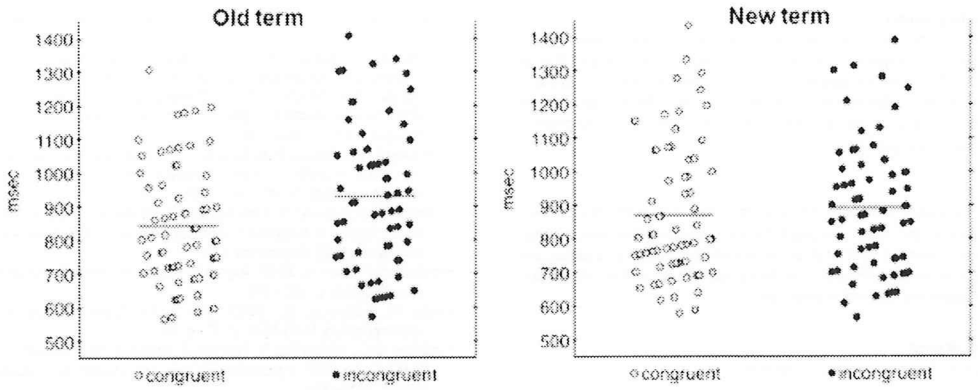

Fig. 1. Average response latency for CC and IC in old- and new-term versions of IAT. White dots indicate CC and black dots indicate IC. The bars represent the mean response latency of each condition. ANOVA revealed that response latencies were significantly longer for old term than for new term in IC, but that there was no significant difference in response latencies between old and new in CC.

Response latencies were analysed by a 3-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with term (old term vs. new term) and condition (CC vs. IC) as within-subject factors and gender as between-subject factors. ANOVA yielded a significant condition main effect, $F(1,66)=15.6$, $p<0.001$, and a significant interaction between term and condition, $F(1,66)=8.6$, $p<0.005$. There was neither significant term main effect ($F(1,66)=0.15$) nor gender main effect ($F(1,66)=0.60$). There was neither significant interaction between term and gender ($F(1,66)=0.35$) nor between condition and gender ($F(1,66)=0.03$).

The significant interaction effect was explored further using a simple main effects analysis, which revealed that response latencies were significantly longer ($p=0.03$) for the old term than for the new term in IC. In CC, there was no significant difference in response latencies between the old and new terms. Response latencies were significantly longer ($p<0.001$) for IC than for CC in the old term experiment, but not in the new term experiment (Fig. 1). There were loose negative correlations between explicit Link's scale and IAT effect for both the new and old terms ($r=-0.252$, $p<0.05$ and $r=-0.281$, $p<0.05$ respectively). There was no significant correlation between explicit Link's scale and other IAT measures (response latencies for CC and IC).

4. Discussion

The current study demonstrated that the old term "Seishin-Bunretsu-Byo" (Mind-Split Disease) was more incongruent with victims than the new term "Togo-Shitcho-Sho" (Integration Disorder), suggesting that the old term was strongly associated with "criminal" vs. "victims", while the automatic association between the new term and criminal was not strong. There was no positive significant correlation between the explicit Link's scale and IAT measures. On the contrary, a loose negative correlation between Link's scale and IAT effect was observed. The lack of positive correlation was expected, but the negative correlation was an unexpected result. Although we do not have precise explanations, several factors might have contributed to this result. Link's scale is intended for mental illness in general, not only for schizophrenia, and it assesses what a subject thinks most people think about mental illness rather than report the subject's own opinion. What the subject believes personally and what the subject thinks most people believe might have been different. Moreover, explicit measures are said to possibly be influenced by social desirability bias (Dovidio et al., 1997; Gaebel et al., 2002; Griffiths et al., 2006; Hinshaw and Stier, 2008). Thus, our result suggested the importance of implicit measures in addition to explicit measures in the field of stigma research (Thornicroft et al., 2007). The IAT results indicated that the strategy of renaming seemed successful for tempering the negative bias toward this disorder in Japan. Obviously, it might be superficial and not deal with the root cause of stigma (Lieberman and First, 2007). Still, our results showed that words play some role in the creation of negative images.

The current study has some limitations. First, we did not survey a larger group, systematically, from a wide range of decades. Generational differences in the effect of renaming would be another important topic needing investigation in future studies, as older people would have a longer history with the old term and stigma, and discrimination toward mental illness would have been more evident when they were young. Second, we investigated only the association between schizophrenia and criminal using diabetes as control illness. There are prevalent stereotypes other than "criminal, dangerous and violent" that contribute to stigma for schizophrenia, e.g. incompetent (Hinshaw and Stier, 2008). Further IAT studies to investigate the association between schizophrenia and other stereotypical attributes using different control illnesses are recommended. Finally, the knowledge concerning schizophrenia was assessed using the participants' self-evaluation of their knowledge about schizophrenia. Future studies will require tools with greater objectivity for assessing knowledge of schizophrenia and examine the effect of knowledge or experience on attitudes toward schizophrenia. We hope that this report will stimulate discussion concerning renaming not only in several Asian areas where identical Chinese characters are used for "schizophrenia", but also in western societies.

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Contributors

Author Takahashi and Ideno designed the study and wrote the protocol. Author Takahashi and Ideno managed the literature searches and analyses. Authors Ideno, Okubo S. and Matsui undertook the statistical analysis, and author Takahashi wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to and have approved the final manuscript.

Conflicts of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgment

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When Your Gain Is My Pain and Your Pain Is My Gain: Neural Correlates of Envy and Schadenfreude

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knockout mouse (27). [^{125}I]IAF photolabeling of liver homogenates from wild-type (WT) and sigma-1 receptor knockout (KO) mice indeed showed the absence of sigma-1 receptor (26 kD) in the KO samples (Fig. 3A). In WT neonatal cardiac myocytes, 100 μM DMT reversibly inhibited I_{Na} by 29 ± 3% (n = 7 WT myocytes), whereas I_{Na} was reduced by only 7 ± 2% (n = 7 KO myocytes) in KO myocytes (Fig. 3C, P < 0.002).

Both DMT and sigma receptor ligands influence animal behavior. DMT injection induces hypermobility in rodents concurrently treated with the monoamine oxidase inhibitor pargyline (28), and this action is not antagonized by blockers of dopamine or serotonin receptors, but is potently inhibited by haloperidol (28). Although haloperidol is thought to act in part through the dopamine D_2 receptor system, it is also a potent sigma-1 receptor agonist [sigma-1 inhibition constant (K_i) = 3 nM (29); sigma-2 K_i = 54 nM (29)] when inhibiting voltage-gated ion channels (5, 25). Haloperidol reduces brain concentrations of DMT (8) and DMT inhibits haloperidol binding in brain tissue more robustly than the dopamine agonist apomorphine (8). On the basis of these findings, which were discovered before sigma receptor identification, DMT has been hypothesized to act through an unknown "hallucinogen" receptor (8). We confirmed results (28) that intraperitoneal (ip) administration of DMT (2 mg per kilogram of body weight) 2 hours after pargyline (75 mg/kg, ip) injection induced hypermobility in WT mice (7025 ± 524.1 cm, n = 12 WT mice) in an open-field assay. Identical drug treatments in sigma-1 receptor KO mice had no hypermobility action (2328 ± 322.9 cm, n = 12 KO mice, P < 0.0001; Fig. 4, A and B). This result is particularly important to our understanding of sigma-1 receptor biological function because the KO mice are viable and fertile (27). The sigma-1 receptor dependence of DMT-induced hypermobility parallels that induced by the sigma-1 receptor ligand (+)-SKF10047 in WT but not in KO mice (27). As a positive control, methamphetamine, which is thought to act through catecholaminergic systems, induced hypermobility in both WT and KO mice (3 mg/kg, ip, n = 6 mice; Fig. 4, B and C) with a reduced onset rate compared with that seen for DMT (Fig. 4, A and C). This indicates that behavioral actions of DMT depend on the sigma-1 receptor, which may provide an alternative research area for psychiatric disorders that have not been linked to dopamine or N-methyl-D-aspartate systems.

The binding, biochemical, physiological, and behavioral studies reported here all support the hypothesis that DMT acts as a ligand for the sigma-1 receptor. On the basis of our binding results and the sigma-1 receptor pharmacophore, endogenous trace amines and their N-methyl and N,N-dimethyl derivatives are likely to serve as endogenous sigma receptor regulators. Moreover, DMT, the only known mammalian N,N-dimethylated trace amine, can activate the sigma-1 receptor to modulate Na^+ channels. The recent discovery that the sigma-1 receptor functions as a molecular chaperone (30) may be relevant, because sigma-1 receptors, which are observed in the endoplasmic reticulum, associate with plasma membrane Kv 1.4 channels (22) and may serve as a molecular chaperone for ion channels. Furthermore, the behavioral effect of DMT may be due to activation or inhibition of sigma-1 receptor chaperone activity instead of, or in addition to, DMT/sigma-1 receptor modulation of ion channels. These studies thus suggest that this natural hallucinogen could exert its action by binding to sigma-1 receptors, which are abundant in the brain (1, 27). This discovery may also extend to N,N-dimethylated neurotransmitters such as the psychoactive serotonin derivative N,N-dimethylserotonin (bufotenine), which has been found at elevated concentrations in the urine of schizophrenic patients (10). The finding that DMT and sigma-1 receptors act as a ligand-receptor pair provides a long-awaited connection that will enable researchers to elucidate the biological functions of both of these molecules.

