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快眼动睡眠调节机制及影响药物

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摘要 探究快眼动(rapid eye movement, REM)睡眠调节机制及影响药物。本文从调控 REM 睡眠的神经环路出发,总结了脑桥、延髓、下丘脑中调控 REM 睡眠的相关核团,并且归纳了各类影响 REM 睡眠的药物,例如:选择性去甲肾上腺素再摄取抑制剂和选择性 5-羟色胺(5-hydroxytryptamine, 5-HT)再摄取抑制剂等,其作用机制可归纳为减少突触部位去甲肾上腺素、5-HT 的降解,延长神经递质的作用时间;减少突触前膜再摄取,使突触间隙中递质作用时间延长,相对提高去甲肾上腺素、5-HT 神经元的兴奋性。

关键词 抗抑郁药;快眼动睡眠;神经环路

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人生约三分之一的时间在睡眠中度过,充足的睡眠是保持身体健康的基础。没有足够的睡眠,人们容易产生注意力、记忆和认知障碍。几个世纪以来,睡眠产生与维持的功能和机制一直受到科学家们的关注。随着脑电图(electroencephalogram, EEG)和肌电图(electromyogram, EMG)记

录的发展,根据 EEG 和 EMG 的变化,睡眠状态可分为快眼动(rapid eye movement, REM)睡眠和非快眼动(Non-REM, NREM)睡眠。NREM 睡眠的特点是慢波和肌张力降低,而 REM 睡眠的特点则是快速脑电活动和肌张力完全丧失^[1-3],被认为是一种更接近清醒的皮层状态。

REM 睡眠只出现在哺乳动物中,特别是幼年阶段^[4]。REM 睡眠的主要特征如下:(1)海马 θ 波(持续时间为 0.125 ~ 0.25 s 的一种脑电波成分)振荡,它是啮齿类动物 REM 睡眠的标志^[5];(2)脑桥-膝状体-枕叶皮层波,该皮层波是脑干、脑桥、背外侧膝状体及枕叶皮质产生的场电位,并标志 REM 睡眠的启动^[6];(3)肌张力消失,是一种活性抑制的表现,主要原因在于抑制性神经递质 γ -氨基丁酸(γ -aminobutyric acid, GABA)和甘氨酸水平的升高^[7]。

1 REM 睡眠调控的神经环路

1953 年, Kleitman 和 Aserinsky 首次在人类婴儿身上发现,活跃的睡眠期以快速眼球运动为特征,这些活跃的睡眠期与静止的睡眠期交替出现。几年后, Kleitman 和 Dement 发现,人类成年人的这些快速眼球运动与特定的脑电波模式有关,而做梦发生在睡眠期间,伴随着快速眼球运动^[7]。在此之后不久, Jouvet 对猫进行了 REM 睡眠的研究,结果表明,猫和人类一样,经历着眼球快速运动的时期,伴随着肌肉张力的丧失、肌肉抽搐和类似觉醒的皮质活动^[8]。

REM 睡眠也包含其他生理和行为特征,例如振幅降低和更快频率的皮质脑电图,海马脑电图有高振幅 θ 波,对骨骼肌活动的抑制,间歇性肌肉抽搐,自主神经和呼吸系统的激活,体温的波动,以及较高的唤醒阈值^[9]。由于 REM 睡眠的特征

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是一种类似醒来的脑电图模式,并伴有骨骼运动弛缓,所以当提到这种行为状态时,一些科学家更倾向称之为主动睡眠^[10]。虽然长久以来一直被认为是一种神秘的行为状态,但在过去的几十年里科学家们努力理解 REM 睡眠的生物学功能^[11],并且深入研究了 REM 睡眠调控的解剖环路和突触基础^[12-13]。例如,在 REM 睡眠期间,海马神经活动对记忆巩固起着至关重要的作用^[14],一个由大脑环路和无数神经调节器组成的分布式网络控制着 REM 睡眠的时间以及它的标志性特征^[15-16]。然而,当 REM 睡眠出现异常时也会引起众多疾病。接下来本文将详细分析 REM 睡眠调控的神经环路及相关病变。

