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Common neurological co-morbidities in autism spectrum disorders
Kiran P. Maski\textsuperscript{a}, Shafali S. Jeste\textsuperscript{b} and Sarah J. Spence\textsuperscript{a}

\textbf{Introduction}
Autism spectrum disorders (ASDs) are increasingly recognized and extremely heterogeneous neurodevelopmental disorders defined by core impairments in social interaction and communication and restricted and repetitive behaviors [1]. Part of the heterogeneity is due to frequent and varied co-morbid conditions, such as intellectual disability, attentional problems, externalizing behaviors such as aggression, affective disorders, and sensory differences [2]. More recently, the neurological co-morbidities, namely motor impairment, epilepsy, and sleep dysfunction, have been the center of active research. These neurological co-morbidities are not only common, but may also have a greater effect on function and outcome than core symptoms alone [3]. Clinically, a comprehensive diagnostic assessment and management of children with ASDs should include screening questions regarding neurological co-morbidities because specific intervention may improve overall function. This article will review current knowledge on the epidemiology, etiology, and management of these co-morbid neurological disorders and highlight implications for future research.

\textbf{Motor disturbance}
Motor dysfunction is prevalent in ASDs, yet it has only recently become the subject of research. Deficits have been documented in gait, coordination, and the performance of skilled movements (praxis), with a recent study demonstrating that these deficits do not improve over early childhood [4]. The characterization of motor impairments holds great clinical significance, as motor function is critical for broader aspects of development, including language, social interaction, and learning (see Table 1). Furthermore, by investigating the timing of motor impairments and their specificity to ASDs, we may identify motor markers that facilitate earlier diagnosis of ASDs. A major challenge lies in the creation of specific intervention to improve motor function. This article will review current knowledge on the epidemiology, etiology, and management of these co-morbid neurological disorders and highlight implications for future research.
of developmentally appropriate assessment tools and standardized scales to quantify and characterize motor impairment, particularly in infants and young children.

**Repetitive behaviors**

The only motor abnormality included in the diagnostic criteria for ASDs is the presence of repetitive movements, also known as stereotypies. Recently, there has been a growing appreciation for the fact that these likely represent an involuntary movement disorder rather than a ‘self-stimulatory’ behavior. In a comprehensive study using video data on a large sample of children aged 2–11 years with ASDs, intellectual quotient (IQ) matched children, and typical controls, investigators found that hand/finger and gait stereotypies were most specific to ASDs, and that the prevalence of stereotypies was highest in the low functioning ASD group (70%) [5\(^*\)]. Supporting the association of repetitive behaviors with more severe phenotype, one study found that repetitive movements were associated with lower IQ and more social and communication impairments [6]. Another study demonstrated that social skills intervention actually improves repetitive behaviors [7]. These studies suggest that stereotypies may predict clinical severity. Further investigation is needed to understand the cause of this association.

**Motor delay**

The identification of early motor delay holds particular clinical relevance, as early oral–motor skills and motor imitation have been shown to predict language acquisition in infants with ASDs [8–11]. In a recent study comparing home videos of children with ASDs, developmental delay, and normal development in the first year of life, children with ASDs demonstrated delayed development of motor skills, including lying supine, sitting, and walking [12]. Several other studies have documented delays in motor development in the first 2 years of life, including postural abnormalities in unsupported gait [13\(^*\)], less time spent in certain gross motor postures [14], and overall gross or fine motor delay [14]. One limitation to the use of retrospective home video is the lack of standardized direct assessments. However, the findings lay a promising foundation for prospective studies of infants at risk for ASDs.

**Gait**

Gait abnormalities include toe-walking, ataxia, variable stride length and duration, incoordination, postural abnormalities in the head and trunk, reduced plantarflexion, and increased dorsiflexion [15–19]. A very recent study by Nobile et al. [20] used a novel automatic motion analyzer to characterize gait in children with ASDs and typical controls. They found that children with ASDs exhibited a stiffer gait with lack of ‘smoothness’, struggled to maintain a straight line, and showed evidence of poor postural control. A strength of this investigation was the use of a quantitative, automated system to characterize a motor domain that can be challenging to objectively measure.

