

# Suffocation and respiratory responses to carbon dioxide and breath holding challenges in individuals with panic disorder<sup>☆</sup>

Yuri Rassovsky<sup>a,\*</sup>, Kenneth Abrams<sup>b</sup>, Matt G. Kushner<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Psychology, University of Minnesota, United States

<sup>b</sup>Department of Psychiatry, University of Minnesota, United States

<sup>c</sup>Department of Psychology, University of Richmond, United States

Received 10 August 2004; accepted 3 August 2005

## Abstract

**Objective:** Findings showing that individuals with panic disorder (PD) are prone to experience panic attacks when inhaling CO<sub>2</sub>-enriched air have given rise to the hypothesis that physiological systems underlying the experience of suffocation may be important in the etiology of PD. In this study, we tested several predictions stemming from this view. **Methods:** Forty individuals with PD and 32 controls underwent both a breath-holding challenge and a CO<sub>2</sub> rebreathing challenge. A wide array of physiological and psychological responses, including continuous measurements of subjective suffocation, was recorded. **Results:** Individuals with PD experienced elevated physiological

reactivity to both challenges and greater levels of suffocation sensations during the rebreathing challenge. Furthermore, PD individuals who experienced a panic attack in response to the rebreathing challenge exhibited faster but shallower breathing during the challenge than did other PD individuals. **Conclusion:** Findings are consistent with theories linking PD to hypersensitive brain systems underlying the experience of suffocation. The possibility that subjective suffocation was in part mediated by peripheral interoceptive disturbances (vs. brainstem dysregulation) is discussed.

© 2006 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** Anxiety; Panic; Carbon dioxide; Suffocation; Respiration; Etiology

## Introduction

Panic disorder (PD) is a common psychiatric illness characterized by recurrent, spontaneous panic attacks [1]. Over the last several decades, many investigators have attempted to understand the pathophysiology of PD by studying patients during exposure, under controlled laboratory conditions, to known panicogenic agents (e.g., sodium lactate, bicarbonate, and carbon dioxide). The continuous rebreathing of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> [2–4], as well as a single- or double-breath inhalation of 35% CO<sub>2</sub> [5–8], has been found to initiate panic attacks significantly more often

in individuals with PD than in individuals with other anxiety disorders or in healthy controls. Furthermore, individuals with PD experience CO<sub>2</sub>-induced panic attacks as being very similar to naturally occurring attacks [2,4–6,9]. Suggesting a possible hereditary component, even healthy first-degree relatives of those with PD demonstrate an elevated sensitivity to a 35% CO<sub>2</sub> challenge [10,11].

Research on CO<sub>2</sub>-induced panic has contributed to the formulation of several influential theories of PD that focus on abnormal respiratory processes [12–15]. There is, in fact, an important link between respiration and arterial blood CO<sub>2</sub> levels. Specifically, three parameters are responsible for controlling respiratory processes: arterial blood levels of oxygen, CO<sub>2</sub>, and hydrogen ions. Among these, CO<sub>2</sub> provides the strongest stimulus to ventilation. For example, a slight increase (e.g., 2–5 mmHg) in arterial blood pCO<sub>2</sub> can more than double the ventilation [16]. Two groups of receptors detect changes in these parameters: the central

<sup>☆</sup> All research was conducted at the University of Minnesota.

\* Corresponding author. Department of Psychiatry and Biobehavioral Sciences, University of California, Los Angeles, Box 951759, C8-747 NPI, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1759, USA. Tel.: +1 310 478 3711x44965.

E-mail address: yurir@ucla.edu (Y. Rassovsky).

chemoreceptors located in the medulla and the peripheral chemoreceptors located in the carotid bodies at the bifurcation of the common carotid arteries and in the aortic bodies. Although both central and peripheral chemoreceptors respond to changes in arterial  $p\text{CO}_2$ , it is the central chemoreceptors that are primarily responsible for mediating the ventilatory response [16].

Read [17] demonstrated a method for evaluating medullary  $\text{CO}_2$  processing through prolonged breathing in a closed system of a gas mixture that is initially low in  $\text{CO}_2$  and high in  $\text{O}_2$ . Through the use of spirometry, various respiratory parameters, including tidal volume ( $V_T$ ), respiratory rate (RR), and minute ventilation ( $V_E$ ), can be assessed while the  $p\text{CO}_2$  in the lungs and blood is monitored. By comparing the respiratory parameters at different  $p\text{CO}_2$  values, this technique measures the individual's ventilatory response to  $\text{CO}_2$ . To date, a small number of research teams have employed this procedure (or some modification thereof) to study PD with promising results. Most investigators reported an exaggerated response among individuals with PD on at least some of the respiratory parameters [3,15,18,19]; however, some studies have failed to observe this effect [9,20]. The fact that not all individuals with PD have demonstrated this exaggerated response is consistent with the existence of subtypes of PD with distinct etiological pathways. An additional issue is that, to the best of our knowledge, no prior studies have additionally collected continuous measurements of subjective suffocation levels during the Read's procedure. Such measurements would tap into a potentially important facet of the panic process [13] and would provide more accurate data than measurements collected retrospectively (i.e., through a questionnaire upon completion of the procedure) as has been the case in some earlier work (e.g., Ref. [7]).

