



REVIEW ARTICLE

Sleep disturbances in Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder

CÁTIA ALVES MOREIRA*

Psychiatry Department, Lisbon Central Psychiatric Hospital

PEDRO AFONSO

Department of Psychiatry and Psychology, Faculty of Medicine, University of Lisbon

Abstract: Introduction: Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is characterized by a set of symptoms that occur following exposure to a traumatic event. These include re-experiencing the trauma, avoidance of stimuli related to it, and persistent symptoms of hypervigilance. PTSD is also associated with major sleep disturbances and these disturbances have a significant impact on quality of life and prognosis.

Objectives: Our aim was to review the main changes in sleep pattern observed in bipolar disorder, the physiopathological mechanisms involved in those changes and their clinical impact.

Methods: A non-systematic review of the literature in English was carried out by searching PubMed with the key words “sleep disturbance”, “post traumatic stress disorder” and “polysomnography”.

Results: Complaints of altered sleep patterns include nightmares, insomnia, frequent nocturnal waking, poor sleep quality, a decrease in total sleep time (TST) and an increase in stage N1 of NREM sleep, with a decrease in stage N2. As regards REM sleep, previously mentioned changes previously observed on polysomnography (an increase in its density and percentage) proved inconsistent.

Discussion and conclusions: Correcting the sleep disturbances observed in PTSD should be considered a therapeutic priority, as it prevents the recurrence of symptoms of the disorder and facilitates socio-professional integration, leading to greater success in rehabilitation and improved quality of life for these patients.

Keywords: “post-traumatic stress disorder”, “sleep disorder”, “polysomnography”, “sleep”.

Introduction

Initially termed “shell shock”, post-traumatic stress disorder was described for the first time in World War I in relation to the psychiatric clinical picture seen in some soldiers following exposure to an adverse environment during the war¹. Later, in 1952, at the time of publication of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM)-I, it was referred to as “gross stress reaction”. It was not until a number of years later that PTSD was defined, filling an important gap in clinical psychiatry².

PTSD is currently defined as a clinical syndrome characterized by a set of core symptoms that occur following exposure to a traumatic event. These symptoms include re-experiencing the trauma, avoidance of stimuli related to the trauma, and persistent symptoms of hyperarousal^{3,4}. Sleep disturbances are also recognized as one of the core symptoms of this syndrome and are thus an integral part

of the current “re-experiencing” and “arousal/reactivity” criteria of PTSD (DSM-5)³.

The epidemiological data available show that approximately 70-91% of patients with PTSD suffer from sleep disturbances^{4,5}. Difficulty falling asleep or remaining asleep occurs in approximately 50% of patients, and nightmares may occur in 19-71% of patients, depending on the severity of illness, exposure to trauma and subsequent concomitant physical attacks⁵⁻⁸. In addition, violent behaviors during sleep, sleep paralysis, sleep-walking and hypnagogic/hypnopompic hallucinations are prevalent in this pathology^{5,6}.

In clinical practice, complaints of sleep disturbances are recurrent: this is the second most common reason for referral of patients with PTSD to mental health departments⁹. Generally speaking, these patients report nightmares, difficulty falling asleep and, in some cases, sleep paralysis.

* Correspondence to: catia.a.a.moreira@gmail.com

If left untreated, sleep disturbances may persist for years and worsen the symptoms of PTSD, as well as psychiatric comorbidities. This happens because sleep has a restorative function and affects emotional regulation⁹⁻¹¹. In addition, sleep disturbances may affect emotional processing of traumatic experiences and contribute to a worse prognosis of the disorder⁹. In this case, insomnia is common and may interfere negatively with the quality of life of these patients^{12,13}. However, many patients with PTSD show alcohol abuse and dependence, which makes a more precise diagnosis of sleep disturbances problematic¹⁴.

Correcting the sleep disturbances observed in PTSD should be considered a therapeutic priority given that, as well as preventing the recurrence of symptoms of the disorder; adjustment of the sleep-wake rhythm may facilitate social integration and consequently lead to greater success in rehabilitation and an improvement in the quality of life of these patients.

