



Sleep quality relates to language impairment in children with autism spectrum disorder without intellectual disability

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ABSTRACT

Objectives: This study aimed to identify sleep quality profiles of children with autism spectrum disorder (ASD), to compare these profiles with those of typically developing (TD) children, and to verify whether there are differences between them in terms of language skills.

Methods: We evaluated the sleep quality and language skills of 47 children with ASD without intellectual disability (ID) and 32 children with TD. Using a hierarchical cluster analysis, we identified two sleep quality ASD profiles (poor and good). We then performed a series of MANCOVAs and ANOVAs to compare the sleep quality and language skills of the two ASD clusters and the TD group.

Results: A main group effect (TD, “poor” cluster, and “good” cluster) was found in the total sleep quality and all its dimensions. Significant differences were revealed between the “good” and “poor” clusters in the total structural language score ($F_{1,46} = 10.75$, $p < 0.001$) and three of its subscales (speech: $F_{1,46} = 9.19$, $p < 0.001$; syntax, $F_{1,46} = 8.61$, $p = 0.001$; coherence: $F_{1,46} = 11.36$, $p < 0.001$); the total pragmatic language score ($F_{1,46} = 7.00$, $p = 0.001$) and three of its subscales (inappropriate initiation: $F_{1,46} = 8.02$, $p = 0.001$; use of context: $F_{1,46} = 8.07$, $p = 0.001$; nonverbal communication: $F_{1,46} = 7.35$, $p = 0.001$); and the social relations score ($F_{1,46} = 9.97$, $p = 0.003$).

Conclusions: Sleep quality in children with ASD (especially a subgroup) is worse than in children with TD. There is an association between sleep quality and language skills, both at the pragmatic and structural levels.

1. Introduction

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a complex neurodevelopmental condition characterized by clinically significant impairment in the social communication and interaction domains, as well as restricted, and repetitive behavioral patterns and interests (DSM-V [1]). In addition to core symptoms, a wide range of comorbid conditions are present in 95% of children with ASD [2,3]. The increasing prevalence of ASD over the last decades (between 1/34 and 1/76 according to Ref. [4]; 1/54 according to Ref. [5]; 1/71 according to Ref. [6]), makes it necessary a careful scientific evaluation of the relationship between core ASD impairments and the wide variety of co-occurring conditions [7].

Two of the most common ASD co-occurring conditions are: sleep

disturbances [2,8,9] and specific language impairments, other than the symptoms considered central to the diagnosis of the disorder [10–13]. In children with ASD, impairments in social interactions, based on the difficulty in interpreting the thinking of the interlocutor, converge with difficulties in the pragmatic component of language, i.e., in the effective use of language for acts of communication. Although structural language difficulties (form and semantics) are not considered central features of the disorder they often appear as co-occurring symptoms. Language impairments are often accompanied by intellectual disability, although the level of severity vary widely across individuals meeting diagnostic criteria for ASD. Some individuals are nonverbal with severe intellectual disability, while others have mild language impairment and mild intellectual disability. Language impairment can also co-occur with ASD

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independently of intellectual disability (ID), measured as intelligence quotient (IQ). Indeed, some individuals with ASD, without intellectual disability, still show language impairments and poor performance in various cognitive processes that could be related to other comorbid conditions as sleep problems.

1.1. Sleep problems in ASD

Over the past two decades, interest in the study of sleep disorders in children with neurodevelopmental disorders, specifically ASD, has increased as a result of the awareness of their critical impact on the daily life and wellbeing of children and their families. Research on ASD and sleep covers different aspects such as: the prevalence and types of sleep problems; the coexistence and relationships with other impairments; the impact on the quality of life of individuals with ASD and their caregivers; and the efficacy of the different types of treatment available [9].

Regarding the prevalence and types of sleep problems, several studies have shown that children and adolescents with ASD present higher rates and greater complexity than children and adolescents with typical development (TD; 50%–80% versus 35%–46% according to Ref. [9]). A recent systematic review [14] of case-control studies, that considered both objective parameters from sleep EEG and polysomnography, and subjective parameters from sleep questionnaires, concluded that children and adolescents with ASD experience a higher rate of both qualitative and quantitative sleep disturbances than children and adolescents with TD. The objective measures showed that ASD children have greater difficulties in initiating and maintaining sleep than TD children: shorter total sleep time (TST), higher sleep latency (SL) and higher number of wakefulness after sleep onset (WASO). These results were consistent with subjective parental reporting of higher bedtime resistance, higher sleep onset delay and higher night waking activities. Many other studies demonstrate that the sleep disturbances most commonly experienced by children with ASD include trouble for setting the time to go sleep (bedtime resistance), and for falling asleep (delayed sleep latency), as well as reduced sleep efficiency, mainly due to night awakenings, parasomnias, sleep-disordered breathing and sleep wake transition disorders [15–17].