**Incoordination**

A meta-analysis of 41 studies investigating coordination, gait, arm movements, and postural stability in ASDs found that, despite the tremendous heterogeneity across studies, individuals with ASDs exhibited significantly more motor incoordination and postural instability than controls. This difference occurred regardless of diagnostic category (i.e., autism vs. Asperger’s), with an attenuation of effects with increasing age, suggesting improved motor function over time [21\(^*\)]. More recently, in a population-based twin study, investigators identified a correlation between a standardized index of clumsiness and the subscale for autistic traits on the Child Behavior Checklist, suggesting a genetic etiological overlap regardless of clinical diagnosis. This study represents

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**Table 1 Types of motor deficits in autism spectrum disorders**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Key features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stereotypies</td>
<td>Part of core features of ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Associated with lower IQ and may be marker for overall ASD severity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor delays</td>
<td>Could represent an early indicator for the development of ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Early oral motor skills and motor imitation may predict language acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gait</td>
<td>Wide range of abnormalities including toe-walking, ataxia, stiffness, foot movement, and postural abnormalities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incoordination</td>
<td>Seen in upper body movements, gait, and postural control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyspraxia</td>
<td>Found to significantly correlate with social, communication, and behavioral deficits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASD, autism spectrum disorder; IQ, intellectual quotient.

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**Key points**

- Neurological co-morbidities including motor dysfunction, sleep disruption, and epilepsy are common among children with autism spectrum disorders (ASDs) and can cause significant impairment to functioning and long-term prognosis.
- Motor dysfunction, commonly reported in children with ASDs, includes gross and fine motor delays and stereotypies as well as difficulties with gait, coordination, and praxis.
- There is no specific epilepsy syndrome in individuals with ASDs, as the severity of epilepsy, location of electroencephalography discharge, and age at onset seem to vary.
- The relationship between sleep and behavior dysfunction, mood, and core impairments in ASDs is likely bi-directional.
an important effort in using a motor domain to begin to define an endophenotype within the spectrum [22].

Performance of skilled movements (praxis)

Using an examination of praxis in high-functioning children and adolescents with ASDs, Mostofsky and colleagues [23–25] have documented impairment in gestures to command, imitation, and tool-use, postulating that these deficits are rooted in impaired formation of spatial representation and poor motor execution. As with other motor domains, they have found that dyspraxia is significantly correlated to social, communication, and behavioral deficits. The same group found that dyspraxia also affected handwriting skill. In a separate study, the group showed that children with ASDs showed poorer quality of letter formation compared with IQ-matched controls. Moreover, handwriting quality correlated to overall motor skills in the younger cohort and to perceptual reasoning in the older cohort [23–27]. Another study also found a correlation with severity of phenotype, reporting that skilled movement impairments were most prominent in children with IQ less than 70. Although they conclude that the presence of dyspraxia may reflect overall neurological impairment [28], one could also posit that deficits in early skilled movements affect learning, thereby contributing to cognitive impairment.

Future directions

Clearly, motor deficits are prevalent in ASDs, and certain types of deficits may be specific to the disorder. The pathophysiology and developmental course of the relationship between cognitive impairment and motor impairment must be investigated in more detail, as this relationship holds important clinical and prognostic implications. Treatments designed to target motor domains such as praxis could theoretically improve cognition, social functioning, and communication skills.

Epilepsy

The increased risk of seizures in individuals with ASDs has long been known [29]. In fact, recognition of this comorbidity pointed to ASDs as a neurological disease early on [30]. More recently, interest is growing in this overlap and the common pathophysiological mechanisms that may underlie both disorders. Table 2 provides a brief clinical summary of epilepsy among children with ASDs.

