



MEDICAL COMORBIDITIES IN AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDER: A NARRATIVE REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

Autism Spectrum Disorder is a group of neurodevelopmental disabilities characterized by persistent difficulties in social-communicative skills, language, behavior, personal skills, and executive functions. The diagnosis is usually made during childhood, although it can be difficult in mild forms. Psychiatric and medical comorbidities can worsen the clinical course of autism and determine resistance to pharmacological treatments. Medical conditions may remain undiagnosed in children with autism due to atypical presentation of symptoms. Recognizing the medical comorbidities is important because many of the medical conditions could stimulate or exacerbate the abnormal behavior occurring in children with autism. On the other hand, these medical disorders could be treated and consequently determine an improvement in the behavioral symptoms and quality of life of people with autism and their caregivers.

KEYWORDS : Autism spectrum disorder, neurological disorders, genetic comorbidities, metabolic comorbidities, immune disorders, medical comorbidities

INTRODUCTION

Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) includes a group of developmental disorders characterized by core symptoms that include social communication issues, the presence of restricted interests as well as repetitive behaviors that impact on quality of life of patients and their caregivers [1,2].

Some signs and symptoms may emerge between six and twelve months of age, but in many cases, a reliable diagnosis can be made by 24 months [3]. Recent guidelines suggest routine developmental screening visits at nine-, eighteen-, twenty-four- or thirty-months [4]. A structured interview and a diagnostic assessment should follow a positive screening test result at any age [5]. Clinical presentation depends on symptom severity, cognitive and language abilities, and co-occurrence of comorbid conditions [6,7]. Medical and psychiatric comorbidities in ASD might have atypical manifestations and symptomatology, often making their recognition more difficult [8,9].

The lack of sensitive diagnostic tools for differential diagnoses represents a major limitation. Indeed, many symptoms and behaviors often attributed to autism may be clinical manifestations of organic disorders such as pain, constipation, nutrient deficiencies, dental problems, food allergy, or intolerance [10]. For these reasons, evaluation for ASD should include a comprehensive assessment, preferably by an interdisciplinary team to exclude conditions that mimic ASD, identify comorbid conditions, and determine the level of functioning [11].

The annual prevalence of ASD is constantly growing and in 2023 in the USA was found to be around 1 in 36 children and 1 in 45 adults [12], with a male-to-female ratio of 4.5-to-1 [13].

Many different factors have been identified that may make a child more likely to have ASD, including environmental, biological, and genetic factors [14]. Furthermore, risk factors were classified into prenatal, perinatal, and postnatal [15]. Scientific literature supports a multifactorial etiopathogenesis of autism with numerous genetic, epigenetic, metabolic, neurotransmitter, and molecular data [16,17]. Recently, the hypothesis of intestinal dysbiosis has received great interest, especially for some symptoms of autism [18,19].

Although there are currently no approved medications for the treatment of ASD, psychiatric medications are commonly used in patients with ASD particularly for comorbid conditions [20,21]. Past literature has shown that psychiatric drugs are used in one-third of children and two-thirds of adolescents [22]. However, the effectiveness and tolerability of psychotropic medications are often questionable [23] and many times drugs are overdosed resulting in numerous side effects [24]. New instrumental therapies are demonstrating efficacy in the treatment of pathological conditions associated with ASD [25].

Given the questionable efficacy of pharmacological interventions, integration with psychosocial, educational, and rehabilitative interventions appears fundamental [26]. Furthermore, the association of pharmacological therapies with behavioral interventions is reported to be effective in improving functioning [27]. Since the publication of Lovaas' work [28], numerous enabling approaches have followed one another with differences in settings, environment, and procedures with multiple evidence in addressing the core impairments of ASD [29,30,31]. A recently published narrative review summarized the numerous rehabilitation interventions and treatment models for ASD that have been proposed over the years [32]. An often-forgotten aspect of rehabilitative approaches is the personal talents of people with autism, which are remarkably useful in the acquisition of new skills [33].

Cognitive-behavioral therapy appears to be fundamental for the psychotherapeutic aspects, characterized by numerous evidence in improving independence and in the acquisition of new daily living skills [34,35,36]. Finally, family members appear to have a key role in the enabling aspects [37].

Methods

A literature search was conducted on major databases to find useful studies for the aim of this paper.

DISCUSSION

Past literature highlighted numerous conditions and disorders more frequently associated with people with autism than in the general population. Still, in the present paper, the authors want to focus on genetic, neurological, gastrointestinal,

respiratory, cardiovascular, renal and urinary, hormonal and metabolic, inflammatory, immune, autoimmune, and allergic disorders (Figure 1).