The purpose of the present study was to comprehensively compare individuals with PD and controls on  $\text{CO}_2$  sensitivity and to explore evidence for whether  $\text{CO}_2$  sensitivity marks a distinct (respiratory) subtype of PD. Toward this end, we employed multichanneled subjective, behavioral, and physiological measures of  $\text{CO}_2$  sensitivity, including a continuous measurement of subjective suffocation. We used two challenge procedures that are known to increase arterial  $p\text{CO}_2$ : (1) Read's hyperoxic hypercapnic rebreathing procedure and (2) a voluntary breathing cessation (i.e., "breath holding") challenge. The voluntary breathing cessation challenge was included to allow us to compare our results to those of studies that have employed this simple, noninvasive  $\text{CO}_2$  manipulation technique [21].

Regarding subjective reactions to the challenge procedures, we predicted that, compared to normal controls, individuals with PD will (a) report greater trait-like fears surrounding autonomic arousal and suffocation feelings, (b) report greater anxiogenic response following the breathing cessation challenge and the  $\text{CO}_2$  rebreathing procedure, and (c) report greater experience of subjective suffocation during

the  $\text{CO}_2$  rebreathing procedure. Regarding behavioral reactions to the challenge procedures, we predicted that, compared to normal controls, individuals with PD will (a) hold their breath for a shorter period and (b) more often prematurely terminate the  $\text{CO}_2$  rebreathing procedure. Regarding physiological reactions to the challenge procedures, we predicted that, compared to normal controls, individuals with PD will (a) have lower end-tidal  $p\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure ( $etp\text{CO}_2$ ) levels following the breathing cessation challenge and (b) show an exaggerated ventilatory response to the  $\text{CO}_2$  rebreathing procedure. Finally, we predicted that individuals with PD who panicked during the rebreathing procedure would show, compared to individuals with PD who did not panic, a distinct respiratory response during the procedure (i.e., prior to panicking) marked by rapid, shallow breaths [15].

## Methods

### Subjects

Forty individuals diagnosed with PD (14 males and 26 females) and 32 healthy controls (10 males and 22 females) participated in the study (see Table 1 for comparisons among demographic variables). (Due to equipment malfunction and/or premature termination of some of the procedures, slightly lower population is used in some of the analyses.) Individuals with PD were recruited from the Minneapolis/St. Paul metropolitan area through newspaper ads. Ad respondents were administered the Structured Clinical Interview for *DSM-IV* [22] and met the *DSM-IV* criteria for PD [1]. They were excluded if they met diagnostic criteria for current (last three months) depression, any psychotic disorder, or alcohol abuse/dependence or if they took daily psychiatric medications. A few participants intermittently took psychiatric medications on an as needed basis (mostly benzodiazepines). All selected participants, though, were free of psychiatric medications for at least 3 days prior to the study.

The control group was drawn from respondents to flyers placed within nonpatient areas of the University of Minnesota's teaching hospital. Respondents were prescreened

Table 1  
Group comparisons of demographic and baseline variables

Variable	PD group ( $n=40$ ) ( $M\pm S.D.$ )	Control group ( $n=32$ ) ( $M\pm S.D.$ )	$t$
Age (years)	30.38 $\pm$ 9.61	27.53 $\pm$ 8.46	ns
Height (in.)	66.74 $\pm$ 3.16	66.82 $\pm$ 3.59	ns
Weight (lb)	153.18 $\pm$ 31.55	143.45 $\pm$ 28.05	ns
VC (l)	2.89 $\pm$ .65	2.84 $\pm$ .83	ns
Baseline API	4.15 $\pm$ 4.55	0.78 $\pm$ 1.19	3.745*
Baseline $etp\text{CO}_2$	33.75 $\pm$ 3.75	34.98 $\pm$ 3.75	ns

VC, vital capacity.

All  $t$  tests were two tailed.

\*  $P < .001$ .

using the SCID with the aim of excluding those with a personal or first-degree familial history of psychiatric problems including PD, affective disorder, psychosis, or substance use disorder (other than tobacco use). Additionally, individuals with a history of seizures, hypertension, diabetes, heart problems, or asthma were excluded from participating in either study group. The University of Minnesota's Institutional Review Board (Human Subjects Committee) granted approval for this study.

### Apparatus

Inhalation equipment for the Read's rebreathing challenge consisted of a 13-l Collins spirometer, which was filled with 6 l of a gas mixture of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% O<sub>2</sub>. Participants rebreathed the gas mixture from a mouthpiece connected to the spirometer by a hose while their noses were occluded with a nose clip. Ventilation was recorded on a graph paper. As stated above, this is a well-standardized rebreathing procedure for measuring the ventilatory response to CO<sub>2</sub> [9,17,20].

A Beckman Medical Gas Analyzer LB2 connected to the mouthpiece was used to continuously measure *etp*CO<sub>2</sub> in the expired air. Calibration of the analyzer included setting it to zero when sampling room air and to 5% CO<sub>2</sub> when sampling gas from a tank premixed with 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% O<sub>2</sub>.

Participants were able to register subjective feelings of breathlessness during the rebreathing procedure by moving a dial mounted on a box, which was placed conveniently within their reach. Changes in the position of the dial resulted in a change in voltage output from the box, which was recorded on a computer at 10 Hz of sampling rate through a digital I/O interface.