1.1 脑桥调节 REM 睡眠

1.1.1 脑桥 REM 睡眠促进核团 研究发现,脚桥被盖核 (pedunculopontine tegmental nucleus, PPT)/被盖背外侧核 (laterodorsal tegmental nucleus, LDT) 胆碱能神经元是脑桥产生 REM 睡眠的关键核团。Kubin 等发现,在猫脑桥区域微量注射乙酰胆碱激动剂氯化氨甲酰胆碱引起了长时间的 REM 睡眠样状态^[17]。因此,PPT/LDT 胆碱能神经元在启动和维持 REM 睡眠中发挥重要作用。

近几年,也有实验证明局部损毁背外侧底核 (sublateral dorsal nucleus, SLD) 谷氨酸能神经元会导致 REM 睡眠时肌张力消失出现障碍,与 REM 睡眠障碍综合征 (REM sleep behavior disorder, RBD) 的表现相似。如果 SLD 的损毁延伸到 LDT 等区域,也会缩短 REM 睡眠的片段并减少 REM 睡眠总量^[18]。因此,SLD 是 REM 睡眠期肌张力消失的关键调控区域,并且它可能连同附近区域共同调控 REM 睡眠的产生。

1.1.2 脑桥 REM 睡眠抑制核团 蓝斑 (locus coeruleus, LC) 的去甲肾上腺素能和背侧中缝核 (dorsal raphe nuclei, DRN) 的 5-羟色胺能神经元,在觉醒时活性很高,但在 REM 睡眠期间活性却很低。LC 向 SLD 有神经纤维投射,在 SLD 局部应用去甲肾上腺素抑制 REM 睡眠期活跃神经元,从而抑制 REM 睡眠^[19]。此外,Luebke 等应用膜片钳记录发现去甲肾上腺素与 5-羟色胺能够抑制 PPT/LDT 胆碱能神经元活性,从而抑制 REM 睡眠^[20]。另有研究发现吻内侧被盖核 GABA 能神经元激活后抑制 REM 睡眠^[21]。因此,LC、DRN 及吻内侧被盖核在抑制 REM 睡眠方面发挥重要

作用。

中脑导水管周围灰质腹外侧部 (ventrolateral periaqueductal gray matter, vIPAG), 含有另一群抑制 REM 睡眠的神经元^[22]。Dan 等发现激活小鼠 vIPAG 中 GABA 能神经元在巩固 NREM 睡眠的同时抑制了 REM 睡眠的启动和维持,大多数 vIPAG 中 GABA 能神经元在 REM 睡眠开始时受到强烈抑制,并在其终止时被激活^[23]。因此,vIPAG 区的 GABA 能神经元抑制 REM 睡眠的启动和维持,其机制可能与其通过 GABA 能投射抑制 SLD 的作用相关。

1.2 延髓网状结构调节 REM 睡眠 延髓腹内侧区 (ventromedial medulla, VMM) 对 REM 睡眠时肌张力消失是至关重要的^[24]。应用神经毒素损毁该区域,则会导致 REM 睡眠期间与运动行为相关的肌张力增加。

此外,延髓神经元可能通过抑制 REM 睡眠抑制神经元如 LC、DRN 和 vIPAG 来促进 REM 睡眠。在 REM 睡眠时,延髓类巨细胞背侧核和外侧核的 GABA 能神经元投射到 LC 和 vIPAG,抑制这些神经元的递质释放,从而促进了 REM 睡眠^[25]。

1.3 下丘脑调节 REM 睡眠 下丘脑 REM 睡眠活跃神经元位于腹外侧视前区 (ventrolateral pre-optic area, VLPO) 的背侧和内侧,主要是 GABA 能神经元。1996 年,Sherrin 等发现 VLPO 在睡眠时有表示神经元活性的 c-Fos 蛋白大量表达^[26]。并且,VLPO 中的细胞同时支配 DRN、LC 和 vIPAG,提示 VLPO 可能通过抑制脑干 REM 睡眠抑制神经元来促进 REM 睡眠,证明 VLPO 在睡眠中发挥了重要的作用。

