.046$) with a similar tendency in REM sleep ($r=0.80$ [95%CI:
15 -0.70, 0.99], $n=4$, $p=0.200$). However, Pcrit during anesthesia was systematically greater
16 (indicating increased collapsibility) than during NREM sleep (2.1 ± 2.2 vs. -2.0 ± 3.2 cmH₂O
17 respectively, $n=10$; within-subject mean difference 4.1 cmH₂O [95%CI: 2.32, 5.87], $p<0.001$)
18 with a similar tendency during REM sleep (1.6 ± 2.4 vs -1.9 ± 4.3 cmH₂O respectively, $n=4$;
19 unadjusted difference 3.5 cmH₂O [95%CI: -0.95, 7.96], $p=0.087$).

20 **Conclusion** These results demonstrate that the magnitude of UA collapsibility during

1 anesthesia and sleep are directly related. However, the UA is systematically more
2 collapsible during anesthesia than sleep, suggesting greater vulnerability to UA obstruction
3 in the anesthetized state.

4

5 **KEY POINTS**

6 **Question:** Are upper airway (UA) collapsibilities during anesthesia and sleep related?

7 **Findings:** Using the same metric, Pcrit, under each condition we have demonstrated that UA
8 collapsibility during propofol anesthesia and sleep are correlated but that the UA is
9 systematically more collapsible during anesthesia.

10 **Meaning:** Collapsibilities of the UA during anesthesia and sleep are related but
11 systematically greater during anesthesia, suggesting that individual vulnerability to UA
12 obstruction in one state indicates vulnerability in the other, but that the UA is particularly
13 prone to obstruction during anesthesia.

14

15 **Key words:** anesthesia; sedation; propofol; Pcrit; sleep; non-rapid eye movement sleep;
16 rapid eye movement sleep.

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Indirect comparisons suggest that the tendencies to upper airway (UA) obstruction during
3 anesthesia and sleep are related.¹ In both states the transition to unconsciousness is
4 associated with a decrease in UA dilator muscle activity and an increase in pharyngeal
5 collapsibility,^{2,3} the degree of which varies between individuals and depends on several
6 factors including anatomy and posture.⁴ However, while a general relationship is evident
7 between the degree of UA collapsibility in both states,¹ anesthesia appears to be associated
8 with more profound collapsibility, as evidenced by the high occurrence of UA obstruction in
9 supine anesthetized subjects (if a mechanical aid to maintain patency is not deployed),
10 including in individuals without obstructive sleep apnea (OSA).¹ Furthermore, anesthesia
11 abolishes the arousal responses that protect the sleeping subject from asphyxia in the case
12 of UA obstruction during sleep.

13

14 To date, much of our understanding of the relationship in UA behavior between anesthesia
15 and sleep has been inferred^{5,6} or based on relating an indirect measurement of UA
16 collapsibility during sleep (the apnea hypopnea index (AHI)) to a direct measure of UA
17 collapsibility during anesthesia (e.g. UA critical closing pressure (Pcrit), a rigorous direct
18 measure of UA collapsibility).¹

19

20 The lack of a direct comparison of UA collapsibility between the states, using an identical,
21 rigorous assessment of UA collapsibility (such as Pcrit) in the same subjects in both states, is

1 a deficiency. It leaves the bedrock assumption of a relationship in UA collapsibility between
2 the states (that underpins a large literature relating to sleep disordered breathing and
3 anesthesia) inadequately defined. Defining this relationship is important in determining
4 how directly information regarding UA behavior in one state can be transposed to the other.
5 For example, it remains unclear how accurately observation of UA behavior during drug
6 induced sedation endoscopy (DISE),⁷ a procedure commonly undertaken to inform surgery
7 for OSA, relates to behavior during sleep.⁸

8

9 The reason for this deficiency is likely to relate to the logistic and technical challenges in
10 making Pcrit measurements in the same individuals in both states. The aim of this study
11 was to address this gap in knowledge by comparing, for the first time, Pcrit in the same
12 individuals during both deep sedation/anesthesia and sleep. We hypothesized that the
13 degree of UA collapsibility in each state would: (i) be related; and (ii) would be greater
14 during anesthesia than during sleep.