### Measures

#### Acute panic inventory

The acute panic inventory (API) [23] is a self-report questionnaire that assesses panic and anxiety symptoms. In the present study, we used 19 of the 29 API items that reflect the specific symptoms of a panic attack based on the *DSM-IV* criteria (e.g., "Do you feel faint?" "Are you afraid of dying?"). The responses are rated on a four-point scale that ranges from 0 (*symptom absent*) to 3 (*symptom severe*). This inventory has been used extensively in panic provocation studies [2,3,24].

#### Panic attacks

Given that, presently, there is no agreed upon definition of laboratory panic (see Refs. [25–27]), we defined panic using criteria that have been reported frequently in the CO<sub>2</sub> challenge literature. Specifically, we defined a panic attack as being present when an individual rated at least four *DSM-IV* panic symptoms on the postchallenge API at an intensity of 2 or greater (see API anchors above) with at

least one symptom endorsed being cognitively focused (e.g., fear of dying or losing control). Note that the *DSM-IV* criteria for a panic attack require at least four symptoms; the additional requirement of a cognitive symptom has been used in several past studies to increase specificity for CO<sub>2</sub>-induced panic attacks (e.g., refs. [3, 23,28,29]).

#### Breath-holding duration

Maximum voluntary breath-holding duration is thought to provide an indirect index of sensitivity to CO<sub>2</sub> buildup [30]. It simply involves recording the time participants are willing to hold their breath following a deep inhalation using a standard sports stopwatch.

#### Breath-holding CO<sub>2</sub>

Another index used to quantify CO<sub>2</sub> tolerance is *etp*CO<sub>2</sub> level immediately following cessation of breath holding [21]. It involves recording participants' *etp*CO<sub>2</sub> as they exhale into a mask connected to the gas analyzer. Some investigators consider this measure to be a more valid index of CO<sub>2</sub> sensitivity than breath-holding duration, as it provides a measure of actual systemic CO<sub>2</sub> exposure at the time of exhalation [31].

#### Ventilation

Ventilatory response to CO<sub>2</sub> was measured using Read's [17] hyperoxic–hypercapnic rebreathing procedure. Throughout rebreathing, *V*<sub>T</sub> and RR were recorded using spirometry. (Later, they would be hand scored.) A research assistant recorded by hand *etp*CO<sub>2</sub> levels from the analyzer at 20-s intervals. We then calculated *V*<sub>E</sub> by multiplying average *V*<sub>T</sub> and RR at 20-s intervals along the rebreathing run. This is a standard method used to assess central CO<sub>2</sub> sensitivity [9,17,20].

#### Subjective suffocation

In an attempt to capture participants' continuous subjective feeling of suffocation during the rebreathing procedure, we asked participants to turn a dial labeled "breathlessness/shortness of breath" whenever they experienced a change in their feeling of breathlessness or shortness of breath. The dial ranges from 0 (*no breathlessness/shortness of breath*) to 10 (*maximum breathlessness/shortness of breath*). (The use of the word "suffocation" was avoided due to its likely anxiogenic effects.)

#### Procedure

##### Baseline

After providing informed consent, participants completed the API. A research assistant then placed a clip on the participant that occluded the nose and instructed the participant to breath room air for 1 min through a mouthpiece connected to the gas analyzer (set to analyze breath-

by-breath  $etpCO_2$  levels). The average  $etpCO_2$  level during this minute (hereafter referred to as “baseline  $etpCO_2$ ”) was displayed on the gas analyzer digital screen and recorded by a research assistant.

#### *Voluntary breathing cessation challenge*

Next, the research assistant instructed the participant to empty his/her lungs, take a deep breath, hold this breath for as long as possible, and then exhale into a mask that was connected to the  $CO_2$  gas analyzer. The research assistant recorded the breath-holding duration and  $etpCO_2$ . Immediately following the challenge, the research assistant instructed the participant to complete the API with the reference to his/her experience of panic and anxiety symptoms “at this moment.”

#### *Read’s rebreathing procedure*

Following a brief resting period (approximately 5 min), the participant was seated in front of the spirometer filled with a 5%  $CO_2$  and 95%  $O_2$  gas mixture. The research assistant again occluded the participant’s nose with a nose clip, and instructed him/her to breathe through a mouthpiece for 5 min. The research assistant also instructed the participant to indicate changes in feelings of breathlessness or shortness of breath by turning the dial located within his/her reach.

Each participant read in the consent form that the rebreathing procedure might induce some harmless physical sensations, which would disappear quickly upon completion of the procedure. Furthermore, the research assistant informed each participant that s/he could discontinue the procedure at any time if it felt too uncomfortable. Otherwise, the experimenter discontinued the procedure after 5 min or if the participant reached an  $etpCO_2$  of 70 mmHg [8], whichever came first. By convention, the first 20 s of data are discarded prior to analysis [32].

Immediately following the rebreathing procedure, the research assistant instructed the participant to complete the API with the reference to his/her experience of panic and anxiety symptoms at this moment.

