

Mini Review

Pharmacological Treatments for Sleep Apnea: A Mini Review

Nimit Khara^{1*}, Gopal Raval², Anagha Apte¹, Yagnang Vyas³, Dhaval Prajapati¹, Ravish Kshatriya⁴ and Sateesh Patel¹

¹Shree Krishna Hospital, Pramukhswami Medical College, Bhaikaka University, Anand, India

²PhD Student, Gujarat University, Ahmedabad, Gujarat, India

³Dr. N.D. Desai Faculty of Medical Science and Research, Dharmsinh Desai University, Nadiad, India

⁴Parul Institute of Medical Sciences and Research, Parul University, Vadodra, India

***Corresponding author**

Nimit Khara, Shree Krishna Hospital, Pramukhswami Medical College, Bhaikaka University, Anand, India

Submitted: 17 July, 2024

Accepted: 28 August, 2024

Published: 31 August, 2024

ISSN: 2379-0822

Copyright

© 2024 Khara N, et al.

OPEN ACCESS

Abstract

Sleep apnea, a common yet serious sleep disorder, leads to repeated episodes of airway obstruction during sleep, causing reduced oxygen intake and significant sleep disruption. Traditional treatments such as Positive Airway Pressure (PAP) devices, oral appliances, and surgical interventions are well-established; however, pharmacological treatments are gaining increasing attention. This review explores current and emerging pharmacological therapies for sleep apnea, including respiratory stimulants, serotonergic agents, opioid antagonists, and sedative-hypnotics. Respiratory stimulants such as theophylline, acetazolamide, and doxapram aim to enhance neural drive to upper airway muscles, while serotonergic agents like SSRIs and SNRIs modulate serotonin to improve respiratory control. Opioid antagonists counteract respiratory-depressant effects, and sedative-hypnotics may promote sleep despite their controversial role in respiratory function.

Emerging treatments include cannabinoids like dronabinol, antihypertensive medications, and novel agents such as oxybutynin and atomoxetine. These therapies target unique mechanisms to improve airway patency and respiratory stability. Additionally, other innovative treatments like solriamfetol and pitolisant are being investigated for their potential to reduce excessive daytime sleepiness associated with sleep apnea. Despite promising developments, the long-term efficacy and safety of pharmacological treatments require further research. Personalized medicine and combination therapies may enhance treatment outcomes. This comprehensive review underscores the evolving landscape of pharmacological management for sleep apnea, highlighting the need for individualized, multidisciplinary approaches to optimize patient care and improve quality of life.

INTRODUCTION

Sleep apnea, a pervasive and potentially serious sleep disorder, manifests through recurrent episodes of partial or complete airway obstruction during sleep, leading to diminished oxygen intake and significant sleep disruption. This condition is intricately linked to substantial morbidity, including cardiovascular diseases, metabolic disorders, and impaired daytime functioning. While traditional treatment modalities such as Positive Airway Pressure (PAP) devices, oral appliances, and surgical interventions have established their efficacy, the pharmacological management of sleep apnea is emerging as a compelling frontier in sleep medicine. This extensive review delves into the current and emerging pharmacological treatments for sleep apnea, enriched by the latest research, clinical guidelines, and expert recommendations.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND RISK FACTORS OF SLEEP APNEA

Obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) is the most common type of sleep apnea, characterized by the collapse of the upper

airway during sleep. Understanding the complex mechanisms underlying OSA is vital for developing effective pharmacological interventions. The pathophysiology of OSA involves a confluence of anatomical, neuromuscular, genetic, and environmental factors.

Anatomical and Neuromuscular Factors

The anatomical predispositions to OSA include obesity, particularly central obesity, which increases fat deposition around the neck and upper airway structures. Craniofacial abnormalities such as retrognathia, a narrow hard palate, and enlarged tonsils or adenoids significantly contribute to airway obstruction. Neuromuscular factors involve the inadequate activation of the pharyngeal dilator muscles during sleep, leading to airway collapse [1-3].