15

16

1 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2 **Subjects**

3 All subjects provided written informed consent prior to participation in the study, which was
4 approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Sir Charles Gairdner Hospital (SCGH
5 2009-037). The present observational study is a component of a larger study examining the
6 effect of head posture on the human UA during sleep, sedation and anesthesia in
7 participants with and without OSA.

8

9 Subjects with and without OSA were recruited by advertisement in a hospital sleep clinic or
10 the community. Subjects were excluded if they were morbidly obese (body mass index
11 (BMI) $>35\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) or had a history of cardiovascular or respiratory disease or other significant
12 medical co-morbidity.

13

14 **Experimental Procedures**

15 ***Study Design***

16 On separate occasions (at least 48 hours apart) subjects underwent: (i) a standard in-
17 laboratory diagnostic sleep study to establish the baseline level of sleep disordered
18 breathing ("*Diagnostic sleep study*"); (ii) a second overnight sleep study to measure UA
19 collapsibility during NREM and REM sleep ("*Research sleep study*"); and (iii) a brief daytime
20 study to measure UA collapsibility during general anesthesia ("*Anesthesia study*"). In all but
21 one instance (Subject #1) the *Research sleep study* preceded the *Anesthesia study*.

1

2 *Diagnostic Sleep Study*

3 In-laboratory polysomnography was undertaken according to American Academy of Sleep
4 Medicine recommendations.⁹ Data were collected on a computerized data acquisition
5 system (E-series, Compumedics, Abbotsford, Victoria, Australia). Standard criteria were
6 used to determine AHI in each subject.⁹

7

8 *Research Sleep Study*

9 Subjects arrived 2 hours before their usual bedtime to be instrumented as described for the
10 baseline *Diagnostic sleep study*. Topical lignocaine spray was applied to the nares and
11 posterior-pharynx and a pressure-tipped catheter (Millar MPC-550, Millar Instruments,
12 Houston TX, USA) was inserted via the nares to the level of the epiglottis. Subjects were
13 instrumented for Pcrit assessment (see below, *Specific Techniques*).

14

15 Approximately 30 minutes prior to lights out subjects were administered a hypnotic (10-
16 20mg Temazepam) to aid with wake-sleep transition (n=9). CPAP was applied to ensure UA
17 patency during sleep and to facilitate assessment of Pcrit. Head and body posture were
18 carefully controlled during all measures of UA collapsibility. Specifically, subjects were
19 positioned supine with the head in a neutral position (Frankfort plane perpendicular to the
20 horizon) on a modified Shea headrest. An infrared camera enabled visual confirmation of
21 head posture throughout the study, with adjustments made by intervention of the

1 attending scientific staff where neutral posture was lost. Pcrit measurements were made
2 (see below, *Specific Techniques*) during periods of stable NREM sleep and, where possible,
3 REM sleep.

4

5 ***Anesthesia Study***

6 No premedication was administered. Standard monitoring was applied, and a vein
7 cannulated. Subjects were instrumented for Pcrit assessment (see below, *Specific*
8 *Techniques*) including application of CPAP administered via a nasal mask with the mouth
9 occluded and head supported in a neutral posture using a Shea headrest, according to our
10 previously described techniques.^{2,4} Topical lignocaine spray was applied to the nares and
11 posterior-pharynx and an esophageal-pharyngeal pressure transducer catheter (Gaeltec,
12 CTO-4; Dunvegan, Isle of Skye, Scotland) inserted via the nares as previously described.^{4,10}
13 Anesthesia was then induced with propofol (Diprivan, AstraZeneca, Alderley Park, Cheshire,
14 UK) administered via a target-controlled infusion system (Diprifusor, Alaris PK, Cardinal
15 Health, Switzerland).^{11,12} Anesthetic depth was monitored using the bispectral index score
16 (BIS) derived from a frontal electroencephalogram (Aspect Medical Systems, Newton, MA).
17 The propofol infusion rate was adjusted to attain an anesthetic depth associated with a
18 BIS \leq 50. Pcrit measurements were performed only when stable breathing was observed.