According to previous literature there are connections between decreased sleep quality and/or sleep deprivation, and a general intensification of ASD symptoms [18–21], especially communication problems [22–25]. Moreover, improving sleep has been found to have beneficial effects in ameliorating stereotyped and rigid behaviors [26, 27]. As sleep is a behavioral and emotional regulator, poor sleep quality also can worsen other internalizing and externalizing problems of children with ASD such as anxiety and mood symptoms [28–30], negative affect and challenging behaviors [31,32], irritability, aggression, and self-injury [32–34]. In turn, emotional dysregulation and behavioral maladjustments hinder communication with parents and lead to poor sleep hygiene, which according to McLay et al. [35] perpetuates sleep problems in children with ASD. It is also well established that co-occurring sleep problems in ASD endure from childhood to adolescence playing a negative role in synaptic plasticity during development, which is critical for daytime cognitive and adaptive functioning [36]. Altogether, available evidence suggests that the relationship between sleep and autism symptoms is bidirectional [37,38].

1.2. Language impairment in ASD

Children and adolescents with ASD often show language impairments, coexisting with social communication problems which is a core symptom of this neurodevelopmental disorder [11]. Language is supported by different structural and pragmatic skills. Structure refers to form (e.g., phonology, morphology, syntax) and content (semantics), whereas pragmatics has to do with the appropriate use of language in social or situational contexts. There is great variability among individuals with ASD in terms of the type and severity of language

impairments, depending on variables such as age, intellectual level or other coexisting development problems [39,40]. Indeed, the linguistic profile of ASD varies significantly as they get older. In the preschool stage children with ASD show difficulties in pragmatic and structural language, like children with specific language disorder, which could lead to a misdiagnosis [41]. When they reach the school stage the structural deficiencies improve, relative to other language impairments, while the pragmatic ones acquire more prominence [42]. In recent years, copious studies have been published on pragmatic language impairments, which are considered a universal feature of ASD. However, research on structural language has received little attention despite the fact that it is also commonly affected in ASDs. Pragmatic language has been linked to social skills [43] to explain the foundations of effective social communication. Interestingly, there is also evidence that pragmatic competence can be predicted using theory of mind (ToM), working memory, and structural language [10,13]. Consistently, some studies suggest that there is a link between structural language deficits and social skills in ASD that is mediated by reduced pragmatic competence [39,43]. Therefore, when approaching the study of language impairments in ASD, it is essential to take into account the relationship between pragmatic and structural aspects, as well as the relationship with other skills and coexisting problems. In the next section we will take a closer look at the relationship between sleep quality and language skills in children with ASD.

1.3. The relationship between sleep and language in ASD

As stated above, sleep problems and language impairments are two of the most common coexisting conditions on ASD. On the one hand, children with ASD can show language difficulties independently of intellectual disability. On the other hand, poor sleep quality is a good predictor of various behavioral, emotional, and cognitive problems. However, the association between sleep quality and language impairment in children with ASD without ID is poorly understood and further evidence is needed in this regard.

Several studies using experimental and survey-based methodology have shown the crucial role of sleep for phoneme recognition, vocabulary retention, and semantic knowledge in general population (e.g. Ref. [44]) and ASD [45,46]. Thereby, sleep quality can be a risk predictor for developmental delays and impairments in language acquisition and use. This idea is supported by a longitudinal study recently published [8] which compared the developmental trajectories of children with ASD with and without sleep problems. More than a thousand participants were assessed once every three months for three years. The results showed that participants without sleep problems developed faster compared to participants with sleep problems in all measured indicators, including receptive and expressive language. Similarly, Knowland et al. [47] analysed parent-reported day-time and night-time sleep duration of 354 children over five time points between 6 and 36 months-of-age. The sample included participants of relatively low socioeconomic status (SES), of various ethnicities, with and without neurodevelopmental disorders. They found that more night-time sleep relative to day-time sleep predicted better receptive vocabulary at age five.