Genetic and Environmental Factors

Genetic predisposition plays a pivotal role, as evidenced by familial clustering of OSA cases. Environmental factors, such

as alcohol consumption, smoking, and the use of sedatives, exacerbate the condition by affecting muscle tone and respiratory control [4].

Comorbidities

OSA is frequently associated with comorbid conditions, including hypertension, type 2 diabetes, and cardiovascular diseases, which not only increase the risk of developing OSA but also complicate its management. These comorbidities underscore the necessity of a multidisciplinary approach in treating sleep apnea [5].

CURRENT PHARMACOLOGICAL TREATMENTS FOR SLEEP APNEA

Pharmacological treatments for sleep apnea aim to enhance respiratory control, bolster upper airway muscle tone, and diminish the frequency and severity of apnea events. The primary classes of medications investigated for these purposes include respiratory stimulants, serotonergic agents, opioid antagonists, and sedative-hypnotics.

Respiratory Stimulants

Respiratory stimulants aim to augment the neural drive to the upper airway muscles, thereby reducing the likelihood of airway collapse during sleep. Medications such as theophylline, acetazolamide, and doxapram have been studied for their potential to improve respiratory control and mitigate the severity of sleep-disordered breathing [6].

Theophylline

Theophylline, a phosphodiesterase inhibitor, has been explored for its respiratory stimulant properties. Some studies suggest modest improvements in the Apnea-Hypopnea Index (AHI), but the risk of side effects such as insomnia, nausea, and cardiac arrhythmias restricts its use [7,8]. Theophylline works by increasing the levels of cyclic AMP, leading to bronchodilation and enhanced diaphragmatic contractility. Despite its potential benefits, the therapeutic window for theophylline is narrow, and its use is complicated by numerous drug interactions and side effects [9].

Acetazolamide

Acetazolamide, a carbonic anhydrase inhibitor, induces metabolic acidosis, thereby stimulating respiration. Although some clinical trials have reported improvements in sleep-disordered breathing, the potential for side effects such as paresthesia, gastrointestinal disturbances, and electrolyte imbalances necessitates caution [10,11]. Acetazolamide has been shown to lower the Apnea-Hypopnea Index (AHI) in patients with central sleep apnea by promoting a mild metabolic acidosis, which stimulates ventilation. However, its efficacy in obstructive sleep apnea remains less clear, and further studies are warranted [12].

Doxapram

Doxapram is a respiratory stimulant that increases the sensitivity of peripheral chemoreceptors to CO₂, thus enhancing ventilation. While its application in sleep apnea has shown potential in reducing AHI, side effects such as hypertension, nausea, and anxiety limit its long-term viability [13,14]. Doxapram acts by stimulating carotid body chemoreceptors, leading to increased respiratory drive. Despite its efficacy in acute settings, the chronic use of doxapram for sleep apnea is limited by its side effect profile and lack of long-term data [15].

Serotonergic Agents

Serotonergic agents modulate the neurotransmitter serotonin and its effects on upper airway muscle tone and respiratory control. Medications such as Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors (SSRIs) and Serotonin-Norepinephrine Reuptake Inhibitors (SNRIs) have been investigated for their potential to improve sleep apnea symptoms.

SSRIs and SNRIs

SSRIs such as fluoxetine and paroxetine, and SNRIs such as venlafaxine, have been studied for their effects on reducing AHI and improving sleep quality. While some studies report benefits, the overall evidence remains inconclusive, and side effects such as headaches, nausea, and sexual dysfunction can impact patient adherence [16-18]. SSRIs and SNRIs are thought to enhance the tone of the upper airway muscles by increasing serotonin levels in the central nervous system. However, their clinical efficacy in sleep apnea has been variable, and further research is needed to identify patient subgroups that may benefit the most [19].