下丘脑中另一组促进 REM 睡眠的神经元分散在外侧下丘脑 (lateral hypothalamus, LH), 并产生神经肽黑色素浓缩激素 (melanin concentration hormone, MCH)。这些位于 LH 的 MCH 神经元通过支配 SLD, 促进 REM 睡眠的发生^[27]。有趣的是,Akihiro 等发现下丘脑 MCH 神经元在 REM 睡眠中对遗忘起积极作用,激活或抑制 MCH 神经元可损害或改善海马依赖性记忆^[28],这也佐证了 MCH 神经元在调控 REM 睡眠以及海马依赖性记忆方面发挥重要作用。

REM 睡眠调节的主要核团和神经环路总结如图 1。

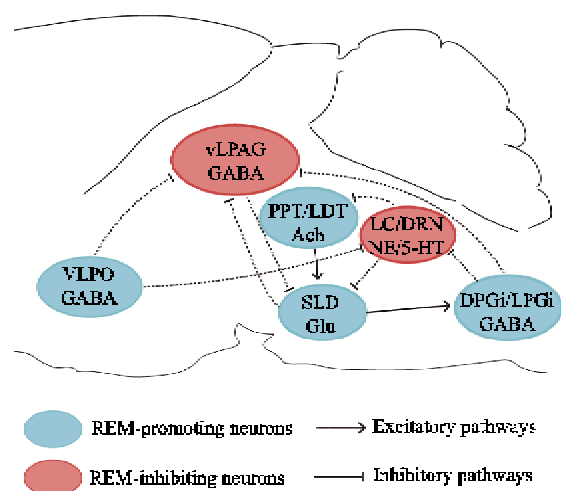


Fig. 1 Summary of the major nuclei and neural circuits involved in REM sleep regulation

Ach; Acetylcholine; DPGi; Dorsal paragigantocellular nucleus; DRN; Dorsal raphe nucleus; GABA; γ -aminobutyric acid; Glu; Glutamate; LC; Locus coeruleus; LDT; Laterodorsal tegmental nucleus; LP-Gi; Lateral paragigantocellular nucleus; NE; Noradrenaline; PPT; Pedunculopontine tegmental nucleus; SLD; Sublateral dorsal nucleus; vLPAG; Ventrolateral periaqueductal gray matter; VLPO; Ventrolateral preoptic area; 5-HT; 5-hydroxytryptamine.

2 影响 REM 睡眠的药物

研究发现抑郁症时常伴有 REM 睡眠障碍,应用抗抑郁药物通常会对 REM 睡眠产生影响。目前常用的抗抑郁药物有:三环类抗抑郁药、单胺氧化酶抑制剂、选择性去甲肾上腺素再摄取抑制剂、选择性 5-羟色胺再摄取抑制剂和 5-羟色胺/去甲肾上腺素再摄取抑制剂等。下面将具体介绍各种抗抑郁药物对 REM 睡眠的影响。

三环类抗抑郁药有:阿米替林^[29]、氯丙嗪^[30]等。对 6 名接受阿米替林治疗的抑郁症住院患者进行 EEG 记录发现,阿米替林可以抑制 REM 睡眠,延长 REM 睡眠起病潜伏期。但在停药后一段时间内会出现 REM 睡眠反弹^[29]。然而,伴有重度抑郁的患者在服用阿米替林 6 周以后可以很好地抑制 REM 睡眠,并且不会出现 REM 睡眠反弹现象^[29]。与阿米替林的治疗结果类似,氯丙嗪治疗伴有重度抑郁的患者时,也没有出现 REM 睡眠反弹的现象^[30]。然而,实验发现对于健康成人使用氯丙嗪时,除去对于 REM 睡眠的抑制还出现了 NREM 睡眠减少、觉醒增加等现象^[30]。

单胺氧化酶抑制剂,如:苯乙肼^[31]、反苯环丙

胺^[32]等。对 3 名长期服用苯乙肼治疗的抑郁症患者进行调查发现,在用药初期苯乙肼可以发挥抑制 REM 睡眠的效果,在治疗几周后可完全抑制 REM 睡眠,但治疗时间到达 3~6 个月时,开始出现 REM 睡眠反弹等现象。在治疗过程中对 NREM 睡眠没有影响^[31]。反苯环丙胺是目前治疗双向抑郁的新选择。对多名患者治疗情况分析,发现应用反苯环丙胺治疗可有效减少 REM 睡眠时间,但在一定程度上会减少总睡眠时间^[32]。