1.4. Current study

The findings presented in the previous section on the relationship between sleep quality and language skills come from highly diverse samples in terms of age and developmental characteristics. Furthermore, sleep quality research is characterized by considerable variability in terms of methodology rigor and mixed results in the literature. It is likely that the divergent results found in different research can be explained, at least in part, by the use of different evaluation measures, as well as by the diversity of sleep problems and cognitive levels studied. Therefore, measures of sleep quality, along with different types of sleep problems

and cognitive levels, should be taken into account to identify more homogeneous profiles. A cluster analysis may be an appropriate methodology to establish different profiles of sleep quality within ASD when attempting to analyze the relationships between sleep problems and other common difficulties in this disorder, such as language and communication skills.

The present study is an attempt to shed light on the role of sleep quality in the structural and pragmatic language skills of children with ASD without intellectual disability. Specifically, it was designed to address the following objectives: 1) To identify profiles of children with ASD without ID, based on their parents' report sleep quality, and to compare these profiles with TD children. Consistent with previous literature, this study hypothesizes that children with ASD will have a lower sleep quality than the TD group.

2) To explore the differences in language skills among the identified profiles, which constitutes the most relevant contribution of this study. Given the important role that sleep has for the development of cognitive processes involved in language and communication skills, we expect that the profile with lower sleep quality will show more impairments not only in the pragmatic language skills but also in the structural ones.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Participants were 47 children with ASD without ID and 32 TD children between 8 and 12 years old (see Table 1).

This study was conducted using a non-probabilistic convenience sampling. The clinical sample was recruited from clinical health centers. The clinical diagnosis was established based on the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders- Fifth Edition, DSM-5 [1], the Autistic Diagnostic Interview—Revised (ADI-R [48]), and/or the Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule-WPS (ADOS-WPS [49]). Both measures were administered to parents and children by two psychologists certified in these tests. The Social Communication Questionnaire (SCQ [50]) was administered, considering the recommended cut-off points.

The children with TD were recruited throughout public schools that agreed to participate in the present study. None of them presented a history of psychopathologies or criteria for ASD or ADHD diagnosis according to DSM-5 and none of them were taking any psychoactive medication. The exclusion criteria for all groups were: having an IQ less than 80, having motor or sensorial deficits, and having mental or neurological diseases.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. The Sleep Disturbance Scale for Children

(SDSC [51]; is a 26-item parent-reported questionnaire that assesses the occurrence of sleep disturbances during the last 6 months in children

aged 6–16 years. The 26 items are rated on a 5-point scale (never to always), yielding a continuous variable ranging from 26 to 130 with higher values reflecting a greater severity of symptoms. The first two questions measure the total sleep time and latency to sleep onset. The remaining items, assess the frequency of sleep-related behaviors between conditions on six subscales: disorders of initiating and maintaining sleep (DIMS); sleep breathing disorders (SBD); disorders of arousal (sleepwalking, sleep terrors) (DA); sleep–wake transition disorders (SWTD); disorders of excessive somnolence (DOES); and sleep hyperhidrosis (falling asleep sweating and night sweating) (SHY). A total sleep disturbances score was obtained by summing all subscale scores. The internal consistency was $\alpha = 0.79$ and test–retest reliability $r = 0.71$ over a 6-month interval [51]. For this study we use the Spanish version form Pagerols et al. [52] with good internal consistency (0.82).

2.2.2. The Children's Communication Checklist

(CCC-2 [53]) provides information about communication characteristics in subjects from 4 to 11 years old. The frequency of the behaviors described in each item included in the CCC-2 is rated on a 4-point scale; a high score indicates greater communication problems. In addition, the 70 items included in the CCC-2 are grouped in 10 subscales that measure different communicative aspects: four scales assess the structure of the language (speech, syntax, semantics, coherence), four scales assess pragmatic language (inappropriate initiation, stereotyped language, the use of context, and non-verbal communication), and two scales assess the behaviors that are affected in children with ASD (social relationships and interests).

Internal consistency reliability coefficients for the CCC-2 range from 0.77 to 0.85 for all subscales across age groups [53] The scales also have good reliability in the sample of the present study (Cronbach's alpha: 0.932). This specific grouping, although not contemplated in the CCC-2, has been used in other previous studies [54].