Objectives

The authors of this paper aim to review the main sleep disturbances observed in PTSD, the pathophysiological mechanisms involved in those disturbances, their clinical impact and the corresponding treatment.

Material and methods

A non-systematic review of the literature in English was carried out by searching PubMed (<http://www.pubmed.com>) with the key words “sleep disturbance”, “post traumatic stress disorder” and “polysomnography”, in the period between 1965 and 2014. The studies reviewed were selected according to their relevance to the subject. Some articles were also included from the references of the previously selected bibliography.

Results

Subjective complaints of sleep disturbances in post-traumatic stress disorder

The sleep-related complaints most commonly reported by patients with PTSD are: initial insomnia, difficulty maintaining sleep, and nightmares^{10, 15-18}. Comparative studies in war veterans showed that patients with PTSD had a higher prevalence of initial insomnia (44% of veterans with PTSD vs 9% of veterans without PTSD vs 9% of civilians), difficulty maintaining sleep (47% of patients with PTSD vs 18% of patients without PTSD) and frequent nightmares (52% of veterans with PTSD vs 5% of veterans without PTSD vs 3% of civilians)^{19,20}. Other sleep disturbances, such as sleep avoidance, night terrors, nocturnal anxiety episodes, vocalizations and complex motor behaviors, vivid dreams, sleep apnea and periodic leg movements, are more frequent in patients with PTSD^{10, 21, 22}.

It is worth stressing that these disturbances are independent risk factors for the worsening of day-time symptoms of PTSD, such as increased severity of depressive symptomatology, suicidal ideation, poorer quality of life, worse overall functioning and increased consumption of alcohol and drugs¹⁶.

Objective aspects of sleep disturbances in post-traumatic stress disorder

Assessing sleep disturbances is a challenge for health professionals, because of the subjective nature of complaints. Often patients may have erroneous perceptions of their sleep, because of sleep dissociation/fragmentation (a condition known as paradoxical/subjective insomnia)²³⁻²⁵. This subjective insomnia shows that patients tend to overestimate the time they take to fall asleep and to underestimate the time they have really slept¹⁵. Moreover, patients with PTSD wake up more often during the night (increased night-time waking), which leads to a more negative assessment of perceived sleep quality, compared with objective sleep assessment¹⁵.

This discrepancy has led some investigators to use polysomnography to investigate sleep disturbances in this group of patients²³. However, polysomnographic data on sleep in PTSD were inconsistent²⁴⁻²⁵. In a significant proportion of studies, the data provided by polysomnography show an increase in sleep latency (SL), a reduction in sleep efficiency (SE), a decrease in total sleep time (TST) and an increase in stage N1, with a decrease in stage N2, of NREM sleep (table I)^{4, 24-31}. Published data also show that this group of patients presents a greater number of nocturnal awakenings (reflecting a state of hyperarousal), more frequent transition to superficial sleep and a reduction in stage 4 of deep sleep (slow delta waves), which is responsible for restorative sleep³²⁻³⁵.

Table I. Sleep characteristics in PTSD, taken from Afonso P. *As alterações do sono nas doenças psiquiátricas* (Sleep changes in psychiatric disorders) in *O Sono e a Medicina do Sono* (Sleep and Sleep Medicine). Eds.: Paiva T, Andersen M, Tufik S. Editora Manole, Brazil, January, 2014.

The hypothesis that changes in REM sleep are a pathognomonic characteristic of patients with PTSD was initially proposed by Ross, in 1989, and subsequently reiterated in studies that showed there was a dysregulation of REM sleep, with an increase in the percentage and density of such sleep, in patients with PTSD^{21, 24, 25, 36, 37}. Despite this, polysomnography data again proved inconsistent. While some studies corroborated the findings of Ross (1989), showing that there was an increase in the percentage of REM sleep^{30, 38-44}, others found a decrease in REM sleep^{31, 45-47}.