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Materials and Methods
Fig. S1 and scheme S2
References

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When Your Gain Is My Pain and Your Pain Is My Gain: Neural Correlates of Envy and Schadenfreude

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We often evaluate the self and others from social comparisons. We feel envy when the target person has superior and self-relevant characteristics. Schadenfreude occurs when envied persons fall from grace. To elucidate the neurocognitive mechanisms of envy and schadenfreude, we conducted two functional magnetic resonance imaging studies. In study one, the participants read information concerning target persons characterized by levels of possession and self-relevance of comparison domains. When the target person's possession was superior and self-relevant, stronger envy and stronger anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) activation were induced. In study two, stronger schadenfreude and stronger striatum activation were induced when misfortunes happened to envied persons. ACC activation in study one predicted ventral striatum activation in study two. Our findings document mechanisms of painful emotion, envy, and a rewarding reaction, schadenfreude.

Envy is one of the seven biblical sins, the Shakespearian "green-eyed monster," and what Bertrand Russell (1) called an unfortunate facet of human nature. It is an irrational, unpleasant feeling and a "painful emotion" (2) characterized by feelings of inferiority and resentment produced by an awareness of another's superior quality, achievement, or possessions (3). Understanding envy is important because of its broad implications, ranging from individual mat-

ters to social problems. It concerns personal life satisfaction (*4*), self-evaluation/maintenance (*5*), and economic and political issues (*6–8*). We judge objects more by comparison than by their intrinsic worth and value (*9*), and self-evaluations are often derived from social comparisons with people who are self-relevant, sharing similar attributes, characteristics, group memberships, and interests (for example, gender, age, and social class) (*10*).

When envy is evoked, we often have a desire to possess the same advantage or may wish that the other lacks it (*3*). When misfortune occurs to others, emotions can manifest themselves in several ways. We can sympathize and have feelings of concern and sorrow for the other person (*11, 12*), but we can also experience schadenfreude, a rewarding feeling derived from another's misfortune (*13*). Schadenfreude is closely related to envy, and it is more likely to arise when misfortune happens to a person who is advantaged and self-relevant than to someone who is neither advantaged nor self-relevant (*13–15*).

We investigated the brain activation associated with envy and schadenfreude. We conducted two functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies to test two complementary hypotheses. In the first study, we hypothesized that, not only the level of possession of the person we compare ourselves with, but also the self-relevance of the comparison domain affects brain activation associated with envy through social comparison. We usually have a positive self-concept, and we experience a feeling of discomfort when we perform in a way that violates this self-concept (*16*). The anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) is activated when this positive self-concept conflicts with external information (*17, 18*). Bearing in mind that envy is a painful emotion, we hypothesized that envy activates the dorsal ACC (dACC), where cognitive conflicts (*19*) or social pain (*12, 20*) are processed. We predicted that dACC activation is stronger when an envied person has superior and more self-relevant possessions. In the second study, we hypothesized that a misfortune happening to an envied person produces greater brain activation associated with schadenfreude than misfortune happening to a person who is not envied. Schadenfreude should activate the ventral striatum, a central node of reward processing.

Nineteen healthy volunteers [10 men and 9 women, mean age = 22.1 ± 1.4 (SD) years] participated in the two fMRI studies. We used a scenario method as in previous social affective neuroimaging studies (*21, 22*). Each participant was presented with a scenario in which the protagonist (oneself) and three other target persons appeared. Materials were employed from an initial survey to validate our expected results (*23*). Before the fMRI scans, we asked the participants to read and understand the scenario thoroughly and to imagine the protagonist of the scenario as themselves. In study one, we aimed to determine the level of envy in terms of whether possessions of the target person were superior or not and whether domains of comparison were self-relevant or not. In short, for male participants, the protagonist of the scenario was male and average in terms of possessions such as ability, quality, and social status. Male student A shared similar attributes with the protagonist. He possessed superior quality and ability, and the domains of comparison were important and relevant to the protagonist [superior and high relevance (SpHi)]. Female student B had different attributes and background from the protagonist. She also possessed superior quality and ability, but the domains of comparison were neither important nor relevant to the protagonist [superior and low relevance (SpLo)]. Female student C had different attributes and background from the protagonist. She possessed mediocre quality and ability, and the domains of comparison were neither important nor relevant to the protagonist [average and low relevance (AvLo)]. The scenario for male participants and profiles of the persons are shown in the appendix in (*23*). The profiles of the three target persons and comparison domains are summarized in table S1, and a schematic depiction of the stimuli and design is shown in fig. S1. We performed event-related fMRI analysis with statistical parametric mapping 2 to examine activations in response to SpHi, SpLo, and AvLo. In study two, successive misfortunes happened to student A (SpHi) and student C (AvLo) in the scenario examining reaction in response to misfortunes happening to others. A list of misfortunes is provided in table S1, and a schematic depiction of the stimuli and design is shown in fig. S2. We analyzed neural responses to misfortunes on SpHi (MisSpHi) and AvLo (MisAvLo). After the scans, the participants rated each event presented in study one in terms of how much envy they felt for the three students (i.e., 1 = no envy, 6 = extremely envious). Similarly, the participants also reported the intensity of their pleasure (schadenfreude) (1 = no pleasure, 6 = extremely pleasant) in response to misfortunes happening to students A and C in study two. That is, they gave one envy score per domain per student in study one and one schadenfreude score per misfortune per student in study two.

The self-rating results of the participants in the fMRI study were comparable to the results obtained in the initial survey. The mean values of the ratings of envy for students A, B, and C were 4.0 ± 1.0, 2.1 ± 0.8, and 1.0 ± 0.0, respectively. The mean values of schadenfreude for students A and C were

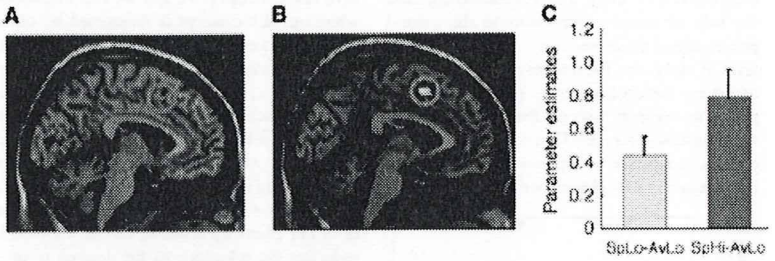

Fig. 1. Brain activation in dACC was modulated by relevance of comparison domain. Brain activations in response to (**A**) the SpLo minus AvLo condition and (**B**) the SpHi minus AvLo condition. (**C**) Mean for parameter estimates at the peak of dACC activation for SpHi-AvLo contrast (red) was greater than that for SpLo-AvLo contrast (yellow) (t = 2.56, P = 0.02). Error bars represent SE.

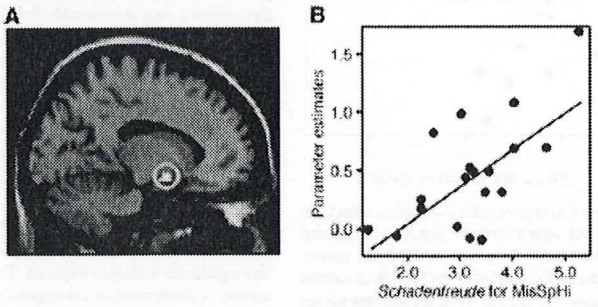

Fig. 2. Correlation between self-rating of schadenfreude and ventral striatum activation across participants. (**A**) Image showing correlation between mean rating of schadenfreude for MisSpHi and the ventral striatum in MisSpHi-MisAvLo contrast across participants. (**B**) Plots and regression line of correlation (r = 0.65, P = 0.002) between schadenfreude and parameter estimates of the ventral striatum activation for MisSpHi-MisAvLo contrast at a peak voxel (−14, 2, −12).

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3.3 ± 1.0 and 1.0 ± 0.0, respectively. Self-rating scores of envy for student A were positively correlated with the magnitude of schadenfreude for student A (correlation coefficient $r = 0.50$, $P = 0.03$). Both SpHi-AvLo and SpLo-AvLo conditions produced activations in dACC, a region implicated in the processing of conflict or pain, but dACC activation was greater in the SpHi-AvLo condition ($x = -4$, $y = 8$, $z = 54$, z score = 4.07) than in the SpLo-AvLo condition ($x = -4$, $y = 16$, $z = 46$, Z score = 3.65) (Fig. 1, A to C). Regression analysis revealed positive linear correlation between self-rating scores of envy and the degree of activation in the dACC ($x = -2$, $y = 10$, $z = 52$, z score = 4.36) in SpHi-AvLo contrast (fig. S3, A and B). The MisSpHi-MisAvLo condition produced activations in the reward-related regions: the dorsal striatum (caudate, putamen) ($x = -16$, $y = -2$, $z = 16$, z score = 4.44), the ventral striatum including the nucleus accumbens ($x = -12$, $y = 6$, $z = -10$, z score = 4.41), and the medial orbitofrontal cortex ($x = -8$, $y = 54$, $z = -10$, z score = 3.46) (fig. S4, A and B). There was correlation between the intensity of schadenfreude and the degree of activation in the ventral striatum ($x = -14$, $y = 2$, $z = -12$, z score = 3.98) in MisSpHi-MisAvLo contrast (Fig. 2, A and B). dACC ($x = -2$, $y = 10$, $z = 52$) activation in SpHi-AvLo contrast was positively correlated with ventral striatum ($x = -14$, $y = 2$, $z = -12$) activation in MisSpHi-MisAvLo contrast (Fig. 3).