19

20 ***Specific Techniques***

21 ***Evaluation of Upper Airway Collapsibility – Pcrit technique***

1 Measures of UA collapsibility were obtained as previously described.^{1,4,13} Briefly, stable
2 breathing was established with a CPAP level (“maintenance pressure”) sufficient to abolish
3 inspiratory flow limitation (the presence of which was recognized by appearance of a
4 plateau in the inspiratory flow profile).^{13,14} Nasal mask pressure (P_{mask}) was controlled
5 using a custom made device (Resmed, Bella Vista, Australia) capable of delivering both
6 positive and negative pressures. P_{mask} was reduced from maintenance pressure to a range
7 of positive and, where necessary, negative pressures to induce variable degrees of
8 inspiratory flow limitation over a 5-breath sequence before return to maintenance pressure
9 (Figure 1A). A minimum of three pressure drops to levels associated with flow limitation
10 were obtained, with care taken to get close to zero flow with at least one of the drops
11 during this sequence. P_{crit} was derived from the extrapolation of the linear P_{mask} - plateau
12 flow rate relationship obtained during these pressure drops to zero flow. P_{mask} at this
13 point = P_{crit} (Figure 1B). Where multiple pressure drop sequences were used to determine
14 P_{crit} under a given set of conditions, the average P_{crit} value was used for analysis. If a
15 momentary arousal occurred during the first 3 breaths of a 5-breath pressure drop
16 sequence or at any stage during the sequence then pressure was restored and the data
17 from that pressure drop were excluded from analysis, with further pressure drops only
18 initiated after restoration of stable sleep and breathing. However, if a momentary arousal
19 occurred during either of the last two breaths of the sequence then breaths 3 and/or 4 were
20 used for analysis. If the subject awoke (>15 seconds of wakeful encephalographic activity)

1 at any stage during the pressure drop sequence it was terminated and re-initiated after
2 restoration of stable sleep and breathing.

3

4 Pmask, esophageal/epiglottic pressure and flow were recorded continuously on a specific
5 data acquisition-analysis system (model 16s; ADInstruments, Sydney, Australia) as well as on
6 the sleep data acquisition system (E-series, Compumedics, Abbotsford, Victoria, Australia).

7

8 **Statistical Analyses**

9 Where more than one value for Pcrit was obtained from a subject in a particular state the
10 average value was used. Mean±standard deviation (SD) is reported for Pcrit in each state
11 and for the within-person difference between anesthesia and NREM, anesthesia and REM,
12 and NREM and REM states. One-sample, 2- tailed t-tests were used to examine whether the
13 within-subject differences of Pcrit between states were significantly different from zero.
14 Linear regression models were used to estimate the relationship between Pcrit measured
15 during different states. Pearson product-moment correlations (r), and corresponding p -
16 values testing whether the correlation differed from zero, are reported. A Bland Altman
17 plot was used to display the difference between states across the range of Pcrit values.

18

19 The relationships between Pcrit values obtained during both NREM and REM sleep with
20 baseline AHI values were estimated, using Pearson product-moment correlations to
21 examine the strength of the linear association between these direct and indirect measures

1 of airway collapsibility. The correlation of the magnitude of the within-subject differences
2 in Pcrit between anesthesia and NREM sleep with baseline AHI was also examined to
3 investigate whether this difference was influenced by OSA severity.

4

5 Data were analyzed using the R environment for statistical computing.¹⁵

6

7 **Sample Size**

8 Based on previous experience with similar physiology studies we aimed to recruit 10-15
9 subjects. Thirteen subjects were recruited between November 2012 and September 2013:
10 two were excluded due to an inability to tolerate a nasal mask during sleep; one was
11 excluded because of recurring arousal from sleep during the first 1-2 breaths whenever
12 mask pressure was decreased from the maintenance pressure. Based on reproducibility
13 data from Ong et al.¹⁶, a sample size of 9 was sufficient to detect a clinically meaningful
14 difference in Pcrit ($3.3 \pm 3.0 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$) between 2 states with 80% power at the 0.05 significance
15 level using a 1-sample, 2-tailed t-test.

