Prader–Willi syndrome, compulsive and ritualistic behaviours: the first population-based survey

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Background Obsessive–compulsive disorder has been reported in association with Prader–Willi syndrome.

Aims To report the nature and prevalence of compulsive and similar symptoms associated with Prader–Willi syndrome in a population ascertained as completely as possible.

Method Attempted complete ascertainment of people with Prader–Willi syndrome in eight English counties. Administration of standardised rating scales and a structured interview. Comparison with people with learning disability and high body mass indices.

Results Prader–Willi syndrome was associated with high rates of ritualistic behaviours, such as the need to ask or to tell something, insistence on routines, hoarding and ordering objects and repetitive actions and speech, compared with the control group, and was negatively correlated with IQ and socialisation age. Typical obsessive–compulsive symptoms, such as checking, counting and cleaning compulsions or obsessional thoughts, were not found.

Conclusions Ritualistic and compulsive behaviours occur more frequently in association with Prader–Willi syndrome than among people with intellectual disability and significant obesity.

Declaration of interest None.

Prader–Willi syndrome (PWS) is a disorder of genetic origin. About 70% of affected people have a deletion of 15q11–13, 30% have maternal uniparental disomy and a very small proportion of people have an imprinting error affecting genes in the q11–13 area of chromosome 15. It is characterised by a drive to overeat, short stature and hypogonadism in adults, with failure to thrive, hypotonia and feeding difficulty in the neonatal period. Reports have described associations between PWS and emotional and behavioural disorders, including abnormally frequent and severe outbursts of temper, mood abnormalities, psychotic disorders and obsessive–compulsive disorder (OCD) (Whitman & Accardo, 1987; Clarke et al., 1996, 1998; Dykens et al., 1996). We describe ritualistic, compulsive and similar symptoms documented during the first population-based study of PWS in the UK. Comparisons are made with a control group of people with similar severities of learning disability and high body mass indices.

METHOD

The Cambridge University population study of PWS aimed to identify everyone with PWS who resided in the counties of Bedfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, Northamptonshire, Oxfordshire and Suffolk. Details of the method of identification are given elsewhere (Whittington et al., 2001). The study population consisted of about five million people (about one-tenth of the population of England and Wales). Contact was made with the families and carers of people with PWS and they were invited to participate in the study. The take-up rate was 64% and 65 people were identified. An additional 22 people with the syndrome were resident in the region but had moved there specifically to take up specialist services for people with PWS or were recruited specifically to take part in the study; all these additional people with PWS have been included in the present study.

Standard checklists of obsessive and compulsive symptoms were not used in this study in view of their lack of reliability and validity when used to assess people with intellectual disability. Some people with PWS included in the study had severe intellectual disability, making the assessment of aspects such as distress caused by OCD symptoms (required by most standardised checklists) almost impossible. Questions were asked in a semi-structured interview – the PWS Structured Interview Questionnaire (PWS–SIQ) – developed specifically for this survey (further details available from the author upon request). The interview lasted between 2.5 and 4 h and was, conducted with the main carer of the person with PWS. Carers were encouraged to describe all behaviours that they perceived as problematic. The questionnaire included items relating to diagnosis based on the consensus clinical criteria published by Holm et al. (1993), behavioural problems, eating behaviour (including hoarding of objects as well as food), childhood psychiatric disorders (attention-deficit, hyperactivity and autistic disorders), schooling, physical health and receipt of medication. Informant versions of the Developmental Behaviour Checklist (DBC; Einfeld & Tonge, 1993), Aberrant Behaviour Checklist (ABC; Aman et al., 1985a,b) and Vineland Adaptive Behaviour Scales (VABS; Sparrow et al., 1984) were administered. Aecdotes and examples were sought and follow-up questions were used to clarify ambiguous statements. An appropriately trained investigator (J.W.) also spent time with the person with PWS and administered the appropriate Wechsler intelligence scales and tests of attainment in reading, spelling and arithmetic. This gave an opportunity to observe the person with PWS and his or her reactions to the test situation, and provided additional information about attention and concentration. In view of the eating disorder associated with PWS, repetitive, preoccupying thoughts relating to food have been excluded from the results presented; almost everyone with PWS who was seen seemed to spend a great deal of time thinking about food.

A comparison group has been used that consists of people with learning disability and people who had volunteered to take part in the epidemiological study but who
were found on genetic or clinical grounds not to have PWS. Such a contrast group has the advantage of having similar overall severities of cognitive impairments and high body mass indices (see Table 1). The use of such a comparison group allows an estimate of the prevalence of obsessive and compulsive symptoms associated with PWS (rather than with obesity or intellectual disability). The same measures and assessments were used for the comparison group. The hypothesis that compulsive symptoms are associated with developmental delay, as suggested by Dykens et al (1996), would be consistent with an age-related decline in such symptoms, or with a ceiling effect, such that development and compulsive symptoms ‘stick’ at a stage of development that unaffected children pass through. This hypothesis was tested in the present study by correlating compulsive behaviours with chronological age, with IQ (as a measure of mental age) and with the VABS score (a measure of socialisation age).