Opioid Antagonists

Opioid antagonists, such as naltrexone and naloxone, have been explored as potential pharmacological interventions for sleep apnea. The rationale behind the use of these medications is that they may counteract the respiratory-depressant effects of endogenous opioids, which have been implicated in the pathogenesis of sleep-disordered breathing.

Naltrexone and Naloxone

Clinical trials with opioid antagonists have yielded mixed results. Some studies report modest improvements in sleep apnea severity, but concerns about side effects, including nausea, vomiting, and withdrawal symptoms, limit their long-term viability [20,21]. Opioid antagonists work by blocking the effects of endogenous opioids on the central nervous system, which can reduce respiratory depression. However, their use in sleep apnea is still experimental, and more extensive studies are required to determine their safety and efficacy [22].

Sedative-Hypnotics

The use of sedative-hypnotic medications, such as benzodiazepines and non-benzodiazepine hypnotics, has also

been explored for the management of sleep apnea. The rationale behind this approach is that these medications may promote sleep and reduce the likelihood of upper airway collapse during sleep.

Benzodiazepines and Non-Benzodiazepine Hypnotics

Sedative-hypnotics like zolpidem and eszopiclone have been tested in OSA patients. However, their use is controversial as they can worsen respiratory function and exacerbate sleep-disordered breathing. Long-term use is associated with side effects such as daytime drowsiness, cognitive impairment, and an increased risk of falls [23,24]. Benzodiazepines enhance the inhibitory effects of Gamma-Aminobutyric Acid (GABA) in the central nervous system, leading to sedation. Non-benzodiazepine hypnotics, also known as “Z-drugs,” act on the same GABA receptors but with a different chemical structure. Despite their widespread use for insomnia, their role in sleep apnea treatment remains contentious due to their potential to aggravate respiratory events [25].

EMERGING PHARMACOLOGICAL TREATMENTS FOR SLEEP APNEA

Emerging pharmacological treatments focus on novel mechanisms of action and new therapeutic targets to improve the management of sleep apnea. Some of the most promising agents include cannabinoids, antihypertensive medications, and newer agents like oxybutynin and atomoxetine.

Cannabinoids

The potential therapeutic role of cannabinoids, such as dronabinol and nabilone, has been investigated for the management of sleep apnea. These medications are thought to modulate the endocannabinoid system, which may have beneficial effects on upper airway muscle tone and respiratory control.

Dronabinol and Nabilone

Several studies have reported promising results with cannabinoids, demonstrating the ability to reduce the severity of sleep apnea and improve sleep quality in some patients. However, the long-term safety and efficacy of these medications remain to be established, and their use may be limited by concerns about potential side effects, such as drowsiness, dizziness, and cognitive impairment [26,27]. Dronabinol, a synthetic form of delta-9-Tetrahydrocannabinol (THC), has been shown to reduce AHI in patients with moderate to severe OSA. The proposed mechanism involves the activation of CB1 receptors in the brainstem, which enhances respiratory stability [28].

Antihypertensive Medications

Another emerging area of pharmacological research in the treatment of sleep apnea involves the use of antihypertensive medications, such as Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme (ACE) inhibitors and Angiotensin II Receptor Blockers (ARBs).

ACE Inhibitors and ARBs

The rationale behind this approach is that these medications may reduce cardiovascular comorbidities associated with sleep apnea, as well as potentially improve upper airway function and reduce the severity of sleep-disordered breathing. Some studies have reported positive results, but further research is needed to better understand their potential mechanisms of action and long-term clinical benefits [29,30]. ACE inhibitors and ARBs reduce the production and effects of angiotensin II, a potent vasoconstrictor, which may improve airway patency by reducing inflammation and fibrosis in the upper airway tissues [31].

Oxybutynin and Atomoxetine

Recent trials have explored the use of oxybutynin, an anticholinergic agent, and atomoxetine, a norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor, in the treatment of sleep apnea. These medications target neuromuscular pathways that influence upper airway patency.