16

1 RESULTS

2 ***Subject and Study Characteristics***

3 Data from 10 subjects were included in the analysis (8 males, 2 females; age 40.4 ± 12.1 years;
4 and BMI $28.5 \pm 4.0 \text{ kg.m}^{-2}$, see Table 1). Inclusion of participants from the sleep clinic and
5 general community ensured a range of AHI scores evident on the *diagnostic sleep study*
6 undertaken following recruitment (1.3 to $44.0 \text{ events.hr}^{-1}$). Mean AHI for the 10 subjects
7 was $16.6 \pm 15.3 \text{ events.hr}^{-1}$. The mean CPAP level required to maintain airway patency during
8 the *anesthesia study* was $12.05 \pm 2.33 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$ which was significantly greater than that
9 required during NREM sleep ($4.23 \pm 2.58 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$, $p < 0.001$) and REM sleep ($6.38 \pm 2.44 \text{ cmH}_2\text{O}$
10 $p = 0.002$). During the *anesthesia study* it took 7.17 ± 7.08 minutes to complete the Pcrit
11 measurements. Propofol effect site concentration for the 10 subjects ranged from 3.0 to
12 $5.5 \mu\text{g.ml}^{-1}$.

13

14 ***Upper airway collapsibility***

15 Between 1 and 3 separate measurements of Pcrit were obtained in each subject during
16 NREM sleep (mean 1.5 ± 0.7 measurements per subject, $n = 10$), with each measurement
17 being derived from between 3 and 11 pressure drops. A minimum of 3 pressure drops
18 sufficient to produce varying degrees of flow limitation were used to determine each Pcrit
19 measurement, based on previously described methods.^{4,13,17} An average of 2.4 ± 0.5 , 2.4 ± 0.4
20 and 2.7 ± 0.3 breaths were included in each pressure drop during anesthesia, NREM sleep
21 and REM sleep respectively. Pcrit was able to be obtained during REM sleep in 4 subjects,

1 with between 1 and 4 separate measurements of Pcrit obtained (mean 2.0 ± 1.4 measures
2 per subject, $n=4$). A single Pcrit measurement was obtained in all subjects during general
3 anesthesia – this was considered adequate given the highly reproducible measurement
4 conditions including well-controlled head, jaw and body posture and the absence of
5 arousals during the measurement of Pcrit.⁴ Individual Pcrit data are represented graphically
6 in Figure 2.

7
8 The relationships between Pcrit during anesthesia and either sleep state are illustrated in
9 Figure 3. Pcrit during NREM sleep was linearly related to Pcrit during anesthesia ($r=0.64$
10 [95%CI: 0.02, 0.91], $n=10$, $p=0.046$). However, Pcrit during NREM sleep was systematically
11 lower than that during anesthesia (-2.0 ± 3.2 vs. 2.1 ± 2.2 cmH₂O, respectively, $n=10$;
12 unadjusted mean difference 4.1 cmH₂O [95%CI: 2.32, 5.86], $p<0.001$), indicative of a more
13 collapsible UA under anesthesia. For REM sleep, the available number of observations was
14 small and neither significant linear relationships between Pcrit during REM sleep and during
15 anesthesia ($r=0.80$ [95%CI: -0.70, 0.99], $p=0.200$; $n=4$) nor differences in their values ($-$
16 1.9 ± 4.3 vs. 1.6 ± 2.4 cmH₂O, respectively, $n=4$; unadjusted mean difference 3.5 ± 2.8 cmH₂O
17 [95%CI: -0.95, 7.96]); $p=0.087$) were observed. For the 4 subjects in whom Pcrit
18 measurements were completed in both NREM and REM sleep, their values were similar in
19 either state (within-subject mean difference -0.7 cmH₂O [95%CI: -2.40, 0.91]; $p=0.247$)
20 (Figure 3).

21

1 Pcrit during both NREM and REM sleep, obtained during the *research sleep study*, were
2 linearly related to baseline AHI determined on the *diagnostic sleep study* ($r=0.69$ [95%CI:
3 $0.11, 0.92$], $p=0.027$, $n=10$ and $r=0.98$ [95%CI: $0.23, 1.00$], $p=0.025$, $n=4$, respectively).

4

5 There was also a linear relationship between this baseline AHI and the magnitude of the
6 difference in Pcrit between anesthesia and NREM sleep ($r=-0.75$ [95%CI: $-0.94, -0.22$];
7 $p=0.013$), with lesser differences at higher AHI. At AHI values $<25\text{events.hr}^{-1}$ these
8 differences were consistently greater than $3.5\text{cmH}_2\text{O}$. In the two subjects with most severe
9 OSA, subjects #1 (AHI= 35 events.hr^{-1}) and #10 (AHI= 44 events.hr^{-1}), these differences were
10 1.1 and $-0.1\text{cmH}_2\text{O}$ respectively (Table 1).