Genetic Disorders

Registry studies in Denmark identified a highly significant increase in the frequency of congenital malformations in people with autism with 11.9% having one or more disorders [38]. Linkage studies have identified several candidate genes of promise related to ASD, but approximately only 15% of individuals with autism will be found to have an identifiable genetic diagnosis [39]. On the other hand, autistic symptoms can often be a behavioral manifestation of genetic pathologies (called syndromic autism). Moreover, some genetic disorders are more common in children with ASD than in the general population, such as Fragile X Syndrome (FSX), Rett-Syndrome, Tuberous sclerosis complex, Down Syndrome, Duchenne muscular dystrophy and neurofibromatosis type I (NF1) [40,41,42,43]. Among these, FSX is the most frequent genetic disorder comorbid with ASD and has been reported in approximately 3% of children with ASD. Furthermore, about 25-33% of FSX patients have a diagnosis of ASD [44].

Neurological Disorders

Past literature has shown that people with autism have a higher rate than the normal population of being affected by neurological pathologies such as epilepsy, macrocephaly, hydrocephalus, cerebral palsy, and congenital abnormalities of the nervous system. [45]. Epilepsy is the most common neurological comorbidity in autism. Data show that between 10 and 30% of children with autism also have a diagnosis of epilepsy. Moreover, up to 60% of children with autism have abnormal electroencephalogram (EEG), compared with 7% in controls [46]. These high percentages of comorbidity have led researchers to investigate a probable common etiopathogenetic mechanism between the two conditions [47]. Furthermore, the risk of developing epilepsy in children with ASD increases with the presence of intellectual disability and with female gender. Children with ASD and Intellectual Disability (ID) present a risk of epilepsy at about 50% compared to 21% of children with only ID [48,49]. Alterations of sympathetic/parasympathetic balance are commonly present in people with autism. They can present clinically with changes in heart rate, blood pressure, atypical pupillary light reflex, elevated plasma levels of nor-epinephrine, and respiratory arrhythmia [50]. Other neurological signs and symptoms that often characterize people with autism are motor disturbances such as toe-walking [51], repetitive behaviors, motor-coordination difficulties, deficit in performance in manual, posture, strength [52,53], and sensory processing alterations [54,55].

Gastrointestinal Disorders

Gastrointestinal (GI) disorders are very common in individuals with ASD, affecting between 46% and 84% of autistic children [56]. Precisely because of these high percentages, the new etiopathogenetic concept of the microbiota-gut-brain axis is emerging with ever greater weight, with related neuroinflammatory and immune implications [57]. The most common GI problems reported by past literature are represented by constipation, chronic diarrhea, gastroesophageal reflux, nausea and vomiting, chronic flatulence, abdominal pain, inflammatory bowel disease, and food intolerance [58]. Between 20% and 25% of children with ASD reported food allergies [59]. Abdominal pain, often unrecognized by doctors due to the poor verbal expressiveness of autistics, can lead to behavioral crises and self-injurious behaviors or a worsening of such behaviors [60,61]. The literature has also positively correlated the presence of severe GI symptoms with the symptomatic severity of autism [62].

Respiratory Disorders

The prevalence of respiratory disorders in people with ASD

remains to date largely unstudied. Sleep-related breathing disorders, such as snoring or apnea are commonly reported more widely reported in autism than in typically developing children [63,64]. The electronic dataset reported more upper respiratory signs, ear infections, and otitis media with effusion [65,66]. The association of asthma and ASD has represented a particular field of interest. In the USA, the National Survey of Children's Health dataset demonstrated a higher prevalence of asthma and respiratory allergy among children with ASD [67,68].

Cardiovascular Disorders

Regarding cardiovascular (CDV) and cardiometabolic aspects, a recent meta-analysis has highlighted that people with autism have a higher risk than people without autism of developing diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemia, hypertension, and atherosclerotic heart disease [69]. Furthermore, a study showed that 87.3% of autistic adults self-reported a diagnosis of at least one CVD risk factor, such as diabetes, high cholesterol, high blood pressure, and overweight or obesity, and that 4.4% of autistic adults reported all four [70]. On the other hand, having congenital heart disease (CHD) is associated with almost double the odds of ASD compared with patients without CHD [71]. Some authors have hypothesized that autism and congenital heart disease could share common genetic and molecular aspects [72].

Renal and Urinary Disorders

There is emerging evidence that ASD and kidney disease have some overlaps with genetic copy number variants and environmental factors contributing to shared pathogenesis [73], but prevalence rates are currently not known. A recent paper identified 25.4% of adults with ASD affected by chronic kidney disease (CKD) [74]. Kidney disease and ASD can be seen to co-exist in many multisystem genetic disorders such as Tuberous Sclerosis also characterized by the presence of renal angiomyolipomata and cystic kidney disease. Moreover, the TSHZ3 heterozygous gene deletion at 19q12-13.11 is described in the literature to be associated with congenital kidney conditions with ASD [75]. Children with ASD have higher rates of bladder dysfunction with increased rates of nocturnal enuresis and daytime urinary incontinence compared with controls. They often take longer to achieve urinary continence and present with urinary symptoms of urgency [76]. For these reasons, the American Academy of Pediatrics recommended renal screening for ASD from infancy.