As regards density of REM sleep, once again inconsistencies are observed, with some studies reporting an increase in density of REM sleep, and others with results to the contrary^{24,25,30}. Data on latency of REM sleep (LREMS) were also inconsistent^{24,25,30}. Despite the disparities mentioned, a meta-analysis that assessed 20 polysomnographic studies in patients with PTSD showed that these patients present an increase in REM sleep density, an increase in stage 1 sleep and a decrease in deep, slow-wave sleep²⁴. In view of these results, it is important to raise the possibility that changes in percentage of REM sleep, over time, may reflect the adaptive process essential for recovery from PTSD⁴⁸.

Therapeutic approaches to sleep disturbances in PTSD

Nightmares and insomnia are the most common symptoms in PTSD and affect the overall mental health of patients, justifying a therapy aimed at these sleep disturbances. Imagery rehearsal therapy (IRT) is currently used for the management of nightmares in patients with PTSD. Initially developed for chronic nightmares, this therapy consists of selecting a dream, writing it down, changing it in whatever ways the patient wishes and rehearsing that imagery for 10 to 15 minutes a week (limit of two dreams per week). This therapy decreases nightmares, increases sleep quality and reduces the severity of symptoms⁴⁹⁻⁵².

Regardless of the therapeutic strategy used to treat insomnia in this patient group, the main goal of therapy is to improve the quantity/quality of sleep and minimize the negative impact of insomnia on day-to-day activities⁴⁹. There are various therapeutic strategies (pharmacological and non-pharmacological) that should be used, singly or in combination, according to the patient's profile⁴⁹. As far as "non-pharmacological" therapies are concerned, relaxation techniques, stimulus control therapy, cognitive behavioral psychotherapy and sleep hygiene measures are of particular note⁴⁹.

Cognitive behavioral therapy is the first-line treatment for insomnia in this patient group^{53,54}; this therapeutic approach is of particular benefit in the treatment of long-term⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ insomnia. Cognitive behavioral therapy for insomnia (CBT-I) in patients with PTSD has shown to reduce sleep latency, decrease nocturnal awakenings, increase TST and (subjectively) improve sleep quality⁵⁸. CBT-I also improves other symptoms of PTSD, in particular intrusive memories, avoidance (of the traumatic situation) and excessive emotional arousal⁵⁹.

As regards pharmacological therapy for PTSD, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) are currently

the drugs most widely used, and have been approved by the FDA (Food and Drug Administration). Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), in particular sertraline and fluoxetine, are associated with an improvement in PTSD symptoms, but are not effective in improving the frequency of nightmares⁶⁰⁻⁶³. For its part, paroxetine shows inconclusive results. Although a decrease in the severity of PTSD symptoms and an improvement in sleep disturbances are seen in patients treated electively with paroxetine, unfortunately this SSRI is a significant inducer of nightmares⁶³. For its part, fluvoxamine is also not recommended because of its profile of side effects (nausea, diarrhea and headaches) and drug interactions (cytochrome P450)⁶⁴.

The use of benzodiazepines in the treatment of insomnia and nightmares is controversial. Clonazepam did not show significant benefits, and alprazolam, on the other hand, proved to be effective only in the treatment of insomnia⁶³. Temazepam improved some sleep parameters, assessed by sleep diaries. However, these improvements were not maintained after the treatment was discontinued^{12,16,64}.

Lastly, atypical anti-psychotic agents are frequently used as adjuvant treatment of insomnia in PTSD. In this case, these drugs may also be used in patients refractory to the treatments described above. Olanzapine, combined with an SSRI, was shown to decrease the incidence of insomnia, the incidence of nightmares and depressive symptoms^{64,65}. Despite this, because of their potential secondary effects, these drugs should be reserved for the most severely ill patients or for those who present other associated symptoms, in particular psychotic symptoms and psychomotor agitation^{64,65}.