2.2.3. The Clinical Evaluation of Language Function, 5th edition observation rating scale [CELF-5 ORS]

[55]. The CELF is an individually administered assessment tool designed for the diagnosis and evaluation of language and communication disorders in individuals 5–21 years of age. The measure is often used for the purpose of identifying and detailing the nature of language problems, determining eligibility for special education services. The CELF-5 proposes a stepwise evaluation process that reflects best practices in education for identifying struggling students as well as potential classroom supports. The suggested process begins with the Observational Rating Scale (ORS), which guides the observation of naturalistic speech, language, and communication behaviors. The ORS was used in the present study. Specifically, the ORS is comprised of a total of 40 descriptive statements reported by parents or teachers to rate children communication behavior, that are categorized into four general areas as follows: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The respondent is asked to rate each of the statements by indicating the frequency of the problem (never 0, sometimes 1, often 3, and always 4). Therefore, the higher the total score, the more language and communication are affected. For the present investigation only parent ratings of the ORS were collected. Research has shown good validity and reliability for both the ORS [56]. Alphas for parent report by category ranged from 0.86 (Listening), to 0.95 (Writing), indicating good to excellent internal consistency for each category.

2.3. Procedure

The present study follows the statements of the Ethics Committee of the Universitat de València (UV-INV_ETICA-1905517). The parents provided their oral and written informed consent. The evaluation was carried out in a room of the Faculty of Psychology. All the measures were administered to parents and children by two trained psychologists. The parents (mostly mothers) provided information about their children's

Table 1
Mean and standard deviation of the raw scores on sociodemographic characteristics.

	TD (n = 32) Mean (SD)	ASD (n = 47) Mean (SD)	t ₍₇₈₎	χ^2	p
Age (years)	8.75 (1.22)	9.37 (1.75)	1.56	–	0.011
IQ	100.4 (8.22)	98.37 (10.92)	0.93	–	0.109
Sex (% boys)	65.6%	89.3%		6.64	0.010*
P. Education	3.27 (0.95)	3.05 (1.09)	0.57	–	0.561
Medication (% yes)	0.0%	41.7%			
Sleep problems	31.78 (4.07)	49.40 (3.81)	–6.44		<0.01*
Vocabulary level	13.02 (2.75)	11.89 (3.24)	–1.02		0.280
ADI-R	–	28.3 (5.7)			
SCQ	2.9 (2.5)	21.7 (6.3)	16.03		<0.01*

Note. P. Education (Parental education), SCQ (Social Communication Questionnaire)*p < 0.05.

language and communication skills, ASD symptoms, and sleep quality.

2.4. Data analysis

The statistical analyses were performed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS v 26.0. IBM, Barcelona, Spain 2012). First, all the data were checked for multicollinearity and multivariate outliers. The asymmetry and kurtosis data indicate that most of the variables followed a normal distribution (all values between -1 and 1). Variables that did not show a normal distribution were transformed using square-root transformation. To explore distinct profiles (i.e., subgroups) of sleep quality in ASD, and TD groups we performed hierarchical cluster analysis. The input for this analysis included the different domains of the sleep quality.

We evaluated hierarchical clustering using multiple internal validity measures. Specifically, we varied the number of clusters from two to three, and the optimal N -cluster solution was determined based on visual inspection of the dendrogram figure and the agglomeration coefficients. Additionally, we also carried out the same procedure with non-hierarchical clustering, namely, K-means, because this procedure allows us to specify the number of clusters in advance. Lastly, to fit the optimal cluster analysis solution, we used the variance ratio criterion (VRC) for each selected cluster. The VRC refers to the ratio of the ‘within variance’ (variance explained by the typology) and ‘between variance’, corrected for the number of clusters and responses. The two-cluster solution seemed to be optimal in the hierarchical cluster analysis, based on Ward’s method, and the VRC showed a lower score for two solutions [57].

After analyzing the resulting dendrogram and data, the decision was made to group the children with autism in two clusters, controlling for medication (MANCOVAs). Cluster solutions were interpreted as poor and good sleep quality. Then, we checked the possible differences between the Clusters obtained and a control group with TD. The main advantages of cluster-level strategy in exploratory data analysis are their simplicity and applicability to different types of outcomes [58].

Finally, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted to determine the differences between the children in the cluster groups on language and communication skills measures; the Children’s Communication Checklist –CCC–2 (speech, syntax, semantics, coherence, inappropriate initiation, stereotyped language, the use of context, and non-verbal communication, social relationships, interests, structural language, and pragmatic language) and the CELF-ORS (total score). The proportion of total variance accounted for by the independent variables was calculated using partial eta squared (according to Ref. [59]: eta squared, 0.06 = small; 0.06 – 0.14 = medium, 0.14 = large).