#### *General analytic strategy for breathing challenges*

For outcome variables for which prechallenge measurements were not relevant (e.g., breath-holding duration), we compared the two groups using an independent sample  $t$  test (for continuous variables) or a  $\chi^2$  analysis (for dichotomous variables). For outcome variables for which prechallenge measurements were relevant (e.g., API scores), we compared the two groups using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with the prechallenge score as the covariate. Finally, for outcome measures for which multiple measurements were recorded (e.g., ventilatory data), we compared the two groups using a two-way mixed-design analysis of variance (ANOVA).

## **Results**

### *Demographic and baseline variables*

Several individual difference variables, including age, height, weight, and vital capacity, have been shown to influence  $CO_2$  sensitivity and thereby, potentially, to moderate the ventilatory response to  $CO_2$  [8]. Therefore, we conducted  $t$  tests to examine whether the PD group differed from the control group on any of these variables. Table 1 shows the means and S.D.’s of these variables. No significant differences were found. In addition,  $\chi^2$  analysis revealed that the proportion of females in the PD group (65%) did not differ significantly from the proportion of females in the control group (69%).

Table 1 also shows the means and S.D.’s for two baseline variables. Not surprisingly, the PD group had higher baseline API scores than the control group,  $t(58)=3.75$ ,  $P<.001$ . The two groups did not differ, though, on baseline  $etpCO_2$  levels.

### *Subjective response to challenge procedures*

#### *Group comparison of API scores*

We compared postchallenge API scores using ANCOVA with baseline API as a covariate. For the breathing cessation challenge, we found that the API scores obtained immediately following the challenge were significantly higher among individuals with PD ( $M=5.75$ ,  $S.D.=4.02$ ) than controls ( $M=1.25$ ,  $S.D.=1.50$ ),  $F(1,69)=13.71$ ,  $P<.01$ .

We also used ANCOVA, with baseline API as a covariate, to examine whether the Read’s rebreathing procedure was significantly more anxiogenic for PD individuals than for controls. As expected, we found that post- $CO_2$  rebreathing API scores were significantly higher among individuals with PD ( $M=22.45$ ,  $S.D.=11.16$ ) than controls ( $M=11.24$ ,  $S.D.=5.96$ ),  $F(1,57)=20.02$ ,  $P<.001$ .

#### *Panic attack rates*

We found that 13 of the 40 (32.5%) individuals with PD and none of the 32 controls had reported symptoms meeting our criteria for a panic attack (above) during the 5%  $CO_2$  rebreathing challenge. This difference was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(1, N=72)=12.69$ ,  $P<.01$ . None of the individuals in either group reported experiencing a panic attack during the voluntary breathing cessation challenge.

#### *Report of subjective suffocation during Read’s rebreathing procedure*

To examine whether individuals with PD experienced greater feelings of suffocation than controls during the  $CO_2$  rebreathing procedure, we conducted a two-way mixed-design ANOVA. Because a substantial number of participants (17 PD individuals and 9 controls) terminated the rebreathing procedure before the full 5-min period, we analyzed only the first 2 1/2 min of rebreathing. Doing so led to the exclusion of only one participant from the analysis.

The ANOVA revealed a significant group-by-time interaction, indicating that the rate of increase in subjective suffocation over the course of the challenge was significantly greater for those with PD than for controls,  $F(5,230)=2.67$ ,  $P<.05$  (Fig. 1). As expected, there was also a significant main effect for time (i.e., significant increase in subjective suffocation over the course of the procedure),  $F(5,230)=37.02$ ,  $P<.001$ .

#### Behavioral response to challenge

##### Breath-holding duration

We used  $t$  tests to examine whether significant differences would emerge between PD individuals and controls on measures of maximum voluntary breath-holding duration. As predicted, the mean breath-holding duration in the PD group ( $M=44.53$  s,  $S.D.=22.62$ ) was significantly shorter than that in the control group ( $M=57.91$  s,  $S.D.=19.08$ ),  $t(70)=2.67$ ,  $P<.01$ .

##### Premature rebreathing termination by the participant

$\chi^2$  analyses were conducted to examine differences between the groups in ability and/or willingness to tolerate  $\text{CO}_2$  buildup during the Read's rebreathing procedure. Inability and/or unwillingness to tolerate  $\text{CO}_2$  buildup were defined as a participant's request to terminate the rebreathing procedure prior to its completion. As expected, the proportion of individuals who prematurely terminated the challenge was significantly greater in the PD group (17/30) than in the control group (9/32),  $\chi^2(1, N=62)=5.18$ ,  $P<.05$ .

#### Physiological response to challenge

##### Breath-holding $\text{CO}_2$

We compared postchallenge  $\text{etpCO}_2$  scores using ANCOVA with baseline  $\text{etpCO}_2$  as a covariate. As expected,

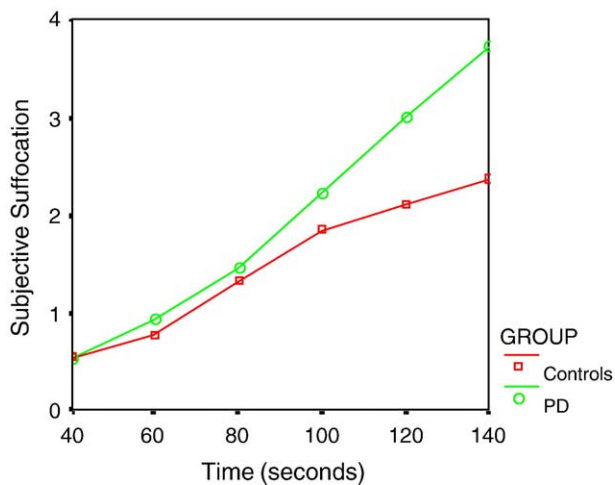


Fig. 1. Comparison of continuously reported subjective suffocation during the Read's rebreathing procedure between individuals with PD (circles) and controls (squares). A significant group-by-time interaction was found ( $P<.05$ ).