Discussion

Sleep is an essential mechanism for adapting to fear situations, as it promotes memory consolidation mechanisms, particularly fear extinction (which occurs, for the most part, in REM sleep)^{66,67}. In 2013, Menz et al. showed that a night of consolidated sleep, without interruptions of REM sleep, is essential to strengthen fear memories so that the brain can distinguish an adverse stimulus from a non-adverse one⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰. Thus subjective complaints of insomnia, nightmares and sleep fragmentation immediately after the traumatic event are associated with the development of PTSD, as these sleep disturbances prevent emotional processing of memories related to the trauma^{10,71-77}.

The mechanisms by which both sleep and extinction memory are gradually altered in PTSD are not fully clarified. Despite this, Pavlov's paradigms (classical conditioning) have been studied and proposed to explain the pathophysiology of PTSD.

The most recent studies have shown that “fear conditioning” (activated when a neutral stimulus is present in conjunction with the occurrence of an adverse event) and fear extinction are mediated by the amygdala and the prefrontal cortex (with the amygdala being inhibited by the medial prefrontal cortex). This mechanism is essential for adapting to fear situations, in particular for making the correct distinction between maintenance of the fear response in the presence of a harmful stimulus and inhibition of the response in the presence of a harmless stimulus.

Thus reducing consolidation of “fear extinction” by reducing functional connectivity between the amygdala and the ventromedial prefrontal cortex leads to hyperactivity of the amygdala which is in turn associated with dysregulation of REM sleep. Such dysregulation is one of the first symptoms to occur after the traumatic event and increases individuals’ proneness to developing inappropriate stress responses⁷⁷⁻⁸².

The mechanisms “central stress response”, “sympathetic activation” and “changes in the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis” are associated with changes in REM sleep in PTSD. In effect, within these systems there are positive feedback mechanisms by which neuroendocrine responses triggered by a traumatic event aggravate arousal, as well as processing of its memory⁸²⁻⁸⁴. This fragmentation of REM sleep also supposes incorrect regulation of adrenergic centers and an increase in the sympathetic tonus of the autonomous nervous system (intense adrenergic activity) in this patient group^{20, 85}. Recent neuro-imaging data have shown a pattern of intense adrenergic activity in the locus coeruleus during REM sleep (compared with control groups), suggesting a perpetuation of neuroadrenergic influx during this period of sleep³⁷. In fact, patients who show this trauma response abnormality do not show the normal night-time decrease in norepinephrine (NA). This abnormality has a direct consequence in the disruptions seen in REM sleep and is one of the main causes of poor sleep quality^{37, 86-88}. Moreover, these raised NA concentrations are also a direct consequence of disruptions in REM sleep (seen in sleep deprivation and in PTSD), giving weight to the theory that there is a two-way relationship between PTSD and sleep disturbances^{86, 88}.

Although patients with PTSD often report problems with their sleep pattern, the objective data obtained by polysomnography have been inconsistent. This discrepancy may be explained by a demographic heterogeneity, (gender, age, age of trauma, etc.), or be due to the psychiatric comorbidities often observed in this patient group (for example, major depressive disorder, substance abuse, etc.)^{24, 25, 89}.

Polysomnographic sleep studies show that significant changes in sleep pattern occur in major depressive disorder

also, namely: changes in sleep continuity, increased SL, decreased REMSL and increased density of REM sleep⁹⁰⁻⁹⁴. When patients with PTSD/MDD comorbidity and patients with PTSD were compared, it was found that the first group showed differences only in the duration and percentage of deep, slow-wave sleep⁹⁵. Although the impact of comorbid depression on sleep appears to be relatively minor (being differentiated only in terms of SLP), the high comorbidity of these disorders may be an important risk factor for the development of sleep disturbances in patients with PTSD⁹⁵.

Another clinical aspect that may bias results of sleep studies in this patient population has to do with disorders arising from substance use (SUDs), which are also fairly common in PTSD (52% of men and 28% of women with PTSD also suffer from alcohol abuse/dependence, and 35% of men and 27% of women reported drug abuse/dependence)⁹⁶. Sleep disturbances are common in people with alcohol dependence, who present a decrease in sleep efficiency, a decrease in deep, slow-wave sleep, a decrease in REM sleep latency and an increase in REM sleep density^{97, 98}. However comorbidity with the disorder that arises from substance use may be either a consequence or a potential cause. In effect, individuals with sleep disturbances were more likely to develop SUDs than individuals without sleep disturbances. Likewise, persons with PTSD and SUD comorbidity report more sleep problems than persons with PTSD alone^{99, 100}.