Hormonal and Metabolic Disorders

One aspect to take into consideration, especially in adolescents with autism is the hormonal changes typical of this period of life, which often determine behavioral changes. Hormonal changes may be reflected in early puberty, accelerated or reduced physical growth, and/or behavioral changes associated with menstrual pain. Congenital adrenal hyperplasia should also be considered [77,78]. Steroid and thyroid hormone alterations are often present with disruption of the hypothalamic pituitary-adrenal-thyroid (HP-AT) axis [79]. Moreover, obesity represents a growing concern in people with autism because of the use of food reinforcers as part of a behavioral program, the preference for carbohydrates shown by many ASD people, the use of pharmacological treatments, and the lack of physical exercise and activity [80].

The prevalence of metabolic and endocrinological disorders in ASD people is still largely unknown. The factors that contribute to metabolic alterations can be both genetic and non-genetic. In addition, epigenetic factors, such as deficiencies in zinc, calcium, and iron, are fundamental in modulating the metabolic profile [81]. Autistic features have been commonly observed in several metabolic disorders such as phenylketonuria, creatine deficiency syndromes, urea

cycle disorders, Wilson's disease, and Lesch-Nyhan syndrome [82,83,84]. Smith-Lemli-Opitz syndrome (SLOS) is another metabolic disorder that has been frequently associated with features of ASD [85]. It has been estimated that 50% to 75% of individuals with SLOS may meet the criteria for ASD. Furthermore, mitochondrial dysfunction may play a role in at least a subset of individuals with ASD [86] and can manifest with facial hypotonia, speech delay, epilepsy, etc. Mitochondrial dysfunctions could also result from various risk factors, including toxins, immune stimulation, drugs, metabolic abnormalities, increased production of reactive oxygen species, mast cell degranulation, etc. [87]. Some authors reported decreased oxytocin plasma levels in children with ASD [88,89]. Moreover, since oxytocin has been associated with bone mineral density score, Neumeyer et al. showed decreased bone mineralization in boys with ASD compared to controls [90,91].

Inflammatory, immune, autoimmune, and allergic disorders

Elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines characterizing a chronic inflammation profile have been observed in individuals with ASD [92], which has led to the hypothesis of a role for the inflammasome in the etiopathogenesis of autism [93]. Higher pro-inflammatory cytokine levels have been associated with communication deficits and aberrant behavior [94]. Moreover, TNF-alpha concentrations have been positively correlated with the severity of ASD symptoms [95]. Post-mortem studies demonstrated increased microglial activation in the fronto-insular cortex, visual cortex, and cerebellum in ASD people [96,97]. These findings represent data of considerable importance since macrophages participate in synaptic pruning during normal neurodevelopment, mechanisms implicated in the etiopathogenesis of autism [98]. Alterations in natural killer (NK) cell activity have also been reported in ASD [99]. Data in the literature show that approximately 25% of children with autism have immune dysfunction [100]. Many studies demonstrated a high incidence of autoimmune disorders in ASD and direct associations between serum levels of autoantibodies and the severity of autistic symptoms [101,102,103]. Furthermore, a family history of autoimmune diseases is significantly higher in autistic children than in the general population [104]. Some studies have demonstrated the link between genes that predispose to immunological disorders and the risk of developing autism [105,106,107]. Food and inhalant allergies, including atopic diseases, and food intolerances are common findings in autism [108]. Children affected by mast cell activation syndrome appear to have a rate of autism ten times higher than the general population [109]. These data have given rise to the hypothesis that excessive mast cell activation could be a pathogenic mechanism in autism [110].

Finally, additional medical conditions that merit more attention by physicians include pain conditions such as headaches, migraine, dental, and abdominal pain.



Figure 1. Medical Comorbidities in Autism Spectrum Disorder

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CONCLUSIONS

Some characteristic symptoms of autism may be exacerbated by comorbid medical conditions that often go unrecognized and undiagnosed and may result in an atypical presentation of symptoms. Furthermore, there is little data in the literature on prevalence, clinical presentation, effective treatment modalities and prognostic data. Indeed, since many medical comorbidities are treatable, recognition of many of these conditions and subsequent appropriate treatment may result in improved quality of life for individuals with autism and possibly improved developmental trajectories in children. Finally, given the increased risk of mortality associated with autism, recognizing and treating associated medical conditions appears essential to lead a healthy and long-lived life. Based on what is stated in this article, it appears crucial that future research accounts for medical symptoms in people with autism.

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