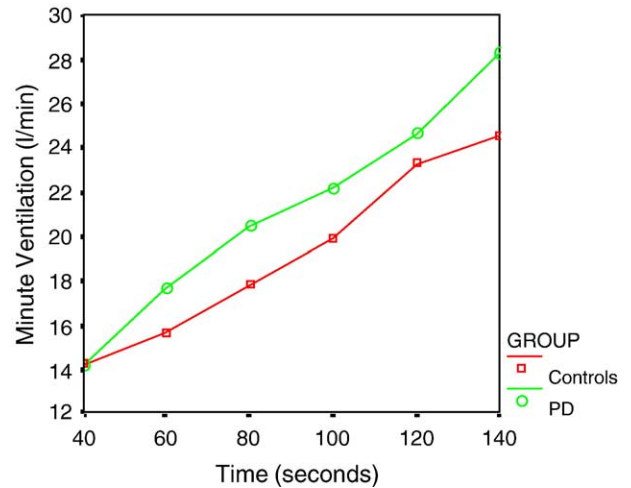


Fig. 2. Comparison of ventilatory response to  $\text{CO}_2$  between individuals with PD (circles) and controls (squares). A marginally significant group-by-time interaction was found ( $P=.08$ ).

we found that the  $\text{etpCO}_2$  scores obtained immediately following the breath-holding challenge were significantly lower among individuals with PD ( $M=37.94$ ,  $S.D.=5.21$ ) than among controls ( $M=42.27$ ,  $S.D.=4.31$ ),  $F(1,56)=10.09$ ,  $P<.01$ . This indicates that controls, on average, tolerated significantly higher levels of  $\text{CO}_2$  than did those with PD.

##### Ventilatory response to $\text{CO}_2$

We compared the ventilatory response to  $\text{CO}_2$  between the groups on a minute-by-minute basis using a two-way mixed-design ANOVA. Also, to minimize the number of participants excluded from the analysis due to premature termination of the procedure, once again, only the first 2 1/2 min were used. This analysis revealed a marginally significant group-by-time interaction for  $V_E$ , indicating that as time increased, individuals with PD had a greater increase in  $V_E$  than controls,  $F(5,255)=1.96$ ,  $P<.08$  (see Fig. 2). Of note, there were no significant group differences or interactions in analyses of  $V_T$  and RR.

##### Subtyping PD

We explored the possibility that those individuals in the PD group who panicked during the rebreathing challenge (panickers) represent a distinct subtype of PD in which respiratory systems are especially relevant. Specifically, we compared the ventilatory response to  $\text{CO}_2$  (again, for the first 2 1/2 min of the rebreathing procedure) between panickers and those with PD who did not panic (nonpanickers). Two-way mixed-design ANOVAs revealed a significant group main effect for RR,  $F(1,24)=4.06$ ,  $P<.05$ , and  $V_T$   $F(1,24)=6.15$ ,  $P<.05$ . In particular, panickers breathed at a faster rate but more shallowly than the nonpanickers throughout the procedure, with the differentials being relatively constant. No group differences for  $V_E$  were found.

## Discussion

We evaluated CO<sub>2</sub> challenge responding in multiple measurement domains as a means of further elucidating the psychopathology of PD. Novel to our approach was the employment of continuous (vs. retrospective) measurements of subjective suffocation levels during the Read's rebreathing procedure. Consistent with most earlier studies [3–8,24], though not all [9,20], we found that individuals with PD scored significantly higher than did healthy controls on subjective CO<sub>2</sub> challenge responses (e.g., panic attack rate and subjective suffocation), as well as respiratory-related CO<sub>2</sub> challenge responses (e.g., breath-holding CO<sub>2</sub> and ventilatory response). In doing so, our findings lend further weight to the idea that individuals with PD manifest CO<sub>2</sub> hypersensitivity characterized in part by elevated perceptions of suffocation. It is worth noting that the Read's technique is a particularly conservative approach to detecting CO<sub>2</sub> hypersensitivity as the hyperoxic nature of the procedure blocks the effects of peripheral (i.e., carotid body) receptors involved in regulating respiration [33].

Abelson et al. [34] who manipulated the respiratory responding and cognitive set of subjects undergoing a respiratory challenge underscored the importance of employing multiple-modal measures in challenge studies. Specifically, they administered the respiratory stimulant doxapram to PD participants while communicating to a randomly chosen subgroup that physical sensations elicited by the challenge were "harmless" (consequences manipulation) and that they could reduce the intensity of the challenge by turning a dial (controllability manipulation). They found that these cognitive manipulations reduced participants' subjective and, more notably, respiratory responses to the challenge. Their results highlight the ultimate interdependency of psychological and physiological challenge responses and the need for using a multichanneled approach for interpreting responses to laboratory challenges.