There are various therapeutic strategies for sleep disturbances in PTSD. However, for a more effective and targeted treatment, it is important that we be familiar with the pathophysiological mechanisms that underlie these disturbances. There is a two-way relationship between sleep disturbances and PTSD. That is to say, while on the one hand sleep disturbances in patients with PTSD are often associated with worsening of symptoms, on the other, studies suggest that sleep disturbances may be an early marker of vulnerability to PTSD^{71, 72, 85}.

Lastly, it is important to mention that a large proportion of individuals do not develop PTSD or any other spectrum disorder following exposure to a traumatic event. The likelihood of developing PTSD depends on individual risk, as well as on resilience mechanisms, which increase with the number of traumatic events experienced and their intensity. Thus sleep disturbances that occur either prior to the trauma or immediately after it are considered an important risk factor to take into account and should deserve clinical attention and the necessary therapeutic measures.

Conclusion

PTSD is a chronic psychiatric disease characterized by significant compromise of quality of life. In clinical prac-

tice, nightmares and insomnia are frequent complaints in PTSD and affect the overall mental health of these patients, contributing to the chronicity of the disorder.

Polysomnography studies conducted have shown that significant changes in sleep architecture occur in this patient group, namely an increase in SL, a decrease in SE, a reduction in TST and an increase in stage N1 of NREM sleep, with a decrease in stage N2. These data point to the possibility that there is a two-way relationship between sleep disturbances and PTSD.

References

1. Crocq M-A and Crocq L. From Shell shock and war neuroses to posttraumatic stress disorder: a history of psychotraumatology. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience*. 2000; 2(1):47-55.
2. Jones E, Fear NT, Wessely S, "Shell Shock and Mild traumatic brain injury: a historical review", 2007; *Am J Psychiatry* 164:11.
3. American Psychiatric Association: Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders: (DSM-5). 5th ed. Arlington, VA: American Psychiatric Association; 2013
4. Figueria ML, Sampaio D, Afonso P. *Manual de Psiquiatria Clínica*. Lidel. 2014.
5. Maher MJ, Rego SA, Asnis GM. Sleep disturbances in patients with post-traumatic stress disorder: epidemiology, impact and approaches to management. *CNS Drugs*. 2006;20(7):567-90.
6. Ohayon MM, Shapiro CM. Sleep disturbances and psychiatric disorders associated with posttraumatic stress disorder in the general population.
7. Spoomaker VI, Montgomery P. Disturbed sleep in post-traumatic stress disorder: Secondary symptom or core feature? *Sleep Medicine Reviews*. 2008; 12:169-84.
8. Mohsenin, Shahla, and Vahid Mohsenin. "Diagnosis and Management of Sleep Disorders in Posttraumatic Stress Disorder: A Review of the Literature." *The Primary Care Companion for CNS Disorders* 16.6 (2014): 10.4088/PCC.14r01663. PMC. Web. 2 Feb. 2016.
9. Schoenfeld FB, DeViva JC, Manber R. Treatment of sleep disturbances in posttraumatic stress disorder: A review. *Journal of Rehabilitation Research & Development*. 2012; 49(5): 729-752.
10. Germain A, Buysse DJ, Nofzinger E. Sleep-specific mechanisms underlying posttraumatic stress disorder: integrative review and neurobiological hypotheses. *Sleep Med Rev*. 2008;12(3):185-95.
11. Horne JA. Human sleep, sleep loss and behaviour. Implications for the prefrontal cortex and psychiatric disorder. *Br J Psychiatry*. 1993;162:413-19.
12. Krystal AD. Sleep and psychiatric disorders: future directions. *Psychiatr Clin North Am*. 2006;29(4): 1115-30.
13. Krystal AD, Thakur M, Roth T. Sleep disturbance in psychiatric disorders: effects on function and quality of life in mood disorders, alcoholism, and schizophrenia. *Ann Clin Psychiatry*. 2008;20(1):39-46.
14. Debell F, Fear NT, Head M et al. A systematic review of the comorbidity between PTSD and alcohol misuse. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol*. 2014;49(9):1401-25.
15. Harvey AG, Jones C, Schmidt DA, "Sleep and post-traumatic stress disorder: a review", *Clin Psychol Ver*. 2003; 23: 377-407.
16. Wittmann L, Schredl M, Kramer M. Dreaming in posttraumatic stress disorder: A critical review of phenomenology, psychophysiology and treatment. *Psychother Psychosom*. 2007;76(1):25-39
17. Singareddy RK, Balon R. Sleep in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Ann Clin Psychiatry*. 2002;14(3):183-90.
18. Maher MJ, Rego SA, Asnis GM. Sleep disturbances in patients with post-traumatic stress disorder: epidemiology, impact and approaches to management. *CNS Drugs*. 2006;20(7):567-90.
19. Neylan, TC, Marmar CR, Metzler TJ, Weiss DS, Zatzick DF, Delucchi KL, et al. Sleep disturbances in the Vietnam generation: Findings from a nationally representative sample of male Vietnam veterans. *American Journal of Psychiatry*. 1998;155:929-933.
20. Insana SP, Kolko DJ, Germain A, "Early-life trauma is associated with rapid eye movement sleep fragmentation among military veterans". 2012; *Biol Psychol* 89: 570-579.
21. Ross RJ, Ball WA, Sullivan KA, Caroff SN. Sleep disturbance as the hallmark of posttraumatic stress disorder. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1989; 146:697-707.
22. Mysliwiec V, O'Reilly B, Polchinski J, Kwon HP, Germain A, Roth B. Trauma Associated Sleep Disorder: A Proposed Parasomnia Encompassing Dis-