This study investigated the neurocognitive mechanisms of envy and schadenfreude and the role of social comparison in the central processing of these emotions. At the behavioral level in study one, the intensity of envy is modulated by the quality of the possession of the person we compare with and the self-relevance of the comparison domain. That is, if the possession of the target person is superior and the comparison domain is self-relevant, we feel intense envy.

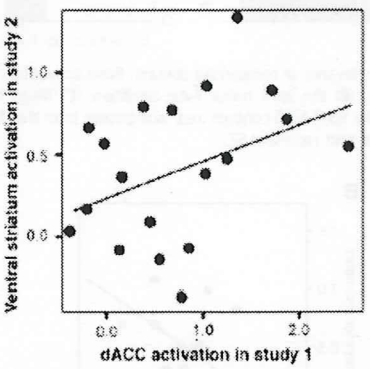

Fig. 3. Relation between dACC activation associated with envy and ventral striatum activation associated with schadenfreude. The x axis indicates the parameter estimates of dACC activation for SpHi-AvLo contrast at a peak voxel (−2, 10, 52). The y axis indicates the parameter estimates of the ventral striatum activation for MisSpHi-MisAvLo contrast at a peak voxel (−14, 2, −12). Positive correlation between dACC activation in study one and ventral striatum activation in study two across participants is shown ($r = 0.39$, $P = 0.01$).

When the comparison domain is not self-relevant, we do not feel strong envy, even if the possession is superior. When the comparison target is neither superior nor self-relevant, we are indifferent to the target. Activation of dACC was also modulated by possession quality and self-relevance. Stronger dACC activation was observed when one felt stronger envy. Moreover, between-participant correlation analysis demonstrated that people with stronger envy showed greater activation in dACC. At the behavioral level in study two, stronger schadenfreude was related to stronger envy, and schadenfreude arose when misfortune occurred to a person who was advantaged and self-relevant. Striatal activation was observed when misfortune happened to an envied person but not when it happened to a non-envied person. Between-participant analysis revealed that people with stronger schadenfreude showed greater activation in the ventral striatum.

ACC activation in response to envy stimuli might reflect a painful feature of this emotion. It was comparable to caudal ACC activation in response to pain in the self but not to pain in others (empathic pain) (*12*), suggesting that the participants experienced a painful feeling. Activation in this region has been reported in response to social pain (distress of social exclusion) (*20*). Taken together, envy might be a social pain in the self, with feelings of being excluded from the field that one is concerned with.

We are usually motivated to maintain a positive self-concept (*16*), and we feel discomfort when our self-concept is threatened by others who outperform ourselves in a self-relevant domain. Considering the role of dACC in conflict-monitoring (*19*), the association between envy and dACC activation suggests that envy is a condition in which information recognized by social comparison conflicts with positive self-concept. Experiencing discomfort motivates us to reduce it. Discomfort arising from others outperforming us in our cherished domains can be resolved by reducing the relevance of the domain to us or changing relative performance (*16*). Students in our scenario might change their major or club at the university and, ultimately, their goals in life. Alternatively, they might make an effort to improve their own performance or possession. On the contrary, they might wish that the other lacks advantages, or they may even obstruct the advantaged student (with malice). Similarly, from an economic perspective, envy has productive and destructive effects on economic growth. It motivates the members in organizations to enhance their own performances or to sabotage their opponents' performances (*24*). When misfortune occurs to an advantaged person and contributes to narrowing the gap of relative performance in an important domain, discomfort or pain is reduced, and a pleasant feeling is induced. This pleasure at another's misfortune is correspondent to the activation of the ventral striatum and the medial orbitofrontal cortex (*25*, *26*). The striatum has also been implicated in altruistic punishment (*27*) and observing an unfair person receiving pain (*28*). Stronger dACC activation induced by the most envied student in study one predicted stronger ventral striatum activation when misfortunes occurred to the student in study two. This means that people who tend to have higher pain or conflict are more likely to have a strong pleasant feeling once they are relieved from this pain. Thus, our findings propose a neurocognitive mechanism of a psychologically rewarding reaction, schadenfreude, and its relation to envy. At the same time, ventral striatum activation without receiving an actual reward indicates that we did not evaluate objects solely by their absolute value but that social comparison plays a substantial role in evaluation (*29*).

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Supporting Online Material

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Epileptic, organic and genetic vulnerabilities for timing of the development of interictal psychosis

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Background
Age at the first psychotic episode and an interval between the onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis reflect developmental processes of interictal psychosis. However, factors relating to these indices remain unknown.

Aims
To identify clinical variables that are associated with the timing of the development of interictal psychosis.

Method
In 285 adults with epilepsy with interictal psychosis, effects of epileptic (epilepsy type), organic (intellectual functioning) and genetic (family history of psychosis) variables on timing of the development of psychosis were examined.

Results
The mean interval between the onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis was 14.4 years. Some psychosis occurred within a few years of the first seizure. Generalised epilepsy, normal intellectual function and a positive family history of psychosis were associated with early onset of psychosis.

Conclusions
Early development of interictal psychosis in people with epilepsy may reflect other individual vulnerabilities to psychosis rather than epilepsy-related damage.

Declaration of interest
None.

Interictal psychosis in epilepsy was first studied systematically by Slater and his colleagues.[1] They reported three main pieces of evidence to delineate interictal psychosis (called schizophrenia-like psychosis in the paper) as a distinct entity from schizophrenia: psychopathological characteristics, psychosis occurring after the development of epilepsy and no genetic loading for schizophrenia. Subsequent studies have formed a general consensus that interictal psychosis is mainly related to various epilepsy-related factors such as type of epilepsy, seizure types and laterality and locality of electroencephalogram (EEG) abnormalities, rather than non-specific demographic factors.[2] However, studies on interictal psychosis have shown contradictive findings that some of the demographic characteristics such as intellectual function[3,4] and family history of psychosis[5] were associated with occurrence of interictal psychosis. This is similar to the positive associations between these demographic factors and a high risk of functional psychoses such as schizophrenia. Using a comprehensive, multicentre database of patients suffering from epilepsy with and without psychosis, our group has found that interictal psychosis occurred more frequently in individuals with certain risk factors, including partial epilepsies, complex partial seizures, generalised tonic–clonic seizures, earlier onset of epilepsy and borderline intellectual function.[6] Most of these risk factors were also common in different types of epilepsy psychoses (e.g. interictal, postictal and bimodal psychoses),[7] but some factors historically known as risk factors for interictal psychosis were not extracted with multivariate analyses because they overlapped or interacted with others.[6–8]

Age at the time of the first psychotic episode and the time interval between the onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis are key elements of studies in interictal psychosis, as these age-related variables likely reflect neurodevelopmental and/or neurodegenerative processes in the brain.[9] Indeed, Slater *et al*[1] showed that patients with interictal psychosis tend to suffer their first seizure in early adolescence, with psychosis developing in their late twenties or thirties (approximately 15 years after the onset of epilepsy). They interpret the long interval, during which epilepsy and its consequences could cause further damage to the brain, as a preparatory period for generation of psychosis. Whereas many studies have reported similar age-related variables,[2] some have suggested the interval is an artefact as a result of the wide range of distribution of time intervals and to the tendency of a shorter interval in individuals with late-onset epilepsy.[10,11] In our previous study,[12] age at onset of psychosis in a subgroup of patients with chronic interictal psychosis was comparable with that in those with schizophrenia, whereas the age at onset was more advanced in the whole group of patients with interictal psychosis (both episodic and chronic). We also showed no difference between various types of partial epilepsies in age at onset of psychosis and in time intervals.[8] However, few studies have examined the contributions of the other clinical factors to age-related variables; thus, it remains unknown whether particular clinical factors are related to the timing of development of interictal psychosis. In the current study, we investigated the timing of development of interictal psychosis in association with epilepsy-related and demographic characteristics in a large cohort of patients with interictal psychosis.

Method

Definition of interictal psychosis

In our study, psychosis was defined as the presence of hallucinations, delusions or a limited number of severe abnormalities of behaviour in accordance with the ICD–10.[13] The operational criteria for interictal psychosis were as follows: the psychosis developed after the onset of epilepsy;[1,14,15] the psychotic episodes occurred with no distinct antecedent seizures when the patient was seizure-free or between habitual seizures;[6,7] psychotic episodes lasted 24 h or more in a state of full consciousness. Interictal

psychosis included chronic schizophrenia-like psychosis (at least one episode lasting 1 month or more) and brief (acute, episodic) interictal psychosis (all episodes resolved within 1 month).[3,16–18] Postictal psychosis, which occurred within 7 days after a decisive seizure or cluster of seizures,[7,17,18] and ictal psychotic phenomenon[17] were excluded.