Open practice statement: The dataset is openly available at <https://zenodo.org/records/10840174?preview=1>

3. Results

3.1. Demographic information

The results of demographics revealed that the mean age of the group with autism was 8.75 , SD (1.22) and that of the TD group was 9.37 , SD (1.75). There were no statistical differences between both groups on IQ (measured by the K-BIT [60]), age, and their level on a Vocabulary subtest from the WISC-IV [61] [$t(78) = -1.02$, $p = .28$]. Moreover, 21 of the participants in TD group and 42 in the ASD group were boys. The prevalence of sleep problems in the participants was: TD ($n = 7$, 21.8%), ASD ($n = 32$, 68.1% ; see Table 1).

3.2. Profiles of sleep quality in children with ASD without ID comparison of profiles with TD

The first goal of the analysis was to examine whether children with ASD were more likely to cluster into a single group or multiple groups on

the basis of measures of sleep quality, and to compare their sleep quality with the TD group.

Results from the hierarchical cluster analysis with the children’s sleep quality determined an optimal number of clusters in two groupings, distinguished by the tendency of their scores on the variables included in the analysis: DIMS, SBD, DA, SWTD, DOES, SHY, and total sleep quality. Cluster 1 ($n = 24$; 51.06%) presented good scores of sleep quality. By contrast, Cluster 2 ($n = 23$; 48.93%) showed poor scores than Cluster 1 on all the sleep quality dimensions measured.

A Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) controlling for medication was conducted to determine the significant differences between the two clusters in the sleep quality dimensions considered and TD group. Based on the described patterns of sleep quality dimensions, Cluster 1 was labeled “good”, and Cluster 2 was called the “poor” group (see Table 2). The scatterplot (Fig. 1) helped us visualize how sets of data are related. REGR scores represent the coefficient of regression equation for each cluster.

The MANCOVA conducted to assess the main group effect among the three groups was statistically significant [Wilk’s Lambda (Λ) = 0.117 , $F_{(14,140)} = 19.74$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.66$]. ANCOVAs showed statistically significant differences on all dimension of sleep quality: DIMS, $F_{2,76} = 52.26$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.58$; SBD, $F_{2,76} = 7.81$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.17$; DA, $F_{2,76} = 36.98$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.49$; SWTD, $F_{2,76} = 19.83$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.34$; DOES, $F_{2,76} = 15.05$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.28$ and SHY, $F_{2,76} = 5.84$, $p = 0.004$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.13$.

Statistically significant differences were also found on the total sleep quality, $F_{2,76} = 229.09$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.85$ (Table 2).

Tukey post-hoc analyses showed statistically significant differences between the three groups on DIMS dimension and the Total score of sleep quality. Therefore, there were statistically significant differences between Cluster 1 “good” and Cluster 2 “poor” and between the two cluster of sleep quality in children with ASD and the TD group.

A similar pattern was observed in the other dimensions of sleep quality. Specifically, there were significant differences between Cluster 1 “good” and Cluster 2 “poor” in all sleep quality dimensions, and there were significant differences between Cluster 2 “poor” and TD group in all sleep quality dimensions. In contrast, the Cluster 1 “good”, in comparison with the TD group, did not reveal statistically significant differences in the sleep quality dimension of sleep breathing, disorders of arousal, sleep-wake transitions, somnolence and hyperhidrosis. Fig. 2 shows the comparisons of the mean scores of the two ASD clusters and the TD group.

3.3. Differences in language and communication skills across the profiles of children with ASD

Table 3 presents the comparison of two Clusters of ASD, Cluster 1 “good” and Cluster 2 “poor”, on language and communication abilities. The analysis of variance revealed statistically significant differences between the two clusters in three scales of structural language after applying Bonferroni correction (<0.003): Speech: $F_{1,46} = 9.19$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.35$; Syntax, $F_{1,46} = 8.61$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.34$; Coherence: $F_{1,46} = 11.36$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.38$; and the total structural language score: $F_{1,46} = 10.75$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.37$.

Similarly, the pragmatic scales that remained significant between the two Clusters were: Inappropriate initiation: $F_{1,46} = 8.02$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.33$; use of context: $F_{1,46} = 8.07$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.33$; nonverbal communication: $F_{1,46} = 7.35$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.32$ and the pragmatic language total score: $F_{1,46} = 7.00$, $p = 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.31$.

Moreover, Social relations scale showed statistically significant differences between the two clusters: $F_{1,46} = 9.97$, $p = 0.003$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.17$. However, there were not significant differences between Cluster 1 “good” and Cluster 2 “poor” in the CELF-ORS (Table 3).