- ruptive Nocturnal Behaviours, Nightmares and REM without Atonia in Trauma Survivors. *JCSM*. 2014;10(10):1143-1148.
23. Klein E, Koren D, Arnon I, Lavie P. Sleep complaints are not corroborated by objective sleep measures in post-traumatic stress disorder: A 1-year prospective study in survivors of motor vehicle crashes. *J Sleep Res*. 2003;12:35-41.
 24. Kobayashi I, Boarts JM, Delahanty DL. Polysomnographically measured sleep abnormalities in PTSD: A meta-analytic review. *Psychophysiology*. 2007;44:660-669.
 25. Yetkin S, Aydin H, Ozgen F. Polysomnography in patients with post-traumatic stress disorder *Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences*. 2010; 4: 309-317.
 26. Pillai V, Delahanty DL. Sleep Perception Among Individuals with Posttraumatic Stress Disorder. *SLEEP*. 2012;35:957-965.
 27. Khawaja IS, Hashmi AM, Aftab MA, Westermeyer J, Hurwitz TD. Actigrafy in Post Traumatic Stress Disorder. *Pak J Med Sci*. 2014;30(2):438-442.
 28. Afonso P: As alterações do sono nas doenças psiquiátricas. In: Paiva T, Andersen M, Tufik S. *O Sono e a Medicina do Sono*. Editora Manole, Brasil, Janeiro, 2014.
 29. Germain A, Nielson TA. Sleep pathology in post-traumatic stress disorder and idiopathic nightmares sufferers. *Biological Psychiatry*. 2003;54: 1902-1908
 30. Dow BM, Kelsoe JR, Gillin C. Sleep and dreams in Vietnam PTSD and depression. *Biol. Psychiatry*. 1996;39: 42-50.
 31. Lavie P, Hefez A, Halperin G, Enoch D. Long-term effects of traumatic war-related events on sleep. *Am. J. Psychiatry*. 1979;136: 175-178.
 32. Breslau N, Roth T, Burduvali E, Kapke A, Schultz L, Roehrs T. Sleep in lifetime posttraumatic stress disorder: a community-based polysomnographic study. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2004;61(5):508-16.
 33. Neylan TC, Lenoci M, Maglione ML, Rosenlicht NZ, Metzler TJ, Otte C, Schoenfeld FB, Yehuda R, Marmar CR. Delta sleep response to metyrapone in post-traumatic stress disorder. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2003;28(9):1666-76.
 34. Mellman TA, Kumar A, Kullick-Bell R, Kumr M, Nolan B. Nocturnal/daytime urine noradrenergic measures and sleep in combat-related PTSD. *Biological Psychiatry* 1995; 38:174-179.
 35. Woodward SH, Murburg MM, Bliwise DL. PTSD-related hyperarousal assessed during sleep. *Physiol. Behav*. 2000;70:197-203.
 36. Ross RJ, Ball WA, Dinges DF, Kribbs NB, Morrison AR, Silver SM, Mulvaney FD. Rapid eye movement sleep disturbance in posttraumatic stress disorder. *Biol Psychiatry*. 1994;35:195-202.