Participants

All participants met the criteria for epilepsy as set forth in the 1989 International Classification of Epilepsies and Epileptic Syndromes.[20] The participants all attended one of five institutions with adult epilepsy clinics: National Centre Hospital for Mental, Nervous, and Muscular Disorders; Nihon University Hospital; Tokyo Medical University Hospital; Tokyo Medical and Dental University Hospital; or Komagino Hospital. The five epilepsy clinics cover the greater Tokyo area of a population of approximately 35 million as the main neuropsychiatric institutions for adults with epilepsy. In addition, the National Centre Hospital is the only institution in the country that has a neuropsychiatric in-patient unit dedicated to patients with epilepsy, accepting tertiary referrals from outside the catchment area. Since August 1996, these epilepsy clinics have maintained a collaborative database designed specifically for epilepsy psychosis.[6–8,12] Our previous studies[6–8,12] were based on the database with patients who had been registered until the end of 1996. The current study was conducted with a data-set entered until December 2000, with a total of 313 patients with epilepsy and interictal psychotic episodes being identified. To focus on interictal psychosis, 19 patients with bimodal psychosis, who exhibited both interictal and postictal psychoses in distinct periods,[7] were excluded from the study. Five patients with epilepsy resulting from a neurodegenerative disorder and four without sufficient clinical information regarding the epilepsy were also excluded. Consequently, 285 patients with interictal psychosis were enrolled in the study. No participants showed evidence of substance misuse, dementing process or a recent progressive space-occupying lesion.

Variables studied

We investigated the following variables:

(a) age at the time of investigation;

(b) gender;

(c) family history of psychosis, i.e. any psychotic disorder (schizophrenia, other paranoid disorder, acute transient psychosis, etc.) in a first-degree relative, according to the Japanese version of the Family History Research Diagnostic Criteria;[21]

(d) age at the onset of epilepsy, i.e. age at the time of the first afebrile seizure;

(e) type of epilepsy based on ictal symptoms, EEG findings and neuroimaging in accordance with the International Classification of Epilepsies and Epileptic Syndromes[20] (i.e. localisation-related epilepsies and generalised epilepsies, including idiopathic and symptomatic);

(f) intellectual functioning: impaired (full-scale IQ on the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale–Revised[22] of 70 or below), borderline (of 71–84), or normal (of 85 or above) in accordance with the DSM–IV;[23]

(g) age at onset of psychosis (i.e. age at the time of the first psychotic episode);

(h) time interval between the onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis, calculated as age at onset of psychosis minus age at onset of epilepsy.

As different neuroimaging techniques were used during different time periods and by each institution, neuroimages were used only for diagnostic information. Diagnoses and evaluations were made by consultant neuropsychiatrists qualified in both psychiatry and epileptology. The study was approved by the ethics committees of the institutions.

Data analysis

Differences in linear variables (ages) for the categorical variables (gender, epilepsy type and family history) were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA). Correlation between categorical variables was examined by means of the chi-squared test or Fisher's exact test. Correlations between linear or rank-order variables (intellectual functioning) were examined by means of simple regression analysis or Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient. Because age at the time of examination was correlated significantly with the other age-related variables (age at the onset of epilepsy ($r=0.39$, $P<0.0005$), time interval ($r=0.31$, $P<0.0005$), and age at the onset of psychosis ($r=0.62$, $P<0.0005$)), the weighted least squares procedure (weighted by age at the time of examination) was applied.[12] A P-value of <0.05 was considered significant. All statistical analyses were performed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 14.0 for Windows.

Results

Clinical characteristics of the 285 patients with interictal psychosis were as follows: mean age at the time of examination was 40.7 years (s.d. = 12.8, range 19–76, median 39). There were 146 men and 139 women. A total of 236 patients had localisation-related epilepsies and 49 generalised epilepsies (34 with idiopathic and 15 with symptomatic generalised epilepsies). With respect to estimated aetiologies of epilepsy, there were 22 patients with central nervous system infections, 26 with birth complications (including cerebral palsy), 15 with head trauma, 7 with brain tumours, 16 with migration disorders or other malformation, 5 with vascular disorders, and pathogenesis was unknown for the remaining 194 patients. Intellectual function was normal in 140 patients, borderline in 55, and impaired in 90. There were 244 patients with chronic schizophrenia-like psychosis, 27 with brief interictal psychosis and 14 with interictal psychosis of unknown duration. Twenty-one patients had a family history of psychosis.

Distributional relations between the patients' characteristics studied were as follows: gender and intellectual functioning ($\chi^2=2.6$, $P=0.280$), gender and epilepsy type (129 men and 107 women with localisation-related epilepsies, 17 men and 32 women with generalised epilepsies; $\chi^2=5.7$, $P=0.017$), gender and family history of psychosis ($\chi^2=0.11$, $P=0.736$), intellectual functioning and epilepsy type ($\chi^2=4.1$, $P=0.126$), intellectual functioning and family history of psychosis ($\chi^2=0.44$, $P=0.802$), and epilepsy type and family history of psychosis ($\chi^2=0.06$, $P=0.767$).

Age-related factors observed were as follows: mean age at onset of epilepsy was 11.7 years (s.d. = 8.0, range 0–51, median 11), mean age at onset of psychosis was 26.1 years (s.d. = 9.6, range 12–65, median 24) and the mean time interval between the onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis was 14.4 years (s.d. = 9.3, range 0–51, median 13). Distribution of the time intervals for the entire patient group are shown in Fig. 1. Age at onset of psychosis correlated significantly with that of epilepsy ($r=0.47$, $P<0.0005$) and with the time interval ($r=0.64$, $P<0.0005$).

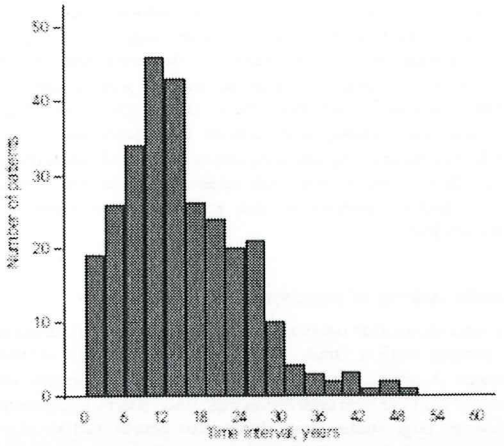

Fig. 1 Distribution of the time intervals (years) between the onset of epilepsy and that of interictal psychosis (mean 14.4 years, s.d. = 9.2, range 0–51, median 13).

The time interval was 3 years or less in 31 patients (10.9%), 5 years or less in 45 (15.8%), 10 years or less in 101 (35.4%).

The time interval also correlated significantly with age at onset of epilepsy ($r = -0.38$, $P < 0.0005$).

The estimated marginal means of age at onset of epilepsy, age at onset of psychosis and the time interval for each variable are shown in Table 1. The time interval and age at onset of psychosis differed significantly between epilepsy types: interictal psychosis developed at an earlier age and with a shorter interval in patients with generalised epilepsies, in particular with idiopathic generalised epilepsies, than those in patients with localisation-related epilepsies. Intellectual functioning correlated significantly with age at onset of epilepsy and the time interval: the onset of epilepsy was earlier and the interval was longer in those patients with intellectual disturbances than in those without. The onset of psychosis was significantly earlier in patients with a family history of psychosis than in those without.

We carried out further analyses on the participants with localisation-related epilepsies ($n = 236$) and obtained similar tendencies: intellectual functioning correlated significantly with age at onset of epilepsy ($r = 0.293$, $P < 0.0005$; impaired, estimated marginal mean 9.3 (s.e. = 1.1), borderline 11.3 (s.e. = 1.2), normal 15.3 (s.e. = 0.8)), with age at onset of psychosis ($r = 0.128$, $P = 0.049$; impaired 26.3 (s.e. = 1.4), borderline 29.8 (s.e. = 1.6), normal 30.0 (s.e. = 1.0)) or with time interval ($r = -0.157$, $P = 0.016$; impaired 17.0 (s.e. = 1.2), borderline 18.5 (s.e. = 1.4), normal 14.6 (s.e. = 0.9)). Likewise, in the family history of psychosis of the participants with localisation-related epilepsies, the estimated marginal mean age at onset of psychosis also differed significantly ($F = 5.45$, $P = 0.020$; positive 22.7 (s.e. = 2.8), negative 29.4 (s.e. = 0.8)). However, there was no significant difference in age at onset of epilepsy ($F = 1.33$, $P = 0.250$; positive 10.3 (s.e. = 2.3), negative 13.0 (s.e. = 0.6)) or in time interval ($F = 2.33$, $P = 0.129$; positive 12.4 (s.e. = 2.5), negative 16.4 (s.e. = 0.7)).