Table 2
Mean of Sleep Quality according to Cluster membership.

Measure	Cluster 1 Good (n = 24) M SD		Cluster 2 Poor (n = 23) M SD		TD (n = 32) M SD		$F_{(2,76)}$	p	η^2_p	TukeyPostHoc
DIMS	11.63	4.37	17.70	5.12	6.78	2.15	52.26	0.001*	0.58	CL2>CL1>TD
SBD	3.83	1.24	4.96	1.99	3.5	0.84	7.81	0.001*	0.17	CL2>CL1, TD
DA	4.04	1.68	6.91	2.19	3.28	0.81	36.98	0.001*	0.49	CL2>CL1, TD
SWTD	10.13	4.05	13.91	3.98	8.06	2.26	19.83	0.001*	0.34	CL2>CL1, TD
DOES	7.50	2.83	11.52	3.45	7.03	3.21	15.05	0.001*	0.28	CL2>CL1, TD
SHY	2.88	1.30	4.39	1.99	3.13	1.60	5.84	0.004*	0.13	CL2>CL1, TD
T. Sleep q	41.96	8.10	76.61	10.96	31.78	4.07	229.09	0.001*	0.85	CL2>CL1>TD

Note. DIMS (Disorders of initiating and maintaining sleep), SBD (sleep breathing disorders), DA (disorders of arousal), SWTD (sleep-wake transition disorders), DOES (disorders of excessive somnolence), SHY (sleep hyperhidrosis), T. Sleep q (total sleep quality) * $p < .05$.

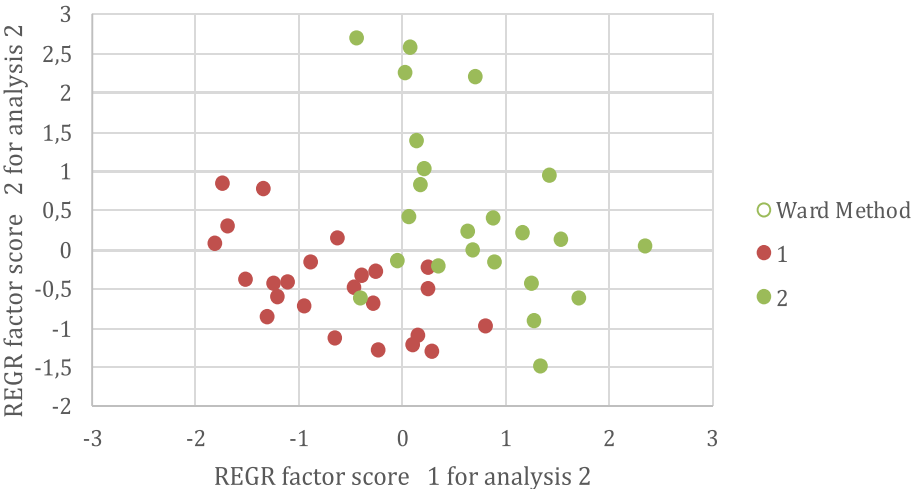


Fig. 1. Scatterplot of pairwise comparisons between clusters on Sleep quality subscales in ASD group.

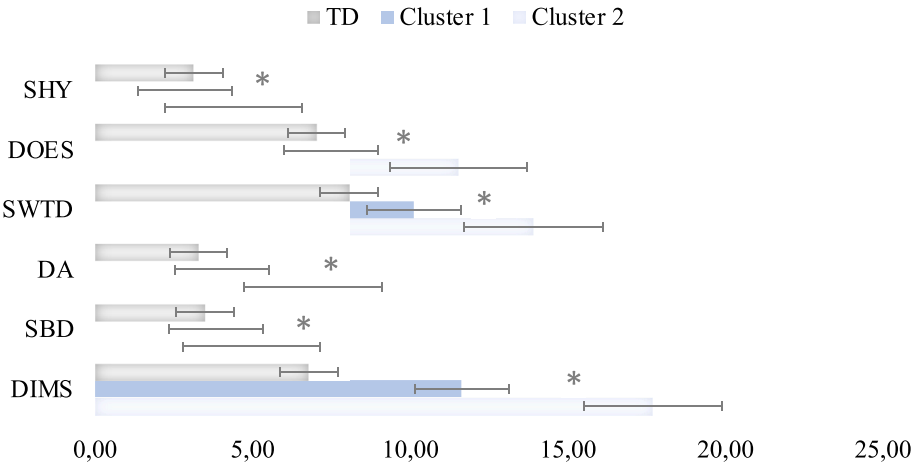


Fig. 2. Means of the clusters 1, 2 and TD on children sleep quality parents' report.