Two measures of compulsive symptoms were formed: a simple count of the number of symptoms from the list in Table 2, plus ‘needs routine’ and ‘anticipation’ (endorsed by informants), and a weighted count in which those behaviours rated as a severe problem were given a count of 2 whereas those rated as a problem were given a count of 1. The sample was divided into the age bands 5–12 years, 13–19 years and 20 years and over. The IQ was defined as the full-scale score on the age-appropriate Wechsler ability test. Socialisation age was defined as the age-equivalent score on the VABS. Obesity was assessed using the body mass index (BMI: weight in kilograms divided by height in metres squared). For adults, the maximum BMI also was recorded, where known.

Mood swings were assessed using the sums of scores of carer-rated items relating to ‘mood swings – ever’ on the PWS–SIQ (rated 0–4) and the score on the ABC item ‘mood changes rapidly’ (for adults) or the DBC item ‘mood changes rapidly for no apparent reason’ (for children). Anxiety and depression were assessed by the sums of the scores for items ‘ever had severe anxiety lasting more than a few days’, ‘ever had severe depression lasting more than a few days’, ‘ever had other nervous problem lasting more than a few days’ (all items from the PWS–SIQ), ‘exhibits excessive unhappiness’ (VABS) and ‘depressed mood’ (ABC for adults, DBC for children). Autistic traits were assessed using the sum of the scores from six PWS–SIQ items with the stem ‘hardly ever’: ‘initiates conversation’, ‘calls attention to things’, ‘smiles in response’, ‘cooperates in play’, ‘makes eye contact’, ‘shows imaginative play’ and the items ‘has repetitive talk’ and ‘has little emotional expression’.

### RESULTS

The male/female ratio was 1.29:1 for the PWS group and 1:1 for the intellectual disability contrast group. The mean BMI was 31.6 kg m⁻² (s.d. = 11.8) for the PWS group and 28.3 kg m⁻² (s.d. = 10.1) for the intellectual disability comparison group. Information regarding the ages and IQs of the PWS and contrast groups is summarised in Table 1. The prevalence of compulsive symptoms in the PWS and contrast groups is compared in Table 2.

Compulsive symptoms did not decline with age in the PWS sample and were not correlated with obesity (BMI or maximum BMI), with (long-term) anxiety/depression or with severity of eating behaviour. The latter finding may mask a ceiling effect because all people with PWS have some problems with appetite regulation. There were significant positive correlations with (short-term) mood swings (r = 0.23 and P < 0.05 for weighted compulsion count) and autistic symptoms (r = 0.52 and P < 0.001 for weighted compulsion count). There were significant negative correlations with IQ (r = −0.30 and P = 0.008 for weighted count) and socialisation age.

### Table 1 Characteristics of Prader–Willi syndrome (PWS) and comparison groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age band</th>
<th>PWS group</th>
<th>Contrast group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0–15 years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16–30 years</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 years and over</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean age (s.d.)</td>
<td>20.8 (12.5)</td>
<td>20.2 (14.6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Not all participants agreed to provide all information (e.g. to undertake IQ testing).

### Table 2 Obsessive–compulsive symptoms rated very frequent or very severe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symptom</th>
<th>PWS (n=93)</th>
<th>PWS pop (n=68)</th>
<th>Contrast (n=42)</th>
<th>χ²</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n (%)</td>
<td>n (%)</td>
<td>n (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to ask or tell</td>
<td>36/78 (46.2)</td>
<td>27/55 (49.1)</td>
<td>4/29 (13.8)</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt; 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routines</td>
<td>26/80 (32.5)</td>
<td>17/57 (29.8)</td>
<td>4/33 (12.1)</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt; 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoarding</td>
<td>19/80 (23.7)</td>
<td>12/57 (21.1)</td>
<td>1/33 (3.0)</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt; 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetitive</td>
<td>18/80 (22.5)</td>
<td>14/57 (24.6)</td>
<td>3/33 (9.1)</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering</td>
<td>11/80 (13.7)</td>
<td>11/57 (19.3)</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>&lt; 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning</td>
<td>2/80 (2.3)</td>
<td>1/57 (1.8)</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counting</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. PWS refers to total number of people with PWS assessed.
2. PWS pop refers to people with PWS ascertained in the total population survey only.
3. The value of n varies because not all items are appropriate to all people taking part (e.g. need to ask is not applicable to people without speech).
Dykens et al (1996) described 91 people with PWS, aged 5–47 years (mean=18 years), with IQs ranging from 50 to 89 (mean=69) who were recruited at PWS Association meetings and through support groups. The findings were compared with those for 43 people who did not have intellectual disability but did have a clinical diagnosis of OCD and were recruited from three clinics for people with OCD. The PWS group were rated using a modified (informant) version of the Yale–Brown Obsessive Compulsive Scale (Y–BOCS; Goodman et al, 1989a,b), completed by their main carer; the OGD group completed the standard (self-report) version of the Y–BOCS. In both versions of the instrument, 56 symptoms were rated as being present in the past week or ever (analyses being based on the ratings for the past week). Ten additional items in the Y–BOCS rated symptom severity, including the extent to which symptoms were time-consuming, distressful, out of control or causing social or occupational impairment. Informants reported high rates in the PWS group of compulsions concerning hoarding (58%), a need to tell or ask (53%) and ordering, arranging and repeating rituals (37–38%). Other compulsions reported included cleaning (24%), counting (17%) and checking (15%). Obsessions also were reported, but these were less prevalent. Informants reported compulsive behaviours causing ‘moderate’ or ‘severe’ distress in 64% of people, adaptive impairments in 80% and excessive time consumption in 45%, using the Y–BOCS scaling. Comparisons with the OCD clinic sample indicated significant differences (P<0.05) for two compulsions that were more common in the PWS group: hoarding (79% v. 7%) and needing to tell or ask (51% v. 23%). Checking behaviour was less common in the PWS group (16% v. 55%); all other ratings did not differ significantly between the two groups.