Table 1 Estimated marginal means (standard error, 95% CI) ages (in years) at onset of epilepsy and psychosis and time interval for clinical variables (total $n = 293$)

		Age at onset of epilepsy				Age at onset of psychosis				Time interval			
	n	Mean (s.e.)	95% CI	Test statistic	P	Mean (s.e.)	95% CI	Test statistic	P	Mean (s.e.)	95% CI	Test statistic	P
Gender[a]				$F = 0.13$	0.656			$F = 0.00$	0.982			$F = 0.09$	0.765
Men	145	12.5 (0.7)	11.1–13.9			27.9 (0.9)	26.2–29.7			15.4 (0.8)	13.8–17.1		
Women	139	12.9 (0.7)	11.4–14.3			28.0 (0.9)	26.2–29.8			15.1 (0.8)	13.4–16.7		
Intellectual functioning[b]				$r = 0.305$	<0.0005			$r = 0.106$	0.074			$r = -0.157$	0.006
Impaired	90	9.6 (0.9)	7.8–11.4			25.6 (1.2)	23.3–27.9			16.1 (1.1)	14.0–18.3		
Borderline	55	11.4 (1.1)	9.2–13.6			29.1 (1.4)	26.3–32.0			17.8 (1.3)	15.2–20.4		
Normal	140	15.0 (0.7)	13.6–16.4			28.8 (0.9)	27.1–30.6			13.8 (0.8)	12.2–15.4		
Epilepsy type[a]				$F = 0.25$	0.615			$F = 13.2$	<0.0005			$F = 12.0$	0.001
Localisation-related epilepsies	236	12.8 (0.6)	11.7–13.9			29.1 (0.7)	27.8–30.5			16.2 (0.6)	15.0–17.5		
Generalised epilepsies	49	12.1 (1.3)	9.5–14.7			22.8 (1.6)	19.6–26.0			10.6 (1.5)	7.7–13.6		
Idiopathic	34	12.7 (1.5)	10.6–14.8			22.3 (1.8)	20.5–24.6			9.8 (1.3)	7.1–12.5		
Symptomatic	15	10.7 (1.5)	7.6–13.8			23.0 (1.9)	20.0–26.0			12.3 (1.9)	8.4–16.2		
Family history of psychosis[a]				$F = 1.33$	0.368			$F = 5.33$	0.022			$F = 2.28$	0.132
Positive	21	10.6 (1.9)	6.8–14.4			22.6 (2.4)	17.9–27.3			12.0 (2.2)	7.6–16.4		
Negative	264	12.8 (0.5)	11.8–13.9			28.4 (0.7)	27.1–29.7			15.5 (0.6)	14.3–16.7		

a. By analysis of variance with weighted least squares procedure (weighted for age at the examination).
b. By Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient.

Discussion

In the current study, age at onset of interictal psychosis and time interval between onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis varied

considerably. Participants with generalised epilepsy, normal intellectual function or a positive family history of psychosis tended to show an early onset of interictal psychosis.

Distribution of the time interval

The mean interval between the onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis was 14.4 years, consistent with previously reported data.[1,2] This interval varied widely among patients, not showing a simple bell-curve distribution. The wide variation may be in part accounted for by the cumulative effects of various epilepsy-related factors on the development of interictal psychosis, i.e. repeated seizures, frequent epileptic discharges in the brain, adverse effects of anti-epileptic drugs and psychosocial stress.[2,18] However, it is important to note that interictal psychosis developed in a considerable number of patients shortly after their first epileptic event (within a few years). Indeed, this fact has been described in previous studies.[1,23] It is not likely that such quick development of interictal psychosis is as a result of the epilepsy-related process alone. There is little evidence that occurrence of interictal psychotic symptoms is precipitated by a higher impact of particular epilepsy processes (e.g. excessive seizures and extensive epileptogenesis),[17] although severe epilepsy can be a risk factor for the development of psychosis. Thus, in addition to the epilepsy-related process, the presence of certain preparatory conditions, such as individual vulnerabilities to psychosis[24] that may be common to organic psychoses or even functional psychoses, may play a role in generating psychotic symptoms in individuals with epilepsy.

Epilepsy type

The interval between onset of epilepsy and that of psychosis was significantly shorter in patients with generalised epilepsies than in those with localisation-related epilepsies, with the onset of epilepsy being comparable among these two groups. Patients with generalised epilepsies, unlike those with localisation-related epilepsies, tend to have fewer epilepsy (organic)-related risk factors for psychosis, i.e. no distinct brain insult, low seizure frequency, simple medications and normal cognitive functioning, which may be associated with a reduced frequency of development of interictal psychosis.[2,6] It is possible that patients with generalised epilepsies in whom interictal psychosis develops might be affected by non-epileptic precipitators of psychosis. This may be similar to the difference between patients with schizophrenia and those with epilepsy; psychosis is observed at a more advanced age in patients with epilepsy than in patients with schizophrenia that does not involve distinct brain damage.[32] Among patients with generalised epilepsies, only those with a strong vulnerability may suffer interictal psychosis at an early age regardless of acquired brain insults because of epilepsy.

Intellectual functioning

Our patients with normal intellectual functioning exhibited interictal psychosis sooner after the onset of epilepsy. This finding was also seen in the subgroup of participants with localisation-related epilepsies only. Impaired intellectual function is often associated with severe epilepsy and brain damage,[25] although it is also observed in people without such conditions.[26] Functional psychosis develops two to three times more frequently in people with impaired intellectual functioning than is reported in the general population.[26,27] Moreover, psychosis develops 1.3–4.7 times more frequently in patients with epilepsy with impaired intellectual functioning than in those without.[7] In contrast, normal intellectual functioning usually suggests having less brain damage and is not related to increased risks for the development of psychosis. Why do patients with a lower risk suffer psychosis earlier than those at a higher risk? Again, psychosis may develop more quickly in patients with normal intellectual functioning who have strong congenital vulnerabilities to psychosis than in those with acquired organic precipitators, i.e. intellectual dysfunction and epilepsy, but without such vulnerabilities.

Family history of psychosis

We have shown that interictal psychosis develops at an earlier age in patients with a family history of psychosis than in those without. A genetic tendency towards psychosis in patients with epilepsy has long been underestimated[2] since Slater's initial study.[3] However, large studies have shown that genetic factors play a significant role in the development of psychosis in patients with epilepsy.[5,6] These findings appear to be similar to those found in functional psychosis (i.e. schizophrenia); people with a positive family history tend to have a higher risk of psychosis and to exhibit their first psychotic symptoms earlier than those without.[28,29] A positive family history of psychosis may be a universal risk factor for developing psychosis, and it appears to reflect, at least in part, a congenital vulnerability to psychosis.[23] Even in patients with epilepsy and a positive family history of psychosis, psychotic symptoms are likely generated sooner regardless of acquired risk factors related to either epilepsy or brain damage.

Study limitations

Some limitations should be considered in relation to the current study. Analysis of age at onset of psychosis in patients with epilepsy is subject to some methodological issues.[30] Because epilepsy psychosis was defined operationally as psychosis developing after the onset of epilepsy in accordance with Slater & Roth's definition,[34] two patient groups were excluded: patients in whom psychosis developed before epilepsy[31] and patients in whom novel psychoses will develop after the time of the investigation or who died before the possible development of psychosis. However, neither group would have been large enough to markedly influence mean age at onset of psychosis or the mean time interval between onsets of the two disorders. Neither of these omissions explains the significant differences in age at onset of psychosis or in the onset interval between patients with particular clinical characteristics. In addition, despite the large cohort of participants with interictal psychosis, the number of patients in whom particular factors were analysed, such as a positive family history of psychosis and generalised epilepsies, was insufficient to produce strong statistical power. Factors that we did not consider may be associated with age-related factors, but would not have affected the result of our study. Although our findings point to the effects of certain vulnerabilities to psychosis (reflected by a positive family history), it is still unclear what these vulnerabilities are. Evidence supporting such vulnerability concepts is scarce, even for patients with functional psychosis.[24]

Results of the current study show some relationship between age at onset of interictal psychosis and several clinical variables that may reflect individual vulnerabilities. These vulnerabilities, in addition to epilepsy-related deficits, can affect the generation of interictal psychosis independently or interactively. Further comprehensive studies to confirm such vulnerabilities are required.

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Sleep-related problems and use of hypnotics in inpatients of acute hospital wards

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Abstract

Objective: Although sleep disorders are highly prevalent among patients with physical disorders, only limited information is available about the actual status of sleep-related problems in inpatients of acute hospital wards. We conducted a multicenter cross-sectional observational survey investigating the prevalence of sleep disorders and use of hypnotic-sedative drugs among inpatients of acute wards in 44 general hospitals in Japan.

Method: Questionnaire-, actigraph- and observation-based sleep evaluations were simultaneously performed in 557 adult inpatients [mean age 72.8±12.8 (S.D.) years] of acute wards during a one-month period in July 2007.

Results: Of the 421 patients with data available, 22.3% had at least one of the following sleep disorders: sleep apnea syndrome, restless legs syndrome, periodic limb movement disorder and nocturnal behavior disorder. Similarly, 62.7% had insomnia, 6.9% had severe daytime sleepiness and 12.8% had other sleep-related symptoms. Only 13.8% were free of any sleep-related problem. Although 33.7% of insomnia patients were taking hypnotic-sedative drugs, 65.2% of them complained of residual insomnia symptoms.

Conclusion: The findings obtained in this study have revealed the remarkably high prevalence of sleep-related problems experienced by inpatients of acute hospital wards in Japan. Proper diagnosis of sleep disorders should be made among patients with physical disorders.

Keywords: Sleep disorders; Insomnia; Acute hospital wards; Physical illness; Hypnotic use

1. Introduction

Sleep disorders, including insomnia, sleep apnea syndrome (SAS), restless legs syndrome (RLS) and periodic limb movement disorder (PLMD), are highly prevalent and particularly common in elderly patients with physical disorders. Sleep disorders reduce patients' quality of life (QOL) by causing symptoms such as daytime sleepiness and cognitive impairment and may also exacerbate underlying disorders by inhibiting respiratory, cardiovascular and

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metabolic functions. In one study of older patients in a skilled-care geriatric hospital in Japan, the presence of insomnia was associated with a higher risk of mortality during the 2-year follow-up period [1].