Our findings, especially those showing the PD group's increased suffocation feelings and elevated respiratory response during the Read's rebreathing challenge, are consistent with both Klein's [13] suffocation false alarm theory as well as more cognitively focused theories of PD. Regarding the former theory, Klein has argued that PD may be caused by a pathologically dysregulated "suffocation monitor" in the hindbrain, which triggers panic attacks by erroneously signaling a lack of useful air. Because this putative mechanism should operate primarily by assessing central CO<sub>2</sub> levels [13], this theory predicts that increasing central CO<sub>2</sub> levels would be associated with an experience of suffocation. Therefore, if the threshold for experiencing suffocation is pathologically lowered in individuals with PD, they should experience, as was indicated in this study, more intense feelings of suffocation and increased ventilation than controls at a given CO<sub>2</sub> level. Lastly, Klein's theory would also predict our finding that those with PD (vs. those

without) would experience the need to resume ventilation following breathing cessation at a lower *p*CO<sub>2</sub> value.

Despite consistencies between our study findings and predictions made by Klein's theory, there are several facts and findings that remain to be incorporated before the theory can be considered robust. In other words, that individuals with PD are hypersensitive to CO<sub>2</sub> does not necessarily imply that CO<sub>2</sub> sensitivity plays a central role in naturally occurring panic attacks. For example, there are agents other than CO<sub>2</sub> that promote panic at higher rates in those with (vs. without) PD. Among these "chemopanicogens" are sodium lactate [35], caffeine [36], and yohimbine [37]. As such, the question arises as to whether there is something unique about CO<sub>2</sub> in its effect on respiratory processes, or whether it is simply one of a number of agents that promote panic by causing interoceptive disturbance. Additionally, Klein's theory at present does not perhaps provide most parsimonious explanation for why hyperventilation, which leads to hypocapnia [24], and a 12% O<sub>2</sub> (hypoxia) challenge [38] also promote panic at elevated rates among those with PD. Perhaps individuals with PD are hypersensitive to most alterations in inhalation rate or content, but not specifically hypersensitive to CO<sub>2</sub>.

Such concerns with Klein's suffocation alarm theory have given rise to alternative, more cognitively focused explanations for CO<sub>2</sub> findings. One possibility is that CO<sub>2</sub> produces nonspecific interoceptive disturbances that are subsequently misinterpreted as catastrophic (e.g., as suggesting a heart attack [39]). Alternatively, CO<sub>2</sub>-induced symptoms may activate among those high in anxiety sensitivity preexisting beliefs regarding their potential for harmful physical, psychological, and social consequences [40]. Such catastrophic thoughts or activated beliefs may in turn promote greater ventilation and perceptions of suffocation. In a similar vein, variation in breath-holding duration and *etp*CO<sub>2</sub> following the breathing cessation challenge may reflect not only physiological CO<sub>2</sub> tolerance, but also fear of impending suffocation or dread of the associated sensations. That recently detoxified alcoholics have elevated levels of anxiety sensitivity and suffocation fear relative to controls is consistent with these cognitive theories [41].

Ultimately, our study methodology does not permit the complete disentanglement of physiological from psychological influences on the responses we measured. Of note, as our research team and others have found that various physiological measures do not correlate highly with self-reported somatic concerns or anticipatory anxiety [29,30,42], it seems reasonable to suggest that these measurement domains tap independent processes. Looking toward the future, new techniques are needed to directly address the question of what mediates CO<sub>2</sub>-induced anxiety among those with PD. Gorman et al. [43] recently concluded that "it is reasonable to consider theories that implicate central brain circuits rather than or in addition to abnormalities in the pulmonary, peripheral (aortic arch), or medullary chemoreceptors."

Unfortunately, most methodologies for identifying the role of physiological and cognitive mediators present with significant practical limitations (e.g., using more proximate measures of medulla chemoreceptor output than breathing), ethical limitations (e.g., performing the Read's rebreathing test under general anesthesia), or financial limitations (e.g., using fMRI technology to examine limbic functioning).

It is important to note that even if respiratory processes turn out not to be directly involved in the pathophysiology of PD, respiratory parameters may still prove to be useful in unveiling possible pathophysiological mechanisms [26]. In our study, we found that PD individuals who experienced a panic attack during the CO<sub>2</sub> rebreathing challenge exhibited more rapid but shallower breathing during the challenge than PD individuals who did not experience a panic attack. These findings replicate results from Gorman et al. [14] and are supportive of Klein's [13] notion that there may be at least two subgroups of individuals with PD, only one of which experiences panic attacks with pronounced respiratory distress. This group, according to Klein, may possess a deranged suffocation monitoring system as a key etiological substrate. It may be, therefore, that the hypersensitivity to central CO<sub>2</sub> buildup found among some of our PD subjects may have marked them as belonging to a particular PD subtype.