选择性去甲肾上腺素再摄取抑制剂,如:地昔帕明等^[33]。对 17 名抑郁症患者的调查发现,地昔帕明治疗抑郁症的过程可以抑制 REM 睡眠、扰乱睡眠连续性^[34]。近期研究发现,地昔帕明可以减少与睡眠相关的上呼吸道扩张肌活动的丧失,并减少气道塌陷。这些数据为阻塞性睡眠呼吸暂停的新药物治疗提供了理论基础^[33,35]。

选择性 5-羟色胺再摄取抑制剂,如:帕罗西汀^[36]、氟西汀^[37-38]、苯吡烯胺^[39]。重度抑郁症患者服用帕罗西汀 4 周以后,REM 睡眠时间显著下降^[40]。对多名服用氟西汀的重度抑郁症患者的调查发现,氟西汀与帕罗西汀对于 REM 睡眠的抑制作用相似,但随着氟西汀治疗时间的增加它对睡眠连续性的影响也逐渐暴露^[41]。对于使用苯吡烯胺作为治疗抑郁症的患者,统计结果显示,虽然 REM 睡眠时间下降,但是服药期间睡眠连续性没有改善甚至变差^[42]。乳腺癌幸存者激素治疗,通常引起更年期症状,包括潮红和睡眠障碍。近年来,帕罗西汀已被美国食品和药物管理局批准为治疗热潮红和随之而来的睡眠障碍的药物^[43]。这些数据为开发帕罗西汀等选择性 5-羟色胺再摄取抑制剂的新用途提供了依据。

5-羟色胺/去甲肾上腺素再摄取抑制剂,如:文拉法辛^[44]、杜洛西汀^[45]。文拉法辛能够有效地抑制抑郁症患者 REM 睡眠时间,可能是这类药物中最强的 REM 睡眠抑制剂^[46]。伴有重度抑郁的患者,服用杜洛西汀 14 d 后可以减少 REM 睡眠时间,同时增加 NREM 睡眠时间^[45]。焦虑或抑郁症患者在服用杜洛西汀、氟西汀等 5-羟色胺和/或去甲肾上腺素再摄取抑制剂后会产生睡眠磨牙症^[37],服用阿米替林可以成功缓解此症状^[47]。阿米替林抑制 REM 睡眠的同时,对睡眠中发生的异常运动也有不错的疗效,这些数据对睡眠磨牙症的治疗提供了理论依据。

总体来说,抗抑郁药对 REM 睡眠产生的影响已成为不可争辩的事实,但近几年的研究发现这些药物还存在其他的用途,有些已经作为其他疾病的治疗药物在临床中广为应用。对于睡眠而言,上述抗抑郁药物通过延长 REM 睡眠潜伏期、减少 REM 睡眠时间和次数来抑制 REM 睡眠。当然,这些药物对 REM 睡眠的影响也有各自的特点。大多数抗抑郁药物停药几周后,REM 睡眠反弹非常常见^[48]。去甲替林对 REM 睡眠有抑制作用,如增加 REM 睡眠潜伏期,缩短 REM 睡眠时间,但停药后 REM 睡眠反弹幅度甚至高于之前^[48]。虽然大多数抗抑郁药对 REM 睡眠有抑制作用,但有些抗抑郁药没有这种作用,甚至有相反

的作用。许多研究表明,低剂量的曲米帕明并不具有抑制 REM 睡眠的作用^[49],甚至有一项研究得出结论,曲米帕明可以增强 REM 睡眠^[50],这在三环类抗抑郁药中是一个例外。

除抗抑郁药物可以对 REM 睡眠产生影响外,治疗癫痫的药物,如普拉克索等,也可以对 REM 睡眠产生影响。已有实验证明,普拉克索与氯硝西洋联合用药可以增加 REM 睡眠^[51]。

综上所述,对 REM 睡眠产生影响的药物种类繁多。大多治疗神经系统疾病的药物,一般都会对 REM 睡眠产生一定的影响。不同抗抑郁药对 REM 睡眠影响的比较总结如 Tab. 1。