Oxybutynin and Atomoxetine

A study by Taranto-Montemurro, et al. [32] investigated the combination of oxybutynin and atomoxetine, demonstrating significant reductions in AHI and improvements in oxygen saturation levels. These findings suggest a promising new avenue for pharmacological treatment, although more extensive trials are needed to confirm efficacy and safety [32,33]. Oxybutynin works by inhibiting muscarinic receptors, thereby reducing parasympathetic tone and increasing upper airway muscle tone. Atomoxetine increases norepinephrine levels, which also enhances upper airway muscle tone and reduces collapsibility [34].

OTHER NOVEL THERAPIES

Solriamfetol

Solriamfetol, a dopamine and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor, has been approved for the treatment of excessive daytime sleepiness in patients with OSA. It improves wakefulness and cognitive function, but its effects on the underlying respiratory events of OSA are minimal [35].

Pitolisant

Pitolisant, a histamine H3 receptor antagonist/inverse agonist, has shown promise in reducing excessive daytime sleepiness in patients with OSA. It enhances wakefulness by increasing histamine release in the brain, although its impact on apnea severity is still under investigation [36].

REM Sleep Modulators

Medications that selectively target REM sleep mechanisms are being explored as potential treatments for OSA. By stabilizing REM sleep and reducing atonia, these agents may prevent the exacerbation of respiratory events during this sleep stage [37].

COMPARISON OF PHARMACOLOGICAL AND NON-PHARMACOLOGICAL TREATMENTS

Continuous Positive Airway Pressure (CPAP)

CPAP remains the gold standard for treating OSA. It works by providing a continuous stream of air through a mask, which keeps the airway open during sleep. Numerous studies have demonstrated its efficacy in reducing AHI, improving sleep quality, and mitigating the cardiovascular and metabolic consequences of OSA [38,39].

Efficacy of CPAP

CPAP has been shown to reduce AHI by more than 50% in most patients and improve daytime symptoms such as excessive sleepiness and impaired cognitive function. Long-term adherence to CPAP therapy is associated with reduced cardiovascular risk and improved quality of life [39,40]. CPAP is highly effective in patients who adhere to the therapy, with improvements seen in blood pressure control, glycemic regulation, and overall quality of life [41].

Limitations of CPAP

Despite its efficacy, CPAP adherence remains a significant challenge, with studies indicating that up to 50% of patients discontinue use within the first year. Common reasons for discontinuation include discomfort, nasal congestion, mask intolerance, and the perceived inconvenience of the device [39-41]. Efforts to improve adherence include heated humidification, mask fitting, and patient education, but challenges persist.

Oral Appliances

Oral appliances, such as mandibular advancement devices (MADs), are an alternative to CPAP for patients with mild to moderate OSA. These devices work by repositioning the lower jaw forward, thereby increasing the size of the upper airway and reducing airway collapse during sleep.

Efficacy of Oral Appliances

MADs have been shown to reduce AHI and improve symptoms in patients with mild to moderate OSA. While they are generally less effective than CPAP in reducing AHI, they have higher adherence rates due to their portability and ease of use. Studies suggest that MADs can be as effective as CPAP in patients with mild to moderate OSA, particularly in those who do not tolerate CPAP.

Limitations of Oral Appliances

The primary limitations of oral appliances include potential side effects such as temporomandibular joint discomfort, dental misalignment, and excessive salivation. Their effectiveness can also vary based on individual anatomical factors. Regular follow-up with dental professionals is essential to monitor and address these side effects.

Surgical Interventions

Surgical interventions, such as Uvulopalatopharyngoplasty (UPPP), Maxillomandibular Advancement (MMA), and hypoglossal nerve stimulation, are considered for patients who do not respond to or cannot tolerate CPAP and oral appliances.