4. Discussion

The aims of the present study were to identify sleep quality profiles of children with ASD without ID, to compare these profiles with those of TD children, and to verify if there are differences between the identified clusters in terms of language skills. To this end, we evaluated the sleep quality and language skills of 47 children with ASD without ID and 32 children with TD, between 8 and 12 years old. Two sleep quality profiles (poor and good) were identified within the group of participants with ASD. A main group effect (TD, “poor” cluster, and “good” cluster) was found in the total sleep quality and all its dimensions. Pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between the two cluster of the

ASD group (good and poor) as well as between these both clusters and the TD group, in the total score and the DIMS dimension of the SDSC [51]. For the rest of the sleep quality dimensions (SBD, DA, SWTD, DOES, SHY), significant differences were found between the two clusters of the ASD group, as well as between the poor sleep quality cluster and the TD group, but not between the good sleep quality cluster and the TD group. In summary, the sleep quality of children with ASD was worse than that of children with TD, and among children with ASD a subgroup with especially poor sleep quality was clearly distinguished. Regarding language measures, significant differences were revealed between the “good” and “poor” clusters in the total structural language score and three of its subscales (speech, syntax, coherence), the total pragmatic

Table 3
Mean of language and communication skills in children with ASD according to Cluster attribution (good/poor sleep quality).

	Cluster 1 Good		Cluster 2 Poor (n = 23)		F (1, 46)	p	η^2p
	M	SD	M	SD			
Speech	3.96	5.03	8.22	4.58	9.19	0.00*	0.35
Syntax	4.88	5.02	8.87	4.26	8.61	0.01*	0.34
Semantics	6.54	4.76	9.43	3.69	5.38	0.03	0.28
Coherence	8.63	4.55	12.65	3.56	11.36	0.00*	0.38
Inappropriate I.	10.75	4.64	13.87	2.58	8.02	0.01*	0.33
Stereotyped L.	7.42	4.00	10.09	4.03	5.19	0.03	0.28
Use of context	10.13	4.39	13.22	2.89	8.07	0.01*	0.33
Nonverbal C.	9.33	4.99	12.48	2.50	7.35	0.01*	0.32
Social relations	8.67	4.87	11.78	2.92	7.00	0.01*	0.31
Interests	11.46	4.63	13.22	3.74	2.04	0.16	0.19
Structural L	24.00	17.7	39.17	13.63	10.75	0.00*	0.37
Pragmatic L	37.63	14.9	49.65	8.16	11.61	0.00*	0.40
CELF-ORS	55.88	12.5	58.70	14.61	0.51	0.48	0.13

Note. CELF-ORS (Clinical Evaluation of Language Function - Observational Rating Scale), Stereotyp L (Stereotyped language) Inappropriate I. (inappropriate initiation), Stereotyped L. (stereotyped language), Nonverbal C. (nonverbal communication), Structural L (language), M (Mean), SD (standard deviation).
* $p < 0.003$ (Bonferroni correction).

language score and three of its subscales (inappropriate initiation, use of context, and nonverbal communication), and the social relations score.

As discussed above, decreased sleep quality and/or sleep deprivation has been repeatedly associated with a deterioration of core ASD symptoms, prominent among which are communication problems [22–25]. Specifically, poor sleep quality has been linked with difficulties in expressive, receptive, and social language [62]. In addition, several studies have shown the essential role of sleep for language learning and consolidation [44,63–66]; and have identified poor sleep quality as a risk predictor for developmental delays and impairments in language acquisition [8,41,47]. Taken together, the findings of the current study provide additional empirical support for the association between sleep quality and language skills, both at a pragmatic and structural level. Our results should be interpreted taking into account that we have used a cross-sectional design, and therefore it is not possible to establish causal relationships. In addition, we can reach conclusions about the relationship between sleep quality and language use, but not between sleep quality and language development. Likewise, the possible causality of these relationships must be interpreted with caution given that a non-experimental methodology has been used. Indeed, previous literature suggests a complex relationship between sleep problems and autism symptoms [37,38]. For example, behavioral maladjustments can hinder communication with parents and lead to poor sleep hygiene, which in turn can perpetuate sleep problems in children with ASD [35]. Regarding the specific mechanisms underlying the relationship between sleep quality and language we can consider different alternatives. On the one hand, it is reasonable to assume that children with impaired language have more difficulty conveying their needs and discomfort at bedtime, leading to a poorer sleep quality. On the other hand, it is known that poor sleep quality affects brain areas involved in executive functioning, learning skills, sustained attention, working memory and cognitive procedural memory. The deterioration of these cognitive functions also plays a role in language skills that could be mediated by sleep problems. For example, Tesfaye et al. [67] found that the quantity and quality of sleep were related to the executive function involved in the behavioral regulation of ASDs, which in turn is related to difficulties at the pragmatic level [68]. Similarly, Calhoun et al. [69] reported that working memory correlated significantly with expressive language and language comprehension in a group of adolescents with clinically elevated sleep disturbances. Future research should analyze the possible mediating or modulating role of sleep quality in the relationship