The authors concluded that ‘increased risks of OCD are strongly indicated in people with PWS, based on the range and severity of symptoms encountered in this sample’. They noted also that some diagnostic criteria for OCD, including DSM–IV (American Psychiatric Association, 1994), do not include the criterion of the person’s recognition that their symptoms are excessive or unreasonable in the case of children, and argued that people with PWS may have less insight into their OCD symptomatology because of their cognitive limitations. Dykens et al (1996) also noted that the pattern of symptoms they found to be associated with PWS loaded on only one factor (the principal factor) that emerged from a factor analysis of Y–BOCS ratings of 107 patients with OCD (Baer, 1993). This factor includes aspects such as hoarding, repeating rituals and concerns with symmetry, exactness, ordering and arranging. Feurer et al (1998) reported that analysis of the Compulsive Behavior Checklist (CBC) scores of people with PWS yielded only one general factor, with the exception of an item relating to ‘deviant skin-grooming–skin-picking’.

Compulsive symptoms and child development

The prevalence of obsessional and compulsive symptoms varies throughout childhood. Bedtime and dressing rituals are common in early childhood (Gesell et al, 1974). Other rituals and compulsive-like phenomena may occur later in childhood. The prevalence of obsessional disorders, as distinct from compulsive acts, has been estimated at between 0.2% and 12% of clinical populations of children and adolescents (Judah, 1965; Hollingsworth et al, 1980). Zohar & Bruno (1997) studied 1083 schoolchildren aged 8–13 years in Jerusalem using the Maudsley Obsessive–Compulsive Inventory (Hodgson & Rachman, 1977). They found that obsessional ideas and compulsive behaviours were common among children at the age of 8 years, but were present in only a minority of children aged 13 years. Evans et al (1997) used the Child Routines Inventory to assess compulsive-like behaviour in children and found that children between 2 and 4 years of age had higher rates of such behaviours than children aged below 1 year or above 4 years.

Goodman et al (1989a) reported the presenting symptoms among 70 consecutive children and adolescents with a primary diagnosis of OCD and found the most common obsessions to be those concerning contamination by dirt or germs (40%), worries about something terrible happening (24%) and worries about symmetry, order and exactness (17%). The most commonly reported compulsions were those concerning excessive or ritualised hand-washing, showering, bathing, tooth-brushing or grooming (85%), repeating rituals (e.g. going in and out of a doorway) (51%) and checking compulsions.
Serotonin and compulsive and ritualistic behaviours

Obsessive–compulsive symptoms or OCD may occur in the context of depressive illness, and its response to antidepressants such as clomipramine and specific serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), as well as evidence from neurochemical studies, suggests the involvement of the serotonergic system in the genesis or maintenance of OCD (Goodman et al, 1991; Riddle et al, 1992; Zohar et al, 1987, 1988). Although abnormalities in serotonergic systems seem to play a part in the genesis of some OCDs, it seems likely that the anti-obsessional effect of drugs acting on serotonergic systems may result from alterations in the balance between serotonin and other neurotransmitters, or changes in receptor functioning (Murphy et al, 1989). One study has reported abnormal serotonin turnover associated with PWS, with increased concentrations of serotonin metabolites in the cerebrospinal fluid of children and adolescents with PWS compared with comparison groups (Akefiedt et al, 1998).

Oxytocin

Leckman et al (1994) reported elevated cerebrospinal fluid oxytocin concentrations in association with OCD in people without intellectual disability. A reduction in the number of oxytocin-containing neurons in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypophalamsus has been found in post-mortem studies of some people with PWS (Swaab et al, 1995).

Genetics

Prader–Willi syndrome is thought to result from genomic imprinting, with the absence of the paternal contribution to genes in the 15q11q13 area of chromosome 15. The finding of high rates of ritualistic behaviour, together with other reports of psychiatric disorder associated with the syndrome, may be of relevance to understanding the genetic and metabolic basis of such disorders in the general population.

REFERENCES