The prevalence of these sleep disorders increases with age [2], and the high incidence of physical disorders among the elderly population is a contributing factor. Previous epidemiologic studies have revealed that the prevalence of insomnia among the general population is 10.2–48.0% [3–6], and insomnia frequently occurs in association with chronic pain disorders, respiratory diseases and neurological diseases [7]. SAS, RLS or PLMD also frequently coexists with various physical diseases including hypertension [8], ischemic heart disease [9,10], chronic kidney failure [11], iron-deficiency anemia [12] and neurological diseases such as Parkinson's disease [13]. It is also noteworthy that medications used for the treatment of sleep disorders may worsen physical disorders; for example, most standard hypnotics benzodiazepines cause *sleep apnea* by reducing the muscle tone of the upper respiratory tract during sleep [14].

The fact that physical and sleep disorders can coexist at a high frequency should always be taken into account when making an accurate diagnosis and developing a treatment strategy that provides a favorable risk-benefit balance. Nevertheless, we currently have only limited information about the actual status of sleep-related problems experienced by inpatients of acute hospital wards. Thus, the objectives of the present study were to investigate the breakdown and prevalence of sleep disorders and use of hypnotic-sedative drugs in acute ward inpatients and to identify problems in the clinical practice of sleep medicine.

2. Methods

2.1. Subjects and method

Study subjects who were 20 years of age or more were randomly selected from among the inpatients of acute hospital wards, excluding psychiatric and tuberculosis wards, of 44 general hospitals in Japan. The patients' identities were coded at each hospital ward, and then patients were randomly sampled. The investigation was carried out among 557 subjects [316 males, 241 females; mean age, 72.8±12.8 (S.D.) years; range 22–96 years] who had provided informed consent or whose family member had provided informed consent, simultaneously at all hospitals during a period of 1 month in July 2007. Each patient's primary disorder was classified according to the International Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems Version 10 (*ICD-10*) (Table 1). The ethics committee at each research site approved the present study.

2.2. Investigation methods

The investigation was conducted over 2 days for each patient to check his or her sleep condition and details of treatment. The investigation consisted of subjective sleep evaluation using a self-administered questionnaire (Table 2), objective sleep evaluation by actigraphy, observational sleep evaluation by nursing staff and a survey of medication use as recorded in the medical records.

The questionnaire was designed to identify the presence of insomnia, SAS, RLS, PLMD, nocturnal behavior disorder (NBD), daytime sleepiness and nocturnal sleep-related symptoms. In the questionnaire, Q1–Q6 were completed by the patients, and Q7 and Q8 were completed by medical staff. Although NBD can be further divided into nocturnal delirium, REM sleep behavior disorder, behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia and other symptoms, these disorders were not distinguished in view of the primary objective of the present study and technical restrictions.

For objective sleep evaluation, subjects were asked to wear an actigraph [Lifecorder PLUS (LC), Suzuken, Nagoya, Japan] [15] on their waist for two consecutive days for continuous recording of the intensity of activity. Total sleep time (TST; the sum of all sleep time during time in bed), total wake time (TWT; the sum of all wake time during time in bed) and sleep efficiency (SE; the percentage of TST relative to time in bed) were then calculated from the LC data. Time in bed (TIB) was defined as the time during

Table 1
Illness identified in enrolled patients

System organ/disease class	Total	SAS, RLS, PLMD and NBD	Insomnia			Good Sleep
			Improved	Untreated	Not-Improved	
	557 (100%)	94 (100%)	31 (100%)	175 (100%)	58 (100%)	63 (100%)
Diseases of the circulatory system	140 (25.1)	26 (21.3)	7 (22.6)	44 (25.1)	9 (15.5)	15 (23.8)
Neoplasms	127 (22.8)	19 (20.2)	5 (16.1)	47 (26.9)	26 (44.8)	8 (12.7)
Diseases of the respiratory system	68 (12.2)	11 (11.7)	3 (9.7)	17 (9.7)	8 (13.8)	9 (14.3)
Diseases of the digestive system	62 (11.1)	13 (13.8)	2 (6.5)	21 (12.0)	7 (12.1)	8 (12.7)
Diseases of the nervous system	45 (8.1)	11 (11.7)	2 (6.5)	9 (5.1)	3 (5.2)	5 (7.9)
Diseases of the genitourinary system	16 (2.9)	4 (4.3)	1 (3.2)	5 (2.9)	1 (1.7)	3 (4.9)
Diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue	14 (2.5)	2 (2.1)	1 (3.2)	7 (4.0)	0 (0.0)	3 (4.9)
Certain infectious and parasitic diseases	8 (1.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (3.2)	3 (1.7)	1 (1.7)	0 (0.0)
Other diseases	77 (13.8)	14 (14.9)	9 (29.0)	22 (12.6)	3 (5.2)	12 (19.0)

SAS, sleep apnea syndrome; RLS, restless legs syndrome; PLMD, periodic limb movement disorder; NBD, nocturnal behavior disorder.

Table 2
Question items and percentages of respondents in the analyzed 421 inpatients

Items		1)	2)	3)	4)
Q1. How long did it take from light off until you went to sleep?					
1) less than 15 minutes 2) 15-29 minutes 3) 30-59 minutes 4) more than 60 minutes		50.4	20.4	14.5	14.7
Q2. How many times did you awake during last night?					
1) none 2) 1-2 times 3) 3-4 times 4) more than 5 times		21.4	35.9	24.9	17.8
Q3. What time did you get up this morning (h:min)?		22.6*	77.4		
Q4. Did you get up in the morning unrefreshed or nonrestored?					
1) good 2) fair 3) insufficient 4) poor		38.7	37.1	19.2	5.0
Q5. Do you have daytime sleepiness?**					
1) none 2)some 3) moderate 4) severe		22.8	22.8	47.5	6.9
Q6. Did you experience any of the following symptoms during last night (completed by a patient)					
Q6-a creeping sensation or restless discomfort in the limbs	1) yes 2) no	5.9	94.1		
Q6-b legs or arms jerk	1) yes 2) no	2.4	97.6		
Q6-c hot flash	1) yes 2) no	4.8	95.2		
Q6-d night sweat	1) yes 2) no	6.9	93.1		
Q6-e palpitation	1) yes 2) no	1.2	98.8		
Q6-f anxiety or panic	1) yes 2) no	1.0	99.0		
Q6-g sleep paralysis	1) yes 2) no	0.0	100.0		
Q6-h nightmare	1) yes 2) no	3.1	96.9		
Q7. Did the patient experience any of the following symptoms during last night (completed by nursing staffs)					
Q7-a loud snoring, or apnea lasting for 10 seconds or longer	1) yes 2) no	10.0	90.0		
Q7-b periodic legs or arms jerk	1) yes 2) no	2.1	97.9		
Q7-c sleep-talking, delirium or abnormal behaviors such as wandering	1) yes 2) no	6.9	93.1		
Q8. Whether or not the patient took any hypnotic-sedative drug(s) for treatment of insomnia within the past one week and the name of the drug(s) if any (completed by nursing staffs)					
1) yes 2) no Name of drugs [ ]		27.6	72.4		

* Patients who woke up 30 minutes or earlier than the desired time without falling asleep again (Q3).
** answered at 2 pm.

which patients were supposed to be in bed as specified by each hospital ward, and specifically the time from "lights out" to the time at which patients were expected to wake. Mean TIB was approximately between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. Observations by the nursing staffs on each of the wards confirmed that the patients were in bed during TIB on the evenings of the study.

For the observational sleep evaluations, several nursing staffs alternated in order to record continuously the subjects' sleep states. Opening and closing of eyes, breathing, movement and any unusual behavior of the subjects were observed and recorded at a distance so as to not disturb the subjects.

2.3. Differential diagnosis of sleep disorders

The diagnostic flow for the patients included in the investigation is shown in Fig. 1. Some of the preselected subjects (n=136) were either excluded from data analyses or could not participate due to reasons such as sudden change in physical condition such as fever, severe dementia, consciousness disturbance due to organic brain damages, need for emergency examination, hospital transfer or discharge or due to missing data on their amount of physical activity. As a result, a total of 421 patients comprised the analysis population [228 males, 193 females; mean age, 72.5±12.6 (S.D.) years; range 22-96 years]. The number of respondents for each question item is shown in Table 2.

Patients were initially examined for the presence of SAS (positive answer to Q7-a), RLS (positive answer to Q6-a), PLMD (positive answer to Q6-b or Q7-b) or NBD (positive answer to Q7-c). Those who were NOT diagnosed with SAS, RLS, PLMD or NBD were subsequently examined for the presence of insomnia. Patients were judged as having insomnia when the subjective sleep investigation indicated the presence of any one of the following:

i. Disturbances of initiating sleep (DIS): Q1, the answer indicates 30 min or more.
ii. Disturbances of maintaining sleep (DMS): Q2, the answer indicates three times or more.
iii. Early morning awakening (EMA): Q3, the answer indicates wake time 30 minutes or earlier than the desired time without falling asleep again.
iv. Non-restorative sleep (NRS): Q4, the answer indicates insufficient or poor sleep.