11

12

1 **DISCUSSION**

2 Measurement of Pcrit during both general anesthesia and sleep allows, for the first time, a
3 direct comparison between stability of the human UA in these two states. This study
4 reveals that the magnitude of individual UA collapsibilities is correlated between the states
5 but is systematically greater during anesthesia than sleep. Notably, sleep Pcrit – a direct
6 measure of UA collapsibility – was correlated with AHI, a measure of OSA severity.

7

8 The nature of this relationship in UA collapsibility between anesthesia and sleep appeared
9 relatively unaffected by sleep stage, with the magnitude of difference between Pcrit during
10 anesthesia and sleep being similar for both NREM and REM sleep. While the small number
11 of measurements able to be obtained during REM limits the capacity to make comparisons
12 between these sleep stages, the lack of difference in Pcrit between REM and NREM is
13 consistent with other studies with larger sample sizes.¹⁶ Given the more variable
14 circumstances of sleep, with its potential for subtle state and posture changes, we obtained
15 several Pcrit values in each subject for each sleep state using the average value for
16 subsequent analysis. Only one measurement of Pcrit was required during anesthesia given
17 the relative stability of state and posture during it.

18

19 Although correlated, Pcrit was systematically greater during anesthesia than sleep,
20 indicative of a more collapsible UA in that state. Specifically, during anesthesia mean Pcrit
21 was approximately 4cmH₂O greater than that observed during either NREM or REM sleep,

1 which is a meaningful difference.^{16,18} Although variable in degree, the difference was
2 evident across the range of Pcrit values examined (Figure 3). However, when the
3 differences in Pcrit values between anesthesia and NREM sleep were examined in
4 relationship to baseline AHI, they were found to be greatest in those with low AHIs
5 (indicative of nil or milder OSA) with little difference in individuals with severe OSA (Table
6 1). This suggests that while those with severe OSA are highly vulnerable to obstruction in
7 either state, individuals with less problematic sleep may still obstruct during anesthesia.
8 These observations are consistent with previous observations that the propensity of the
9 unprotected UA to obstruct is common during anesthesia but less so during sleep.¹

10

11 Several potential mechanisms could account for this difference including state-related
12 differences in pharyngeal muscle dilator activity, head and/or body posture and lung
13 volume. We have previously shown that propofol anesthesia at a level sufficient to
14 decrease the BIS to <50 is accompanied by marked muscle hypotonia.^{2,11} While we did not
15 measure it in the present study, it is plausible that UA muscle activation is less during
16 anesthesia than sleep, particularly NREM sleep where persisting skeletal muscle activity is
17 evident. However, residual UA muscle activity is relatively low following sleep onset.³
18 Furthermore, the use of CPAP during the Pcrit technique induces a hypotonic state in the UA
19 muscles, so when applied during sleep should induce a comparable level of UA muscle
20 activity to that during anesthesia. Indeed, data from our group¹⁶ and others^{17,19,20} have
21 demonstrated similar Pcrit values during NREM and REM sleep, despite REM sleep being

1 accompanied by profound skeletal muscle hypotonia. Thus, we believe it unlikely that
2 differences in UA muscle activation account for the difference in collapsibility observed
3 between anesthesia and sleep in the present study.

4

5 Other influences on UA collapsibility include head posture and body posture. Supine sleep
6 is associated with a higher Pcrit and more severe OSA than that observed in the lateral
7 posture.^{16,19-21} Head flexion relative to extension has also been shown to increase UA
8 collapsibility.⁴ However, head and body posture were tightly controlled in the present study
9 and are therefore unlikely to explain the observed differences in Pcrit between anesthesia
10 and sleep.

11

12 Lung volume, specifically functional residual capacity (FRC), is also an important contributing
13 factor to UA collapsibility.²² A lower FRC relative to wakeful levels, as occurs during both
14 sleep and anesthesia, decreases UA longitudinal traction forces and increases pressure
15 gradients at the thoracic inlet, increasing propensity for UA collapse.²²⁻²⁵ Given the dose-
16 related relaxant effect of propofol on skeletal muscles,^{26,27} including respiratory and chest
17 wall muscles, it is possible that FRC is lower during anesthesia than sleep. Indeed, dose-
18 related decreases in ventilation occur with increasing anesthetic depth; deep anesthesia can
19 induce profound hypoventilation in spontaneously breathing healthy subjects, of a degree
20 not seen during natural sleep. This suggests that anesthesia has a substantially greater
21 potential depressant effect on respiratory/chest wall muscle activation, likely resulting in a

1 lower FRC and associated greater increase in UA collapsibility in this state than during sleep.
2 However, because we did not directly measure lung volume during either sleep or
3 anesthesia, this mechanism remains speculative.