Epidemiology

Most studies show that ‘syndromic’ (nonidiopathic autism), intellectual deficits, and female sex all increase the risk of epilepsy in ASDs. Several studies suggest that developmental regression is also a risk factor, but others show no association [31]. However, it is clear that, even in the absence of intellectual disability or co-morbid disorders, ASDs are associated with an increased risk of epilepsy over the general population [32–34]. The rate of epilepsy in ASDs is typically defined as 30%. However, critical review of the literature shows reported rates are highly variable, ranging from 6 to almost 50%. This is most likely a result of differing sample characteristics, such as ascertainment bias (e.g., population-based samples vs. those drawn from a neurology clinical sample), as well as inclusion of individuals with more risk factors [31]. Conversely, rates of ASDs in epilepsy populations are also increased, although exact numbers are not known and may be dependent on samples. Samples drawn from epilepsy clinics have reported rates of ASDs in 15–30% [35,36]. However, a recent prospective population-based study showed only 5% had ASDs [37]. Early-onset seizures, especially infantile spasms, which are severe early-onset epilepsy often associated with poor neurodevelopmental outcomes [38], are associated with the development of ASDs. Despite the variability in numbers, there is clearly an overlap between these two populations, which has important clinical implications, as some studies show epilepsy increases mortality in ASDs [39,40].

Clinical characteristics of autism spectrum disorder patients with epilepsy

Unfortunately for clinicians and researchers alike, there is no specific epilepsy syndrome in individuals with ASDs. Age of seizure onset is bimodal, either in early childhood or in adolescence [41]. All seizure types have been reported, with recent studies showing that complex partial seizures (CPSs) are the most frequent [36,41,42]. This has particular clinical significance, because the
manifestation of CPS involves signs that are actually common behaviors in ASDs (e.g., being unresponsive to name, repetitive movements, and eye deviation). This ambiguity makes the seizure diagnosis more challenging in this population.

The severity of the epilepsy is very variable. One recent retrospective review from an epilepsy center reported that one-third of patients had treatment refractory epilepsy. Early seizure onset was significantly associated with intractable seizures [43*]. Exactly how the presence of epilepsy affects the core features of ASDs is still not well studied, but lower social functioning and increased behavioral problems have been reported in a few studies [44,45].

**Occurrence of epileptiform electroencephalography discharges**

As with epilepsy, rates of reported epileptiform electroencephalography (EEG) are variable. Some investigators have suggested that frontal lobe discharges are more prominent [36,42]. Some reports of high rates (up to 60%) of epileptiform EEG in the absence of clinical epilepsy [46,47] have raised the question about a possible epileptic encephalopathy contributing to ASD pathophysiology. More research is needed on this topic.

**Evaluation and treatment**

Clinicians should have a high index of suspicion for seizures, and they should routinely inquire about behaviors consistent with seizures, especially in those with known risk factors. Given the heterogeneity of both epilepsy and autism, it is no surprise that there is no ‘one-size-fits-all’ diagnosis and treatment protocol. Current practice suggests that an electroencephalogram should be obtained in patients with a clinical suspicion of seizures [48]. Workup should also include investigation for an underlying cause. Some neurogenetic associations include tuberous sclerosis complex [49], Rett syndrome [50], 15q11–13 duplication syndrome [51], and the recently described MECP2 duplication syndrome [52]. Metabolic disorders can also present with autism and epilepsy [53].

As with any epilepsy patient, anticonvulsant treatment choice is related to type of seizure, EEG findings, and tolerability of medication. Given the added complexity of the cognitive and behavioral deficit profiles seen in ASDs, providers need to be particularly mindful of medication side-effects [54**].

**Future directions: understanding pathophysiology**

Although clinicians strive to identify and adequately treat this important co-morbidity, there is exciting research aimed at identifying possible pathophysiological mechanisms underlying the overlap of epilepsy and autism via investigations of specific signaling pathways in single-gene disorders (e.g., tuberous sclerosis complex), genetic copy number variations [55], channelopathies [56], and gene network analysis [57]. This line of investigation will likely lead us closer to an understanding of the overlapping pathophysiology of epilepsy and autism with the express goal of developing more effective therapies.

## Sleep disturbances

Sleep problems are common in children with ASDs and have significant effects on daytime functioning as well as quality of life of the children and their families. Table 3 provides a brief clinical summary of sleep disorders reported in the ASD population.

### Rates and risk factors

Sleep problems are endemic in children with ASDs, with a prevalence ranging from 40 to 86% [58–61]. The prevalence of sleep disorders among children with ASDs is higher than in children with other development delays [62,63] and unrelated to IQ [64] or age [65].