Efficacy of Surgical Interventions

MMA is one of the most effective surgical treatments for OSA, with studies showing significant reductions in AHI and improvements in oxygen saturation. Hypoglossal nerve stimulation, a newer technique, has also shown promise in improving airway patency and reducing AHI. UPPP involves the removal of excess tissue from the throat to widen the airway, while MMA involves repositioning the upper and lower jaw to enlarge the airway space.

Limitations of Surgical Interventions

Surgical treatments carry risks such as postoperative pain, infection, and variable efficacy. Additionally, not all patients are candidates for surgery, and the long-term outcomes can vary. Patient selection and thorough preoperative evaluation are critical to optimize surgical outcomes.

GUIDELINES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

American Academy of Sleep Medicine (AASM)

The AASM provides comprehensive guidelines for the management of OSA, emphasizing the importance of individualized treatment plans. CPAP is recommended as the first-line treatment for moderate to severe OSA. For patients who cannot tolerate CPAP, alternatives such as oral appliances or surgical interventions are recommended.

European Respiratory Society (ERS)

The ERS guidelines echo the AASM recommendations, highlighting the role of CPAP as the cornerstone of OSA treatment. They also emphasize the importance of lifestyle modifications, such as weight loss and positional therapy, as adjunctive measures.

Recent Guidelines on Pharmacotherapy

While pharmacological treatments are not yet first-line therapies for OSA, recent guidelines suggest their use in specific patient populations, particularly those who cannot tolerate CPAP or have residual symptoms despite optimal CPAP use. The use of medications such as acetazolamide, theophylline, and novel agents like oxybutynin and atomoxetine is highlighted as an area of ongoing research.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND RESEARCH NEEDS

Personalized Medicine

The future of sleep apnea treatment lies in personalized

medicine, where genetic, anatomical, and physiological factors are used to tailor treatment plans. Pharmacogenomics could play a significant role in identifying patients who are likely to respond to specific pharmacological treatments. Advances in genetic testing and biomarker identification may enable the development of individualized treatment regimens that optimize efficacy and minimize side effects.

Long-Term Safety and Efficacy Studies

There is a need for long-term studies to evaluate the safety and efficacy of emerging pharmacological treatments. These studies should include diverse patient populations and assess the impact of these treatments on comorbid conditions such as cardiovascular diseases and metabolic disorders. Longitudinal studies are essential to determine the durability of treatment effects and identify potential long-term risks.

Combination Therapies

Combining pharmacological treatments with non-pharmacological interventions, such as CPAP or oral appliances, may enhance overall treatment efficacy. Future research should explore the synergistic effects of combination therapies. Integrated treatment approaches that address both the anatomical and physiological aspects of OSA could provide comprehensive management strategies.

CONCLUSION

The pharmacological treatment of sleep apnea remains a challenging and evolving field, with a range of medications being investigated for their potential to improve respiratory function, reduce the severity of sleep-disordered breathing, and mitigate the cardiovascular and metabolic comorbidities associated with this condition. While some medications, such as respiratory stimulants and serotonergic agents, have shown modest improvements in sleep apnea severity, the overall evidence for their long-term efficacy and safety remains limited. Emerging therapies, such as cannabinoids, antihypertensive medications, and novel agents like oxybutynin and atomoxetine, hold promise but require further research to establish their clinical utility and optimize their use in the management of sleep apnea.

Ultimately, the choice of pharmacological treatment for sleep apnea should be tailored to the individual patient's needs, taking into account the severity of their condition, the presence of comorbidities, and the potential risks and benefits of each therapeutic approach. A multidisciplinary approach, incorporating lifestyle modifications and non-pharmacological treatments such as CPAP and oral appliances, remains essential for the comprehensive management of sleep apnea.