4
5 Our findings are relevant to the use of drug induced sedation to simulate natural sleep
6 during endoscopic evaluation for UA surgery for OSA (i.e. drug induced sedation endoscopy,
7 DISE). Our data suggest that despite a correlation between UA collapsibility during propofol
8 anesthesia (BIS<50) and sleep, the states are not entirely equivalent with the UA likely to
9 collapse more readily during deep sedation/anesthesia than during sleep.

10
11 There are potential limitations to this study. Firstly, nine of the ten subjects were
12 administered a hypnotic (10-20mg of Temazepam) to assist with wake-to-sleep transition.
13 However, where such modest doses of benzodiazepines are used UA collapsibility is similar
14 to that seen in natural sleep^{16,28} and AHI, oxygen desaturation index and respiratory
15 disturbance index do not change significantly.²⁹⁻³¹ Consistent with this, the one subject who
16 did not receive Temazepam in the present study behaved comparably to those that did.
17 Secondly, supplemental oxygen was applied during anesthesia but not the sleep studies.
18 However, hyperoxia has been shown to have little impact on UA collapsibility³² although
19 hypoxia marginally increases UA collapsibility. However, as UA patency was maintained
20 with therapeutic CPAP for most of each study significant desaturation was not observed
21 during these studies. Thirdly, low subject numbers in REM sleep (n=4), because of the well-

1 recognized difficulties in making Pcrit measurements in this sleep stage due to unstable
2 breathing patterns and arousals when attempting them,³³ make it prudent to interpret
3 analyses from this state with caution, although they are consistent with behavior during
4 NREM sleep. Fourthly, measures of lung volume and chest wall muscle and UA dilator
5 muscle activity in both states would have allowed the mechanisms behind the observed
6 changes in UA collapsibility to have been more directly addressed. Finally, for logistical
7 reasons in all but one instance (subject #1) the research study preceded the anesthesia
8 study, rather than the order being randomized.

9

10 In summary, this study shows that the propensities for the UA to collapse during general
11 anesthesia and sleep are related but that the UA is systematically more collapsible during
12 anesthesia than sleep. This finding is relevant to DISE, which is widely used to evaluate
13 patients in a state that approximates natural sleep, as the states do not appear to be
14 entirely equivalent in respect to UA collapsibility. More generally, the findings suggest that
15 anesthesia is a “worst case” scenario for maintenance of UA patency. Accordingly, while
16 patients with OSA appear to be at particular risk, patients with apparently normal UA
17 function during sleep are not exempt from obstruction under the influence of anesthetic
18 and sedative drugs.

1 **REFERENCES**

- 2 1. Eastwood PR, Szollosi I, Platt PR, Hillman DR. Comparison of upper airway collapse
3 during general anaesthesia and sleep. *Lancet*. 2002;359(9313):1207-1209.
- 4 2. Hillman DR, Walsh JH, Maddison KJ, et al. Evolution of Changes in Upper Airway
5 Collapsibility during Slow Induction of Anesthesia with Propofol. *Anesthesiology*.
6 2009;111(1):63-71.
- 7 3. Wilkinson V, Malhotra A, Nicholas CL, et al. Discharge patterns of human
8 genioglossus motor units during sleep onset. *Sleep*. 2008;31(4):525-533.
- 9 4. Walsh JH, Leigh MS, Paduch A, et al. Effect of body posture on pharyngeal shape and
10 size in adults with and without obstructive sleep apnea. *Sleep*. 2008;31(11):1543-
11 1549.
- 12 5. Kim JA, Lee JJ. Preoperative predictors of difficult intubation in patients with
13 obstructive sleep apnea syndrome. *Canadian journal of anaesthesia = Journal*
14 *canadien d'anesthesie*. 2006;53(4):393-397.
- 15 6. Hiremath AS, Hillman DR, James AL, Noffsinger WJ, Platt PR, Singer SL. Relationship
16 between difficult tracheal intubation and obstructive sleep apnoea. *Br J Anaesth*.
17 1998;80(5):606-611.
- 18 7. Kezirian EJ, Hohenhorst W, de Vries N. Drug-induced sleep endoscopy: the VOTE
19 classification. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol*. 2011;268(8):1233-1236.
- 20 8. De Vito A, Carrasco Llatas M, Vanni A, et al. European position paper on drug-
21 induced sedation endoscopy (DISE). *Sleep Breath*. 2014;18(3):453-465.