between cognitive processes, such as executive functioning and working memory, and language impairment at both a pragmatic and structural level. Consequently, if direct or indirect associations exist between sleep problems and language development, early intervention to prevent poor language development should promote sleep quality. In this regard, various therapies have been proposed to improve sleep in children with ASD, some of which such as melatonin, behavioral interventions, and educational programs have proven to be effective in improving multiple domains of sleep problems (see also [70], for a practice guideline to the treatment of sleep problems in ASD.). Recently, incipient evidence has also been obtained on the feasibility and effectiveness of cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) for the treatment of insomnia in children and adolescents with ASD. A pilot study involving 17 school-aged children with autism and insomnia showed significant improvements in objective and subjective measures of sleep quality, as well as other symptoms (irritability, lethargy, stereotypy, and hyperactivity), after a CBT intervention of 8 sessions [71]. In another recent study [72], six adolescents with ASD followed an internet-delivered CBT treatment for insomnia. Both quantitative and qualitative results showed that the participants were satisfied with the intervention, had improved their knowledge about their sleep patterns, and had reduced their symptoms of insomnia.

This study is not without limitations. First, the small sample size and the sampling method may compromise the generalizability of the results. Secondly, most of our informants were mothers, so it would be necessary to also include the perceptions of fathers or siblings in order to have a more global vision of sleep problems and their impact on language. The next step in this line of research should be aimed at generalizing the results of the pilot studies through a randomized controlled trial study, to verify the impact of different types of intervention, not only on the symptoms of insomnia and the quality of life, but also about the different variables of language. This will allow us to delve deeper into the causal relationships between sleep quality and language. Another issue to consider for future research is the inclusion of objective measures of sleep along with the parent report. In the present study we used the Sleep Disturbance Scale for Children (SDSC [51]) in which parents are asked to estimate the frequency of different sleep-related disorders. Future studies should comprehensively explore this construct, and accurately address the measurement of all its dimensions, using objective indicators such as actigraphy or polysomnography.

Finally, the present study also has important clinical implications. Difficulties in language development are associated with poor academic performance and negative long-term outcomes, in work, educational, and social settings [73]. Children with ASD often has marked language difficulties that compromise their opportunities in different areas of life. On the other hand, children with ASD have a higher prevalence of sleep problems than children with TD, which worsens their quality of life and that of their family. Furthermore, the results of the present study show a relationship between these two problems that frequently coexist with the core symptoms of ASD. Therefore, when evaluating the symptoms associated with ASD, it is necessary to consider sleep problems and their direct or indirect repercussions on language skills. Research on the causes and possible treatments for sleep problems in ASD is promising but still nascent. Future research should test the effectiveness of treatments, such as those based on CBT, not only on the quality of life of individuals with ASD and their families, but also on different cognitive processes. It is essential to examine if promotion of sleep quality enhance language development and use, both in a direct manner or through the improvement of other cognitive processes such as working memory or executive functioning.

5. Conclusion

Our results show that the sleep quality of children with ASD is worse than that of children with TD, and that there is an association between sleep quality and language skills, both at the pragmatic and structural

levels. These results have several implications: i) the importance of taking sleep problems into account when evaluating symptoms associated with ASD; ii) the need to further examine the direct and indirect relationships of sleep quality with language; iii) the need to test the effectiveness of treatments to improve sleep quality, such as those based on CBT, on quality of life and language.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Carmen Berenguer: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Software, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Eva Rosa:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Software, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Simona De Stasio:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Formal analysis. **Nora Choque Olsson:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Formal analysis.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: Carmen Berenguer reports financial support was provided by Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación, Spain.

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