REFERENCES

- Morgan T. A Case Report Using Oral Appliance Therapy Plus Oropharyngeal Exercise. OMICS Publishing Group, (2016); 2.
- Owens RL, Eckert DJ, Yeh SY, Malhotra A. Upper airway function in the pathogenesis of obstructive sleep apnea: a review of the current literature. *Curr Opin Pulm Med*. 2008; 14: 519-524. doi: 10.1097/MCP.0b013e3283130f66. PMID: 18812828; PMCID: PMC2697390.
- Gharibeh T, Mehra R. Obstructive sleep apnea syndrome: natural history, diagnosis, and emerging treatment options. *Nat Sci Sleep*. 2010; 2: 233-255. doi: 10.2147/NSS.S6844. PMID: 23616712; PMCID: PMC3630950.
- Jennum P, Riha RL. Epidemiology of sleep apnoea/hypopnoea syndrome and sleep-disordered breathing. *Eur Respir J*. 2009; 33: 907-914. doi: 10.1183/09031936.00180108. PMID: 19336593.
- Foucher A. Conséquences cardiovasculaires des apnées du sommeil. Elsevier BV. 2007; 3: 463-473.
- Gharibeh T, Mehra R. Obstructive sleep apnea syndrome: natural history, diagnosis, and emerging treatment options. *Nat Sci Sleep*. 2010; 2: 233-255. doi: 10.2147/NSS.S6844. PMID: 23616712; PMCID: PMC3630950.
- Berry RB, Kryger MH, Massie CA. A review of the pathophysiology and management of sleep-disordered breathing in congestive heart failure. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*. 2010; 14(1): 7-17.
- Dhand, R, Nishimura, M. Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors in the treatment of central sleep apnea. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*. 2012; 185(4): 397-398.
- White DP, Younes MK, Loewen AH, Jordan AS. An overview of the pharmacologic approaches to the treatment of obstructive sleep apnea. *Sleep Medicine Clinics*. 201510(2): 95-104.
- Berry RB, Kryger MH, Massie CA. A review of the pathophysiology and management of sleep-disordered breathing in congestive heart failure. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*. 2017; 14(1): 7-17.
- Gharibeh T, Mehra R. Obstructive sleep apnea syndrome: natural history, diagnosis, and emerging treatment options. *Nat Sci Sleep*. 2010; 2: 233-255. doi: 10.2147/NSS.S6844. PMID: 23616712; PMCID: PMC3630950.
- Devlin JW, Skrobik Y, Gélinas C, Needham DM, Slooter AJC, Pandharipande PP, et al. Clinical Practice Guidelines for the Prevention and Management of Pain, Agitation/Sedation, Delirium, Immobility, and Sleep Disruption in Adult Patients in the ICU. *Crit Care Med*. 2018; 46: 825-873. doi: 10.1097/CCM.0000000000003299. PMID: 30113379.
- Smith I, Lasserson TJ, Wright J. Drug therapy for obstructive sleep apnoea in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2006; (2): CD003002. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD003002.pub2. Update in: *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2013 May 31;(5):CD003002. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD003002.pub3. PMID: 16625567.
- Berry RB, Kryger MH, Massie CA. A review of the pathophysiology and management of sleep-disordered breathing in congestive heart failure. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*. 2010; 14(1): 7-17.
- Taranto-Montemurro L, Messineo L, Wellman A. Targeting endotypes of sleep apnoea with medications: a precision medicine approach. *Lancet Respiratory Medicine*. 2018; 7(5): 422-424.
- Dempsey JA, Veasey SC, Morgan BJ, O'Donnell CP. Pathophysiology of sleep apnea. *Physiol Rev*. 2010; 90: 47-112. doi: 10.1152/physrev.00043.2008. Erratum in: *Physiol Rev*. 2010 Apr; 90(2):797-8. PMID: 20086074; PMCID: PMC3970937.
- Veasey SC, Rosen IM. Obstructive Sleep Apnea in Adults. *N Engl J Med*. 2019; 380: 1442-1449. doi: 10.1056/NEJMc1816152. PMID: 30970189.
- Everitt H, McDermott L, Leydon G, Yules H, Baldwin D, Little P. GPs' management strategies for patients with insomnia: a survey and qualitative interview study. *Br J Gen Pract*. 2014; 64: 112-119. doi: 10.3399/bjgp14X677176. PMID: 24567616; PMCID: PMC3905408.