- 1 9. Berry RB, Brooks R, Gamaldo CE, et al. The AASM Manual for the Scoring of Sleep
2 and Associated Events: Rules, Terminology and Technical Specifications, Version 2.0.
3 2012;2.0.
- 4 10. Maddison KJ, Hillman DR, Shepherd KL, et al. Collapsibility of the Human Upper
5 Airway: Influence of State, Posture and Instrumentation. *Sleep and Biological*
6 *Rhythms* 2015;13(Suppl 1):p03.
- 7 11. Eastwood PR, Platt PR, Shepherd K, Maddison K, Hillman DR. Collapsibility of the
8 upper airway at different concentrations of propofol anesthesia. *Anesthesiology*.
9 2005;103:470-477.
- 10 12. Schnider TW, Minto CF, Gambus PL, et al. The influence of method of administration
11 and covariates on the pharmacokinetics of propofol in adult volunteers.
12 *Anesthesiology*. 1998;88(5):1170-1182.
- 13 13. Smith PL, Wise RA, Gold AR, Schwartz AR, Permutt S. Upper airway pressure-flow
14 relationships in obstructive sleep apnea. *J Appl Physiol*. 1988;64(2):789-795.
- 15 14. Schwartz AR, Smith PL, Wise RA, Bankman I, Permutt S. Effect of positive nasal
16 pressure on upper airway pressure-flow relationships. *J Appl Physiol*.
17 1989;66(4):1626-1634.
- 18 15. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. [computer program].
19 Vienna, Austria. URL <http://www.R-project.org/>.2015.

- 1 16. Ong JSL, Touyz G, Tanner S, Hillman D, Eastwood P, Walsh J. Variability of human
2 upper airway collapsibility during sleep and the influence of body posture and sleep
3 stage. *J Sleep Res.* 2011;20(4):533-537.
- 4 17. Schwartz AR, O'Donnell CP, Baron J, et al. The hypotonic upper airway in obstructive
5 sleep apnea. Role of structures and neuromuscular activity. *Am J Respir Crit Care*
6 *Med.* 1998;157:1051-1057.
- 7 18. Kirkness JP, Peterson LA, Squier SB, et al. Performance characteristics of upper
8 airway critical collapsing pressure measurements during sleep. *Sleep.*
9 2011;34(4):459-467.
- 10 19. Boudewyns A, Punjabi N, Van de Heyning PH, et al. Abbreviated method for
11 assessing upper airway function in obstructive sleep apnea. *Chest.*
12 2000;118(4):1031-1041.
- 13 20. Penzel T, Miller M, Becker HF, Knaack L, Peter JH. Effect of sleep position and sleep
14 stage on the collapsibility of the upper airways in patients with sleep apnea. *Sleep.*
15 2001;24(1):90-95.
- 16 21. Oksenberg A, Gadoth N. Are we missing a simple treatment for most adult sleep
17 apnea patients? The avoidance of the supine sleep position. *Journal of sleep*
18 *research.* 2014;23(2):204-210.
- 19 22. Owens RL, Malhotra A, Eckert DJ, White DP, Jordan AS. The influence of end-
20 expiratory lung volume on measurements of pharyngeal collapsibility. *J Appl Physiol.*
21 2010;108(2):445-451.