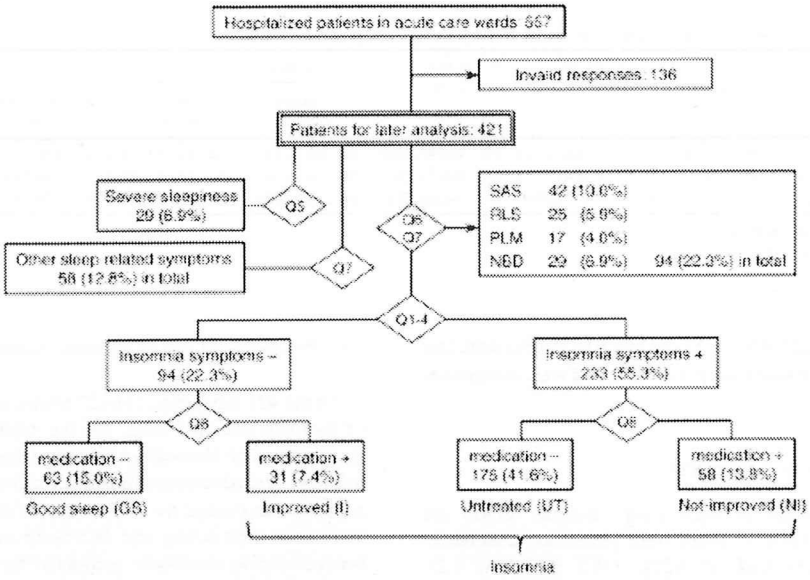

Fig. 1. Diagnostic flow of the subjects in this study. See text and Table 2 for explanation.

The subjects were also divided into the following four groups according to the presence or absence of insomnia and use or not of hypnotic-sedative drugs for insomnia treatment: the good sleep (GS) group consisting of those without insomnia and taking no medication, the improved (I) group consisting of those without insomnia and taking medication (s), the untreated (UT) group consisting of those with insomnia but taking no medication, and the not-improved (NI) group consisting of those with insomnia and taking medication(s). Of these groups, the I, UT and NI groups were grouped together and defined as the insomnia group (Fig. 1).

2.4. Daytime sleepiness

The 421 patients were examined for the presence or absence of daytime sleepiness according to the following criteria: Q5, the answer indicates the presence of moderate or severe sleepiness.

2.5. Sleep-related symptoms

The 421 patients were examined for the presence or absence of other sleep-related symptoms, such as hot flashes in the foot or body (Q6-c), night sweats (Q6-d), palpitations (Q6-e), anxiety and panic (Q6-f), sleep paralysis (Q6-g) and nightmares (Q6-h).

2.6. Statistical analysis

One-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's multiple comparison tests was used to identify significant differences in sleep parameters (TST, TWT and SE) among the insomnia group and GS group. Sleep parameters were also compared between each sleep disorder group and the GS group using a two-tailed Student's *t* test. Analysis values are expressed as mean±S.D. Multiple logistic regression analysis was carried out to calculate the odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) for assessing the association of primary disorders, sleep disorders and use of hypnotic-sedative drugs with severe sleepiness. Presence of severe sleepiness was used as the dependent variable, and primary disorders, sleep disorders and use of hypnotic-sedative drugs were used as independent variables. We performed multiple logistic regression analyses to control for all sociodemographic (sex and age) and other factors. Statistical significance was set at $P<.05$. All analyses were made using SPSS 11.5 for Windows.

3. Results

3.1. Prevalence of sleep disorders

The breakdown of the diagnoses of sleep disorders is shown in Fig. 1. Of the 421 inpatients, 42 (10.0%, M/F=29/13) had SAS, 25 (5.9%, 14/11) had RLS, 17 (4.0%, 11/6) had PLMD and 29 (6.9%, 19/10) had NBD. A total of 94 (22.3%) had at least one of the four sleep disorders. Seventeen patients had two sleep disorders concurrently.

Of the 421 inpatients, 58 (13.8%, NI) and 175 (41.6%, UT) complained of insomnia symptoms. A total of 264 (62.7%), including the NI, UT and I (31, 7.4%) groups were given a diagnosis of insomnia. The most common insomnia symptom was DMS (60.1%), followed by DIS (41.2%),

Table 3
Comparison of objective sleep parameters determined by I.C in the insomnia and good sleep patients

	SAS n=42	P	RLS n=25	P	PLMD n=17	P	NBD n=29	P	Insomnia						Good sleep n=63
									Untreated n=175	P	Improved n=31	P	Not-improved n=58	P	
TST (min)	367.6±119.2	.06	331.9±117.7	0	354.6±111.5	.01	359.8±126.1	.04	369.2±102.5	.04	400.7±118.4	n.s	399.7±91.0	n.s	409.4±102.4
TWT (min)	172.4±119.2	.05	208.1±117.7	0	185.4±111.5	.01	180.2±126.1	.04	170.3±102.3	.03	139.4±118.4	n.s	140.3±91.0	n.s	129.3±103.3
SE (%)	68.1±22.1	.05	61.5±21.8	0	65.7±20.6	.01	66.6±23.4	.04	68.4±19.0	.03	74.2±21.9	n.s	74.0±16.9	n.s	76.1±19.1

Value are expressed as mean±S.D..
P value vs. Good sleep group.
n.s; not significant.

EMA (33.9%) and NRS (31.8%). Only 63 (15.0%) were free of the above-mentioned sleep disorders and were assigned to the GS group.

3.2. Objective sleep parameters

Sleep parameters in each sleep disorder group are summarized in Table 3. There were significant differences in TST [F(3,323)=3.24, *P*=.022], TWT [F(3,323)=3.28, *P*=.021] and SE [F(3,323)=3.31, *P*=.020) among the insomnia group and GS group. TST (*P*=.039) was significantly shorter and TWT (*P*=.033) and SE (*P*=.032) were significantly longer in the NI group than in the GS group. Patients with RLS (*P*<.01) and NBD (*P*<.05) also presented a significantly shorter TST, significantly longer TWT and significantly lower SE than those in the GS group. A similar tendency was observed for patients with SAS or PLMD (*P*<.06). On the other hand, we found no significant differences in the sleep parameters between the medicated group (the I or NI group) and the GS group, regardless of whether or not any subjective improvement was observed.

3.3. Daytime sleepiness

Of the 421 inpatients, 229 (54.4%) experienced moderate to severe sleepiness and 29 (6.9%) experienced severe sleepiness. Severe sleepiness was commonly observed in those with sleep disorders; it was most commonly observed in patients with multiple sleep disorders (27.8%, 5/18), followed by those with PLMD (18.2%, 2/11), SAS (17.9%, 5/28) and NBD (17.7%, 3/17). Multiple logistic regression analysis revealed that SAS (adjusted OR=3.78, 95% CI, 1.24–11.53, *P*<.05) and PLMD (adjusted OR=5.93, 95% CI, 1.50–23.4, *P*<.05) showed a significantly positive association with the presence of severe sleepiness.

3.4. Other sleep-related symptoms

Of the 421 inpatients, 19 (4.5%, M/F=7/12) had hot flashes, 29 (6.9%, 13/16) had night sweats, 5 (1.2%, 1/4) had palpitations, 4 (1.0%, 2/2) had anxiety or panic and 13 (3.1%, 7/6) had nightmares. None of the patients experienced sleep paralysis.

3.5. Prevalence of use of hypnotic-sedative drugs

Of the 421 inpatients, 116 (27.6%) were taking some kind of hypnotic-sedative drug for the treatment of insomnia symptoms. The breakdown of the prescribed drugs was as follows: benzodiazepine hypnotics including zolpidem and zopiclone accounted for 73.2% (26.1% for ultrashort-acting, 30.6% for short-acting and 16.5% for intermediate-acting), benzodiazepine anxiolytic accounted for 5.8%, antipsychotics accounted for 15.6% and other drugs accounted for 5.2% of all prescribed drugs. In the insomnia group, those receiving medication therapy for insomnia only accounted for 33.7% (the I+NI group). Two thirds of the patients receiving medication therapy (65.2%, corresponding to the NI group) complained of persistent insomnia symptoms. In addition, 36.0% of RLS patients, 29.4% of PLMD patients, 26.2% of SAS patients and 17.2% of NBD patients were taking at least one of the above hypnotic-sedative drugs.

4. Discussion

This is the first multicenter study investigating the prevalence of sleep disorders in inpatients of acute wards in general hospitals. Sleep disorders are extremely common disorders among community residents, and are even more so among patients with underlying physical diseases as in the subjects of the present study. Insomnia, as well as other sleep disorders, while frequently thought to be transitory or secondary to a physical disease, can become prolonged without appropriate treatment in the early stages. Furthermore, chronic sleep disorders can exacerbate lifestyle-related diseases such as hypertension and diabetes, and increase the risk of psychiatric symptoms such as depression and anxiety, not to cause subjective distress [16,17]. Many sleep disorders go undetected and are not appropriately treated in clinical practice. Therefore, this study was conducted to alert practitioners of sleep disorders to this situation, by shedding more light on their current status in general medical practice.

In the present study, we investigated the prevalence of sleep disorders and the use of hypnotic-sedative drugs in 421 inpatients with mean age of 72.5 years by questionnaire-, actigraph- and observation-based sleep evaluations, and have revealed a high prevalence of diverse types of sleep disorders

in the study population. SAS, RLS, PLMD, NBD and insomnia, in particular, were highly prevalent (10.0, 5.9, 4.0, 6.9 and 62.7%, respectively). The inpatients also suffered from various sleep-related symptoms (1.0–6.9%, except for sleep paralysis), which are common conditions with physical disorders and which could cause disrupted sleep [18–21]. In fact, the patients with these sleep disorders also showed poor sleep parameters recorded by actigraphy, which objectively indicates that they have poor-quality sleep during the night. Consequently, of the 421 patients, only 13.8% were free of any type of sleep disorder diagnosed, severe daytime sleepiness or sleep-related symptoms, revealing that sleep-related problems are very common clinical problems among inpatients of acute hospital wards.