19. Eckert DJ, White DP, Jordan AS, Malhotra A, Wellman A. Defining phenotypic causes of obstructive sleep apnea. Identification of novel therapeutic targets. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2013; 188: 996-1004. doi: 10.1164/rccm.201303-0448OC. PMID: 23721582; PMCID: PMC3826282.
20. Prasad B, Radulovacki M, Carley DW. Pharmacological treatment of sleep apnea. In *Principles and Practice of Sleep Medicine.* 2013; 1250-1260.
21. Carley DW, Prasad B, Reid KJ, Malkani R, Attarian H, Abbott SM, et al. Pharmacotherapy of Apnea by Cannabimimetic Enhancement, the PACE Clinical Trial: Effects of Dronabinol in Obstructive Sleep Apnea. *Sleep.* 2018; 41: zsx184. doi: 10.1093/sleep/zsx184. PMID: 29121334; PMCID: PMC5806568.
22. Bazzano LA, Khan Z, Reynolds K, He J. Effect of nocturnal nasal continuous positive airway pressure on blood pressure in obstructive sleep apnea. *Hypertension.* 2007; 50: 417-423. doi: 10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.106.085175. Epub 2007 Jun 4. PMID: 17548722.
23. Fava C, Montagnana M, Rosner B. Novel angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) gene variants and their association with longitudinal blood pressure changes and cardiovascular events. *Scientific Reports.* 2019; 9(1): 8912.
24. Taranto-Montemurro L, Messineo L, Wellman A. Targeting Endotypic Traits with Medications for the Pharmacological Treatment of Obstructive Sleep Apnea. A Review of the Current Literature. *J Clin Med.* 2019; 8: 1846. doi: 10.3390/jcm8111846. PMID: 31684047; PMCID: PMC6912255.
25. Edwards BA, Sands SA, Eckert DJ. Efficacy of novel combination therapy for the treatment of obstructive sleep apnea. *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine.* 2020; 201(5): 587-590.
26. Marshall NS, Wong KK, Liu PY, Cullen SR, Knuiman MW, Grunstein RR. Sleep apnea as an independent risk factor for all-cause mortality: the Busselton Health Study. *Sleep.* 2008; 31(8): 1079-1085. PMID: 18714779; PMCID: PMC2542953.
27. Weaver TE, Grunstein RR. Adherence to continuous positive airway pressure therapy: the challenge to effective treatment. *Proc Am Thorac Soc.* 2008; 5: 173-178. doi: 10.1513/pats.200708-119MG. PMID: 18250209; PMCID: PMC2645251.
28. Sawyer AM, Gooneratne NS, Marcus CL, Ofer D, Richards KC, Weaver TE. A systematic review of CPAP adherence across age groups: clinical and empiric insights for developing CPAP adherence interventions. *Sleep Med Rev.* 2011; 15: 343-356. doi: 10.1016/j.smrv.2011.01.003. Epub 2011 Jun 8. PMID: 21652236; PMCID: PMC3202028.
29. Rotenberg BW, Murariu D, Pang KP. Trends in CPAP adherence over twenty years of data collection: a flattened curve. *J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2016; 45: 43. doi: 10.1186/s40463-016-0156-0. PMID: 27542595; PMCID: PMC4992257.
30. Sutherland K, Vanderveken OM, Tsuda H, Marklund M, Gagnadoux F, Kushida CA, et al. Oral appliance treatment for obstructive sleep apnea: an update. *J Clin Sleep Med.* 2014; 10: 215-227. doi: 10.5664/jcsm.3460. PMID: 24533007; PMCID: PMC3899326.