Tab. 1 Summary of the effects of different antidepressants on REM sleep

Antidepressants	Design	Subjects	n	Doses (per day)	Duration	Changes of Polysomnography
Tricyclic antidepressants						
Amitriptyline ^[29]	EEG recording before, during and after treatment	Depressed inpatients	6		370 nights	Suppressed REM sleep; A REM sleep rebound after treatment
	Double-blind randomized trial	Patients with MDD	30	100-225 mg	6 weeks	Suppressed REM sleep
Clomipramine ^[30]	EEG recording before and after treatment	Healthy man	1	100 mg	1 month	Suppressed REM sleep; A REM sleep rebound after withdrawal; Increased wakefulness; Decreased NREM sleep
	EEG recording after total sleep deprivation and treatment afterwards	Patients with MDD			19 days	Suppressed REM sleep
Trimipramine ^[50]	Double-blind trial	Depressed patients with insomnia and anxiety	30	75-200 mg	4 weeks	Improvement in sleep disturbances; Increased REM sleep in some cases
	Double-blind trial	Male patients with MDD	20	50-250 mg	4 weeks	Increased REM sleep and NREM sleep
Monoamine-oxidase inhibitors						
Phenelzine ^[31]	Open-label trial	Patients with MDD	11	30-90 mg	5 weeks	Suppressed REM sleep; Increased stage 2 NREM sleep
	EEG recording before and after treatment	Depressed patients	3		18 months	Suppressed REM sleep Initially; A REM sleep rebound after 3 to 6 months of medication;

Continued from Tab. 1

Antidepressants	Design	Subjects	n	Doses (per day)	Duration	Changes of Polysomnography
Tranylcypromine ^[32]	EEG recording before and after treatment	Patients with anergic bipolar depression	23	37 mg (average)		No change of NREM sleep Suppressed REM sleep; Decreased total sleep time
Selective 5-HT reuptake inhibitors						
Paroxetine ^[36]	Double-blind randomized trial	Patients with MDD	40	30 mg	4 weeks for treatment	Suppressed REM sleep
Fluoxetine ^[37-38]	Double-blind trial	Patients with MDD	34	60 mg	42 days for treatment	Suppressed REM sleep; Disrupted sleep continuity
5-HT/NE reuptake inhibitors						
Venlafaxine ^[44]	Double-blind trial	Depressed patients	24	225 mg	29 days	Decreased sleep continuity Suppressed REM sleep
Duloxetine ^[45]	EEG recording before and after treatment	Patients with MDD	10	60 mg	14 days	Increased stage 3 NREM sleep; Suppressed REM sleep
Selective NE reuptake inhibitors						
Desipramine ^[33]	Double-blind trial	Depressed patients	17	150 mg	28 days	Worsened sleep continuity; Suppressed REM sleep

EEG; Electroencephalogram; NE; Noradrenaline; NREM sleep; Non-REM sleep; REM sleep; Rapid eye movement sleep; 5-HT; 5-hydroxytryptamine.

3 结论

本文就调控 REM 睡眠的神经环路及其病变后产生的疾病与治疗方案略作综述。近年来该领域的研究令人兴奋,成果颇多。但仍有不足之处,其机制的研究与临床的应用需进一步发展。

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Regulation of REM sleep: Basic mechanisms and clinical drugs

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ABSTRACT To explore the mechanism of rapid eye movement (REM) sleep regulation and the drugs that affect it. This article summarizes the relevant nuclei regulating REM sleep in the pontine, medulla, and hypothalamus starting from the neural circuit that regulates REM sleep. Drugs that affect REM sleep, such as selective norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors and selective 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) reuptake inhibitors, etc. The mechanism of action can be summarized as reducing the degrada-

tion of norepinephrine and 5-HT of synaptic sites, prolonging the action time of neurotransmitters, reducing the reuptake of presynaptic membrane, prolonging the action time of transmitters in the synaptic space, and relatively increasing norepinephrine and 5-HT neurons excitement.

KEYWORDS antidepressants; rapid eye movement sleep; neural circuits

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