- 1 23. Van de Graaff WB. Thoracic traction on the trachea: mechanisms and magnitude. *J*
2 *Appl Physiol.* 1991;70(3):1328-1336.
- 3 24. Stanchina ML, Malhotra A, Fogel RB, et al. The influence of lung volume on
4 pharyngeal mechanics, collapsibility, and genioglossus muscle activation during
5 sleep. *Sleep.* 2003;26(7):851-856.
- 6 25. Hillman DR, Walsh JH, Maddison KJ, Platt PR, Schwartz AR, Eastwood PR. The effect
7 of diaphragm contraction on upper airway collapsibility. *Journal of applied*
8 *physiology (Bethesda, Md. : 1985).* 2013;115(3):337-345.
- 9 26. Haeseler G, Stormer M, Bufler J, et al. Propofol blocks human skeletal muscle sodium
10 channels in a voltage-dependent manner. *Anesth Analg.* 2001;92(5):1192-1198.
- 11 27. Ginz HF, Zorzato F, Iaizzo PA, Urwyler A. Effect of three anaesthetic techniques on
12 isometric skeletal muscle strength. *Br J Anaesth.* 2004;92(3):367-372.
- 13 28. Genta PR, Eckert DJ, Gregorio MG, et al. Critical closing pressure during midazolam-
14 induced sleep. *J Appl Physiol.* 2011;111(5):1315-1322.
- 15 29. Mason M, Cates CJ, Smith I. Effects of opioid, hypnotic and sedating medications on
16 sleep-disordered breathing in adults with obstructive sleep apnoea. *The Cochrane*
17 *database of systematic reviews.* 2015;7:Cd011090.
- 18 30. Walsh JH, Visser C, Maddison K, Bharat C, Hillman DR, Eastwood PR. The effect of
19 temazepam on assessment of severity of obstructive sleep apnea by
20 polysomnography. *Sleep Breath.* 2018;19: epub.

- 1 31. Carberry JC, Fisher LP, Grunstein RR, et al. Role of common hypnotics on the
2 phenotypic causes of obstructive sleep apnoea: paradoxical effects of zolpidem. *Eur*
3 *Respir J.* 2017;50(6).
- 4 32. Edwards BA, Sands SA, Owens RL, et al. Effects of hyperoxia and hypoxia on the
5 physiological traits responsible for obstructive sleep apnoea. *J Physiol.*
6 2014;592(20):4523-4535.
- 7 33. Wiegand L, Zwillich CW, Wiegand D, White DP. Changes in upper airway muscle
8 activation and ventilation during phasic REM sleep in normal men. *Journal of applied*
9 *physiology (Bethesda, Md. : 1985).* 1991;71(2):488-497.
- 10
- 11

1 FIGURE LEGENDS

2

3 **Figure 1 A.** Polygraph example from one subject during general anesthesia showing a
4 sequence of drops in mask pressure (P_{mask}) with accompanying decreases in respiratory
5 flow rates. Note the decrease in peak inspiratory flow rates and flattening of the flow
6 profile observed with the flow limitation induced by these changes. Greater decrements in
7 P_{mask} are accompanied by greater decrements in peak inspiratory flow. Respiratory effort
8 persists as indicated the negative swings in esophageal pressure (P_{es}). **B.** The relationship
9 between P_{mask} and inspiratory flow (Flow) during flow limitation induced by varying
10 decreases in P_{mask} is illustrated for one subject during anesthesia (*closed circles & solid*
11 *line*, $P_{\text{crit}} = 8.1\text{cmH}_2\text{O}$) and during sleep (*open squares & dashed line*, $P_{\text{crit}} = 0\text{cmH}_2\text{O}$) and.
12 Note the linear relationship between P_{mask} and Flow for these flow limited breaths. The
13 pressure at which this relationship interpolates on zero flow is called P_{crit} . A more negative
14 P_{crit} indicates a less collapsible airway.

15

16 **Figure 2.** Individual P_{crit} data during general anesthesia, NREM and REM ($n=10$). The
17 relationship between mask pressure (P_{mask}) and peak inspiratory flow (Flow) during flow
18 limitation induced by varying decreases in P_{mask} is illustrated for all subjects during
19 anesthesia (*closed circles & solid lines*), NREM sleep (*open squares & dashed lines*) and
20 where available REM sleep (*closed triangles & dotted lines*). A more negative P_{crit} indicates
21 a less collapsible airway.

1

2 **Figure 3.** Linear regressions of Pcrit measured during general anesthesia versus Pcrit
3 measured during NREM sleep (*open squares & dashed lines*, $r=0.64$ [95%CI: 0.02, 0.91],
4 $n=10$; $p=0.046$) and REM sleep (*closed triangles & dotted lines*, $r=0.80$ [95%CI: -0.70, 0.99],
5 $n=4$; $p=0.200$). Four subjects have both NREM and REM data available. The line of identity is
6 represented by a solid line.

7