### Characterization of sleep problems

Data characterizing sleep in the ASD population have mostly been obtained through parental questionnaires, but objective methodologies have mostly confirmed these findings. Goldman et al. [65] reported results from 1859 validated parental questionnaires about sleep in children with ASDs. The study found that younger children tended to have more reported sleep anxiety, bedtime resistance, more wakefulness during the night, and parasomnias, whereas adolescents reported more difficulty falling asleep, getting sufficient sleep, and daytime sleepiness. Objective data from actigraphy, a watch-like microcomputer that measures motion, have shown that children with ASDs take longer to fall asleep, have longer awakenings, and have more activity recorded.

### Table 3 Sleep disturbance in autism spectrum disorders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prevalence</th>
<th>Sleep problems are common in ASD (reported in 40–86%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
<td>Subjective and objective data indicate that children with ASD have difficulty falling asleep and sustaining sleep at night, which may be best described as insomnia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Parental questionnaires are available to assess sleep problems and bedtime habits. More objective data can be gathered from actigraphy and polysomnography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment issues</td>
<td>Behavioral and medication interventions are available but only supplemental melatonin has been well studied in this population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other considerations</td>
<td>Co-morbid diagnosis and medications need to be assessed for potential causes of sleep disruption</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ASD, autism spectrum disorder.
Etiology

Insomnia may be a result of the core behavioral deficits of ASDs as well as the co-morbid affective disorders commonly reported. Children with ASDs may ignore environmental cues that help entrain the sleep/wake circadian system, persevere on activities or thoughts that interfere with sleep onset or promote nocturnal wakings, and have communication limitations in understanding parents’ expectations for bedtime [71]. Furthermore, children with more challenging daytime behaviors, such as hyperactivity or environmental hypersensitivities, may have more difficulties settling down to sleep. Co-morbid conditions such as epilepsy and psychiatric disorders, and their pharmacological treatments, may also affect sleep [72,73].

More recent data have focused on the neurobiological mechanisms that may be involved in sleep disturbances among children with ASDs. Melatonin is a neurohormone that is a robust biochemical signal of night and regulates the circadian rhythm. In a recent systematic review of the literature [74**], nine studies found at least one abnormality in melatonin production among children with ASDs. These abnormalities included below average physiological levels of melatonin and/or melatonin metabolites and abnormal melatonin coupling with the circadian rhythm.

Effects of sleep disturbances in children with autism spectrum disorders

The relationship between sleep and behavior dysfunction in ASDs is likely bi-directional. Sleep dysfunction has been associated with higher rates of autism severity scores, stereotypes, and repetitive behaviors [75], and poorer social interaction skills [68]. In addition, recent research has shown that sleep is important in modulating affective brain processing, and that sleep deprivation can contribute to emotional reactivity and difficulties in the interpretation of nonverbal social cues [76,77]. Thus, sleep disturbance may contribute not only to the development of associated affective disorders but also to the expression of core communication deficits. A recent study also found that children with autistic regression had less efficient sleep, less total sleep time, prolonged sleep latency, prolonged REM latency, and more wake time after sleep onset on PSG than children without regression [78]. These findings, taken together, suggest that disturbed sleep and autism severity may be associated through common pathways such as disturbances in neurochemicals (perhaps melatonin, serotonin, or gamma-aminobutyric acid) and/or neural circuitry.

Evaluation and treatment

Given the high prevalence of sleep impairment in ASDs, it is imperative for clinicians to include questions regarding sleep quality in the assessment and ongoing management of children with ASDs. Sleep questionnaires such as the Children’s Sleep Health Questionnaire [79] and the Family Inventory of Sleep Habits [80] can help assess more detailed domains of sleep disturbances, sleep environment and family dynamics. Review of medications and assessment of psychiatric and neurodevelopmental co-morbidities are also important in recognizing potential contributions to disturbed sleep. If sleep-disordered breathing, parasomnias, nocturnal seizures, or periodic limb movements of sleep are suspected, referral to a sleep specialist and/or diagnostic evaluation with an overnight PSG should be considered.