One caveat to this particular analysis is that breathing patterns observed during the Read's procedure may not be reflective of breathing patterns that occur prior to or during naturally occurring panic attacks. This is because during the Read's procedure, greater respiration leads to hypercapnia, whereas in real-life settings, it leads to hypocapnia. As such, an individual with PD may employ setting-specific ventilation strategies. Another limitation to our study is that the breath-holding challenge, by always occurring before the rebreathing challenge, may have produced carryover effects that differentially affected the latter challenge. Still, it remains the case that the PD group demonstrated greater sensitivity to the rebreathing challenge on variables that measured change from the beginning to end of that procedure (e.g., subjective suffocation). That said, it would be preferable for the two challenges to have been counter-balanced and to have occurred on separate laboratory visits.

Despite the above caveats, because "abnormalities" on some of the respiratory parameters occur in greater proportion in individuals with PD than in healthy controls [15], they are likely candidates for further evaluation as markers or endophenotypes for identifying subgroups within the panic population. The goal of such subgrouping is to identify individuals with PD who share a common etiology [44]. This line of research, termed by Iacono and Clementz [45] as the "divide and conquer" approach, would help identify more homogenous subtypes of PD with etiologically simpler networks and might, thereby, simplify the search for clues to etiological factors that underlie PD.

## Acknowledgments

This research was supported by National Institute of Mental Health Training grant MH-17069 awarded to Y. Rassovsky and National Institute of Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism grant R29-AA09871 awarded to M. Kushner.

## References

- [1] American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders. 4th ed. Washington (DC): American Psychiatric Press, 1994.
- [2] Gorman JM, Askanazi J, Liebowitz MR, Fyer AJ, Stein J, Kinney JM, Klein DF. Response to hyperventilation in a group of patients with panic disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984;45:857–61.
- [3] Gorman JM, Fyer MR, Goetz R, Askanazi J, Liebowitz MR, Fyer AJ, Kinney JM, Klein DF. Ventilatory physiology of patients with panic disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1988;45:31–9.
- [4] Woods SW, Charney DS, Goodman WK, Heninger GR. Carbon dioxide-induced anxiety. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1988;45:43–52.
- [5] Fyer MR, Uy J, Martinez J, Goetz R, Klein DF, Fyer AJ, Liebowitz MR, Gorman JM. CO<sub>2</sub> challenge of patients with panic disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* 1987;144:1080–2.
- [6] Griez E, Lousberg H, van den Hout MA, van der Molen M. CO<sub>2</sub> vulnerability in panic disorder. *Psychiatry Res* 1987;20:87–95.
- [7] Papp LA, Klein DF, Martinez J, Schneier F, Cole R, Liebowitz MR, Hollander E, Fyer AJ, Jordan F, Gorman JM. Diagnostic and substance specificity of carbon-dioxide-induced panic. *Am J Psychiatry* 1993;150:250–7.
- [8] Perna G, Bertani A, Arancio C, Ronchi P, Bellodi L. Laboratory response of patients with panic and obsessive-compulsive disorders to 35% CO<sub>2</sub> challenges. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995;152:85–9.
- [9] Woods SW, Charney DS, Loke J, Goodman WK, Redmond DE, Heninger GR. Carbon dioxide sensitivity in panic anxiety: ventilatory and anxiogenic response to carbon dioxide in healthy subjects and patients with panic anxiety before and after alprazolam treatment. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1986;43:900–9.
- [10] Coryell W. Hypersensitivity to carbon dioxide as a disease-specific trait marker. *Biol Psychiatry* 1997;41:259–63.
- [11] van Beek N, Griez E. Reactivity to a 35% CO<sub>2</sub> challenge in healthy first-degree relatives of patients with panic disorder. *Biol Psychiatry* 2000;47:830–5.
- [12] Gorman JM, Liebowitz MR, Fyer AJ, Stein J. A neuroanatomical hypothesis for panic disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* 1989;146:148–61.
- [13] Klein DF. False suffocation alarms, spontaneous panics, and related conditions. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1993;50:306–17.
- [14] Gorman JM, Papp LA, Coplan JD, Martinez JM, Lennon S, Goetz RR, Ross D, Klein DF. Anxiogenic effects of CO<sub>2</sub> and hyperventilation in patients with panic disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* 1994;151:547–53.
- [15] Papp LA, Martinez JM, Klein DF, Coplan JD, Norman RG, Cole R, de Jesus MJ, Ross D, Goetz R, Gorman JM. Respiratory psychophysiology of panic disorder: three respiratory challenges in 98 subjects. *Am J Psychiatry* 1997;154:1557–65.
- [16] Rhoades R, Pflanzner R. Human physiology. 3rd ed. Fort Worth (Tex): Saunders College Publishing, 1996.
- [17] Read DJC. A clinical method for assessing the ventilatory response to carbon dioxide. *Australas Ann Med* 1967;16:20–32.
- [18] Lousberg H, Griez E, van den Hout MA. Carbon dioxide chemosensitivity in panic disorder. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1988;77:214–8.
- [19] Papp LA, Goetz R, Cole R, Klein DF, Jordan F, Liebowitz MR, Fyer AJ, Hollander E, Gorman JM. Hypersensitivity to carbon dioxide in panic disorder. *Am J Psychiatry* 1989;146:779–81.