31. Hoffstein V. Review of oral appliances for treatment of sleep-disordered breathing. *Sleep Breath.* 2007; 11: 1-22. doi: 10.1007/s11325-006-0084-8. PMID: 17136406; PMCID: PMC1794626.
32. Marklund M, Verbraecken J, Randerath W. Non-CPAP therapies in obstructive sleep apnoea: mandibular advancement device therapy. *Eur Respir J.* 2012; 39: 1241-1247. doi: 10.1183/09031936.00144711. Epub 2011 Nov 10. PMID: 22075487.
33. Strollo PJ Jr, Soose RJ, Maurer JT, de Vries N, Cornelius J, Froymovich O, et al. STAR Trial Group. Upper-airway stimulation for obstructive sleep apnea. *N Engl J Med.* 2014; 370: 139-149. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa1308659. PMID: 24401051.
34. Van de Heyning PH, Badr MS, Baskin JZ, Cramer Bornemann MA, De Backer WA, Dotan Y, et al. Implanted upper airway stimulation device for obstructive sleep apnea. *Laryngoscope.* 2012; 122: 1626-1633. doi: 10.1002/lary.23301. Epub 2012 May 1. PMID: 22549513.
35. Caples SM, Rowley JA, Prinsell JR, Pallanch JF, Elamin MB, Katz SG, et al. Surgical modifications of the upper airway for obstructive sleep apnea in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Sleep.* 2010; 33: 1396-1407. doi: 10.1093/sleep/33.10.1396. PMID: 21061863; PMCID: PMC2941427.
36. Epstein LJ, Kristo D, Strollo PJ Jr, Friedman N, Malhotra A, Patil SP, et al. Adult Obstructive Sleep Apnea Task Force of the American Academy of Sleep Medicine. Clinical guideline for the evaluation, management and long-term care of obstructive sleep apnea in adults. *J Clin Sleep Med.* 2009; 5: 263-276. PMID: 19960649; PMCID: PMC2699173.
37. Randerath WJ, Verbraecken J, Andreas S, Bettega G, Boudewyns A, Hamans E, et al. European Respiratory Society task force on non-CPAP therapies in sleep apnoea. Non-CPAP therapies in obstructive sleep apnoea. *Eur Respir J.* 2011; 37: 1000-1028. doi: 10.1183/09031936.00099710. Epub 2011 Mar 15. PMID: 21406515.
38. Patil SP, Ayappa IA, Caples SM, Kimoff RJ, Patel SR, Harrod CG. Treatment of Adult Obstructive Sleep Apnea with Positive Airway Pressure: An American Academy of Sleep Medicine Clinical Practice Guideline. *J Clin Sleep Med.* 2019; 15: 335-343. doi: 10.5664/jcsm.7640. PMID: 30736887; PMCID: PMC6374094.
39. Punjabi NM, Newman AB, Young TB, Resnick HE, Sanders MH. Sleep-disordered breathing and cardiovascular disease: an outcome-based definition of hypopneas. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2008; 177: 1150-1155. doi: 10.1164/rccm.200712-1884OC. Epub 2008 Feb 14. PMID: 18276938; PMCID: PMC2383996.
40. Bazzano LA, Khan Z, Reynolds K, He J. Effect of nocturnal nasal continuous positive airway pressure on blood pressure in obstructive sleep apnea. *Hypertension.* 2007; 50: 417-423. doi: 10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.106.085175. Epub 2007 Jun 4. PMID: 17548722.
41. Taranto-Montemurro L, Messineo L, Wellman A. Targeting Endotypic Traits with Medications for the Pharmacological Treatment of Obstructive Sleep Apnea. A Review of the Current Literature. *J Clin Med.* 2019; 8: 1846. doi: 10.3390/jcm8111846. PMID: 31684047; PMCID: PMC6912255.