Currently, there are no drugs approved by the Federal Drug Agency (FDA) for the treatment of insomnia in children. A recent double-blind, randomized, cross-over trial that evaluated 3 months of placebo vs. 3 months of melatonin use in children with ASDs showed significant improvement in sleep latency and total sleep time with a low side effect profile with melatonin use [81*]. However, long-term use of melatonin has not been well studied.

Future directions

Although the high prevalence of sleep disorders and ASDs is clear, objective characterization of the sleep disorders is limited. Neurochemical and neurophysiologic data are needed to fully characterize the reported sleep disorders in children with ASDs, and they will contribute to our understanding of endophenotypes within the spectrum. Importantly, the impact of sleep impairments on cognitive function, affective regulation, and emotional reactivity in children with ASDs needs to be studied further, given that treatment of sleep disorders will likely offer another target to maximize daily function and cognition in these children.

Conclusion

This review shows that neurological co-morbidities, including motor abnormalities, epilepsy, and epileptiform EEG abnormalities and sleep disturbance, are relatively common in ASDs. However, given the already heterogeneous and complex nature of this disorder, they may go unrecognized in some circumstances. Because of their impact on day-to-day functioning of individuals
with ASDs, it is crucial that clinicians screen for and adequately address these co-morbidities. Unfortunately, proper diagnostic evaluation, including formal motor testing, EEG, and PSG/actigraphy, is often hard to obtain given behavioral difficulties and the sensory sensitivities so commonly seen in ASD, but that does not mean that these issues should not be addressed. We propose that referral for appropriate testing should be undertaken whenever indicated, but a desensitization protocol may need to be considered. At this time, there is not enough information to create a unifying hypothesis about the underpinnings of these deficits. But, hopefully, future research designed to further study the overlapping and underlying pathophysiology of motor dysfunction, epilepsy, and sleep disturbance may even shine light on the causal mechanisms of the core deficits in ASDs.

Acknowledgements

Conflicts of interest

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S.J.S. receives grant support from the NIH (7R01DC010920-03S1 P1s Tager, Flusberg and Nelson) and the Simons Foundation. She is a member of the American Psychiatric Association’s DSM V work group for Neurodevelopmental Disabilities and does unpaid consultant work to Autism Speaks (Autism Genetic Resource Exchange and Autism Treatment Network) and the Dup 15q Alliance. She has received honoraria from Seaside therapeutics.

References and recommended reading

Papers of particular interest, published within the annual period of review, have been highlighted as:

* of special interest
** of outstanding interest

Additional references related to this topic can also be found in the Current World Literature section in this issue (p. 702).


5 This is an important study because it prospectively tracks motor function in children with ASDs and attempts to define specificity of motor impairments in ASDs by comparing these children to those with developmental delays and attention deficit hyperactivity disorders.


This is one of the few studies that investigate gait abnormalities prior to diagnosis of ASD in order to determine whether gait may serve as an early marker of ASDs. It lays a foundation for prospective studies in infants at high risk for ASDs.


This is the first comprehensive meta-analysis of motor coordination in ASDs, and the authors use rigorous methodology to address the question of whether coordination deficits do exist.


Neurological co-morbidities in autism disorders


This is an excellent and comprehensive review of treatment approaches in children with autism and epilepsy. The authors describe the complexities of this co-morbidity and explore the implications for various treatment choices in this population.


This study uses PSG to study the sleep architecture of a large cohort of individuals with ASDs compared with children with non-ASD developmental delays and typical development and finds a reduced amount of REM sleep in this population. This finding may have relevance to sleep-dependent learning and memory consolidation.


An excellent review and meta-analysis of the relationship between melatonin levels and sleep problems in children with autism. This study uses PSG to study the sleep architecture of a large cohort of individuals with ASDs compared with children with non-ASD developmental delays and typical development and finds a reduced amount of REM sleep in this population. This finding may have relevance to sleep-dependent learning and memory consolidation.


An intriguing study that characterizes the neurophysiology of children with autistic regression compared with those without regression.


This is one of the only double-blind, randomized, controlled trials to study melatonin vs. placebo in a large cohort of children with ASDs. It provides useful treatment information regarding dose and length of treatment.