- [20] Zandbergen J, Pols H, de Loof C, Griez E. Ventilatory response to CO<sub>2</sub> in panic disorder. *Psychiatry Res* 1991;39:13–9.
- [21] Asmundson GJG, Stein MB. Triggering the false suffocation alarm in panic disorder patients by using a voluntary breath-holding procedure. *Am J Psychiatry* 1994;151:264–6.
- [22] First MB, Spitzer RL, Gibbon M, Williams JBW. Structured clinical interview for DSM-IV axis I disorders—patient edition (SCID-I/P, Version 2.0). New York (NY): Biometrics Research Department, 1995.
- [23] Liebowitz MR, Fyer AJ, Gorman JM, Dillon D, Appleby IL, Levy G, Anderson S, Levitt M, Palij M, Davies SO, Klein DF. Lactate provocation of panic attacks I: clinical and behavioral findings. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1984;41:764–70.
- [24] Schmidt NB, Telch MJ, Jaimez TL. Biological challenge manipulation of pCO<sub>2</sub> levels: a test of Klein's (1993) suffocation alarm theory of panic. *J Abnorm Psychol* 1996;105:446–54.
- [25] Barlow DH, Brown TA, Craske MG. Definitions of panic attack and panic disorder in the DSM-IV: implications for research. *J Abnorm Psychol* 1994;103:446–54.
- [26] Rassovsky Y, Kushner MG. Carbon dioxide in the study of panic disorder: issues of definition, methodology, and outcome. *J Anxiety Disord* 2003;17(1);1–32.
- [27] Sanderson WC, Wetzler S. Five percent carbon dioxide challenge: valid analogue and marker of panic disorder? *Biol Psychiatry* 1990;27:689–701.
- [28] Sanderson WC, Rapee RM, Barlow DH. The influence of an illusion of control on panic attacks induced via inhalation of 5.5% carbon dioxide-enriched air. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1989;46:157–62.
- [29] Craske MG, Barlow DH. Nocturnal panic: response to hyperventilation and carbon dioxide challenges. *J Abnorm Psychol* 1990;99:302–7.
- [30] McNally RJ, Eke M. Anxiety sensitivity, suffocation fear, and breath-holding duration as predictors of response to carbon dioxide challenge. *J Abnorm Psychol* 1996;105:146–9.
- [31] Zandbergen J, Strahm M, Pols H, Griez E. Breath-holding in panic disorder. *Compr Psychiatry* 1992;22:47–51.
- [32] Gorman JM, Browne ST, Papp LA, Martinez J, Welkowitz L, Coplan JD, Goetz RR, Kent J, Klein DF. Effect of antipanic treatment on response to carbon dioxide. *Biol Psychiatry* 1997;42:982–91.
- [33] St. Croix CM, Cunningham DA, Paterson DH. Nature of the interaction between central and peripheral chemoreceptor drives in human subjects. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol* 1996;74:640–6.
- [34] Abelson JL, Nesse RM, Weg JG, Curtis GC. Respiratory psychophysiology and anxiety: cognitive intervention in the doxapram model of panic. *Psychosom Med* 1996;58:302–13.
- [35] Pitts FM, McClure JN. Lactate metabolism in anxiety neurosis. *N Engl J Med* 1967;227:1329–36.
- [36] Charney DS, Heninger GR, Jallon PI. Increased anxiogenic effects of caffeine in panic disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1985;42:233–43.
- [37] Charney DS, Woods SW, Krystal JH. Noradrenergic neuronal dysregulation in panic disorder: the effects of intravenous yohimbine and clonidine in panic disorder. *Acta Psychiatrica Scand* 1992;86:273–82.
- [38] Gayle BJ, Ohtake PJ, Shipherd JC. Exaggerated anxiety is not unique to CO<sub>2</sub> in panic disorder: a comparison of hypercapnic and hypoxic challenges. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 1999;108:473–82.
- [39] Clark DM. A cognitive approach to panic. *Behav Res Ther* 1986;24:461–7.
- [40] McNally RJ. Panic disorder: a critical analysis. New York: Guilford Press, 1994.
- [41] Rassovsky Y, Hurliman E, Abrams K, Kushner MG. CO<sub>2</sub> hypersensitivity in recently abstinent alcohol dependent individuals: a possible mechanism underlying the high risk for anxiety disorder among alcoholics. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders* 2004;18:159–76.
- [42] Eke M, McNally RJ. Anxiety sensitivity, suffocation fear, trait anxiety, and breath-holding duration as predictors of response to carbon dioxide challenge. *Behav Res Ther* 1996;34:603–7.
- [43] Gorman JM, Kent J, Martinez J, Browne S, Coplan J, Papp LA. Physiological changes during carbon dioxide inhalation in patients with panic disorder, major depression, and premenstrual dysphoric disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2001;58:125–31.
- [44] Biber B, Alkin T. Panic disorder subtypes: differential response to CO<sub>2</sub> challenge. *Am J Psychiatry* 1999;156:739–44.
- [45] Iacono WG, Clementz BA. A strategy for elucidating genetic influences on complex psychophysiological syndromes. In: Chapman LJ, Chapman JP, Fowles DC, editors. *Progress in experimental personality and psychopathology research*, vol 16. New York (NY): Springer, 1993. pp. 11–65.