Due to restrictions on the disclosure of personal information, the only information available regarding the underlying diseases of the patients was the names of the primary diseases according to the major classification of the *ICD-10*. We were thus unable to analyze respective medical conditions that are commonly associated with these sleep disorders, such as chronic pain, cardiovascular diseases, chronic renal failure, hemodialysis and iron deficiency anemia.

The prevalence of SAS and RLS is generally high in elderly people and patients with physical disorders. However, even though the mean age of our patients was high (72.5 years) and they had physical disorders in the exacerbation phase, contrary to our expectations, the prevalence of SAS and RLS was not higher in the study population than in community dwellers of previous studies. For example, the prevalence of SAS in middle-aged to elderly people has been shown to be 9–10% in males and 4–10% in females [22,23], which is comparable to that in the present study population (10% in the entire population, 12.7% in males, 6.7% in females). In the present study, patients were defined as having SAS if they reported loud snoring or apnea lasting for 10 seconds or more, because loud snoring is the most prominent symptom of upper airway resistance syndrome, which is included in the category of SAS [7,24]. Nevertheless, the prevalence of SAS patients including those who snored loudly in the present study was similar to that in the general population. Similarly, a large-scale survey which employed a self-administered questionnaire and used a definition of RLS similar to that in the present study has reported that the prevalence of RLS among Japanese people aged 70 years or more is 4.1% (3.4% in males, 4.6% in females), which is practically identical to that in the present study (5.9% in total, 6.1% in males, 5.7% in females) [25]. Furthermore, the frequency of NBD was as low as 6.9%, despite the occurrence rate of delirium per admission varying between 11 and 42% [26]. The low NBD frequency of the present study compared to that of all previous studies is thought to be because patients with severe physical conditions or with organic brain damages were excluded from the analyses.

In many of the epidemiologic studies on the prevalence of sleep disorders, sleep evaluation is performed during a period of one week to one month. The fact that sleep evaluation in this study was performed on a single night might have held down the prevalence of sleep disorders. However, since the physical status of the inpatients of acute hospital wards can change in a very short period of time and their sleep condition is also subject to change, we assumed that the results obtained from a long investigation period would not properly reflect the actual status of their sleep-related problems. Extension of the duration for determining the presence or absence of sleep disorders may result in a dramatic increase in the prevalence of the sleep disorders in inpatients of acute hospital wards.

Patients with physical disorders, especially with advanced age, are generally vulnerable to insomnia [27–29]. We have found that approximately two thirds (62.7%) of the representative patients in acute wards in Japan are suffering from insomnia. It was confirmed not only from the subjective complaints of patients but also from the objective sleep evaluation that the quality of sleep for patients with insomnia receiving no treatment or who had other sleep disorders was significantly lower than that for patients in the GS group (Table 3). A survey among 1500 community dwellers aged 55–84 years in the United States has demonstrated that the quality of sleep decreases in proportion to an increase in the number of physical disorders suffered [27]. Several studies have also reported a high prevalence (34–69%) of insomnia in outpatients of primary care clinics or regular inpatients with acute or chronic physical disorders [30–33]. The findings of the present study for acute ward inpatients are consistent with those obtained in the previous studies in spite of shorter-term sleep evaluation.

In many cases of sleep disorders, daytime sleepiness often occurs to compensate for low-quality sleep during the night. In the present study, 47.5% of the patients experienced mild or severer sleepiness and 6.9% experienced severe sleepiness, which was particularly high in those with multiple sleep disorders, including SAS, RLS, PLMD and NBD. The results of multiple logistic regression analysis indicated that severe sleepiness is significantly associated with SAS and PLMD, and not with an underlying disease or type of hypnotic-sedative drug.

Only one-third (33.7%) of the patients with insomnia included in the present investigation received treatment for insomnia symptoms. In addition, two-thirds (65.2%) of the patients receiving medication therapy complained of residual insomnia symptoms. The relatively low frequency of patients prescribed hypnotic-sedative drugs in the present study, which is very similar to that reported in the Meissner's study [30], suggests the possibility that physicians are not fully aware of the presence of insomnia in their patients.

The prescribed drugs mainly consisted of benzodiazepine hypnotics including intermediate-acting agents and antipsychotics. Caution should always be exercised when

using these hypnotic-sedative drugs in inpatients with physical disorders, especially in elderly patients. This is because elderly patients present a poor risk-benefit balance for hypnotic-sedative drugs due to such reasons as decreased drug metabolizing capacity, increased drug sensitivity, risk of fall and fracture or suppressed mental function, and worsening of underlying diseases induced by medication [34–37].

Moreover, administered hypnotic-sedative drugs may be ineffective or even worsen underlying diseases unless sleep disorders are properly diagnosed. In fact, 23.8% of the patients with SAS were prescribed hypnotic-sedative drugs including benzodiazepines and 36.0% of the patients with RLS were taking hypnotic-sedative drugs other than clonazepam. These results suggest that medications that are not necessarily appropriate for treatment of individual patients' sleep disorders are often selected in actual clinical practice, possibly causing a reduction in the patients' ADL and QOL.

Several limitations should be noted when interpreting the results of the present study. First, as elderly patients aged 65 years or more accounted for a large portion (76.0%) of the 421 inpatients, it is speculated that the high prevalence of sleep-related problems observed in the patients of the present investigation were associated with not only sleep disorders attributable to physical disorders but also age-related changes in sleep property.

Second, one-fourth (24.4%) of the initially enrolled 557 patients were excluded. Patients who were unable to answer questions on the day of the survey because of a change in their physical condition (e.g. fever, consciousness disturbance or need for emergency examination) or those patients with missing data due to interruptions in LC data collection were excluded. Some of these excluded patients might have developed some type of sleep disorder during their stay in hospital.

Third, insomnia defined in the present study is different from insomnia that meets the general criteria of the International Classification of Sleep Disorders, second edition (ICSD-2) [7], because we did not consider the presence or absence of "daytime impairment related to the nighttime sleep difficulty". This investigation item was not included in the present study because it was difficult to determine whether the patients' diverse psychosomatic symptoms observed during the daytime were attributable to insomnia or physical disorders.

Fourth, the questionnaire employed in the present study has not been validated. A set number of items taken from the original were configured so as to reduce the burden on inpatients who were in poor physical condition. Therefore, the questionnaire can only suggest the possibility of certain disorders such as SAS, PLMD and RLS; it does not predict the presence of these disorders with high accuracy. However, the frequency of sleep disorders and the percentage of patients exhibiting symptoms of insomnia found in the present study closely resemble the data of several other studies. This is thought to be indirect evidence that, to a certain degree, the survey items work effectively to detect patients suffering from sleep disorders.

Fifth, the sleep/wake scoring algorithm used for the LC data in the present study has been validated for a sample of healthy young subjects [15], but not for elderly subjects with physical disorders, as in the present study's sample. However, as the results demonstrate, meaningful differences were detected in the sleep parameters calculated with this algorithm for total sleep time, total wake time, and efficiency of sleep between the UT group with insomnia and the GS group. Given this, the clinical application of the LC and sleep/wake scoring algorithm for the subjects of the present study can be considered a sound approach to a certain degree.

5. Conclusion

In the present study, which initially involved 557 inpatients who had been admitted to acute hospital wards in 44 general hospitals, we have revealed an extremely high prevalence of sleep disorders using subjective and objective sleep evaluation scales, and have also indicated several problems in the current practice of sleep medicine. Proper diagnosis of sleep disorders should be made while being aware of the high prevalence of sleep disorders among elderly patients with physical disorders, and a treatment strategy that provides a favorable risk-benefit balance must be developed.

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Antiepileptic drugs and psychosis in epilepsy

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Antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) (*Table I*) affect neurotransmitter systems that are not only involved in the generation and propagation of seizure activity, but also implicated in the pathogenesis of psychiatric disorders. As such, it is not surprising that AEDs exert positive or negative effects on psychiatric status in patients with epilepsy. The psychiatric adverse effects of an AED can be seen in its dose-dependent and idiosyncratic characteristics. Dose-dependent reactions are related to the primary and secondary pharmacologic effects of the drug, and are predictable, host-independent, and resolvable with dose reduction. On the other hand, idiosyncratic reactions are host-dependent, and cannot be predicted based on the known pharmacologic effects of a drug. They do not demonstrate a simple dose-response relationship, depending at least in part on an individual's underlying neuropsychiatric state.

Psychosis, which is characterized by delusions and prominent hallucinations under clear consciousness, can represent a rare but an important complication of all AEDs. It affects the individual's ability to determine boundaries between the self and the environment to formulate effective behaviors and decisions for everyday life. The mechanisms of AED-related psychosis may be a pharmacological consequence, drug toxicity, drug withdrawal, or an alternative psychosis with forced normalization. Such psychoses are purported to result from dysfunction in a widespread neural circuit, resulting in both structural and neurochemical abnormalities. However, in particular, they are associated with biological and genetic predispositions in each epileptic individual. In the current work, a selective review of the published literature on AED-related psychosis in both English and Japanese was carried out.

Historical aspects

Physicians have noted both dose-dependent and idiosyncratic psychiatric side effects of AEDs. As early as 1859, Heinrich Hoffmann, a well-known physician and writer, reported that a patient with epilepsy developed psychosis after becoming seizure-free following treatment with *Extracta cotylodenis*, a commonly used herbal medication at the time, as an idiosyncratic adverse effect [4]. In 1893, when bromides constituted the mainstay of