 37. Germain A. Sleep Disturbances as the Hallmark of PTSD: Where Are We Now? *Am J Psychiatry*. 2013;170(4):372-382.
 38. Hefez A, Metz L, Lavie P. Long-term effects of extreme situational stress on sleep and dreaming. *Am. J. Psychiatry*. 1987; 144: 344-347.
 39. Mikulincer M, Glaubman H, Wasserman O, Porat A. Control-related beliefs and sleep characteristics of post-traumatic stress disorder patients. *Psychol. Rep*. 1989; 65: 567-576.
 40. Engdahl BE, Eberly RE, Hurwitz TD, Mahowald MW, Blake J. Sleep in a community sample of elderly war veterans with and without posttraumatic stress disorder. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2000; 47:520-525.
 41. Woodward SH, Leskin GA, Sheikh JI. Movement during sleep: associations with posttraumatic stress disorder, nightmares, and comorbid panic disorder. *Sleep*. 2002; 25:681-688.
 42. Mellman TA, Nolan B, Hebding J, Kulick-Bell R, Dominguez R. A polysomnographic comparison of veterans with combat-related PTSD, depressed men, and non-ill controls. *Sleep*. 1997; 20:46-51.
 43. Mellman TA, Kulick-Bell R, Ashlock LE, Nolan B. Sleep events among veterans with combat-related posttraumatic stress disorder. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1995; 152:110-115.
 44. Woodward SH, Arsenaault NJ, Murray C, Bliwise DL. Laboratory sleep correlates of nightmare complaint in inpatients. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2000; 48:1081-1087. [PubMed: 11094141].
 45. Hefez A, Metz L, Lavie P. Long-term effects of extreme situational stress on sleep and dreaming. *Am. J. Psychiatry* 1987; 144: 344-347.
 46. Mikulincer M, Glaubman H, Wasserman O, Porat A. Control-related beliefs and sleep characteristics of post-traumatic stress disorder patients. *Psychol. Rep*. 1989; 65: 567-576.
 47. Glaubman H, Mikulincer M, Porat A, Wasserman O, Birger M. Sleep of chronic post-traumatic patients. *J. Trauma Stress* 1990; 3: 255-263.
 48. Ross RJ. The Changing REM Sleep Signature of Post-traumatic Stress Disorder. *Sleep* 2014; 37(8): 1281-1282.
 49. Schutte-Rodin S, Broch L, Buysse D, Dorsey C, Sateia M. Clinical guideline for the evaluation and management of chronic insomnia in adults. *J Clin Sleep Med*. 2008;4(5):487-504.
 50. Krakow B, Zadra A. Clinical management of chronic nightmares: imagery rehearsal therapy. *Behav Sleep Med*. 2006;4(1):45-70.
 51. Gehrman PR, Harb GC. Treatment of nightmares in the context of posttraumatic stress disorder. *J Clin Psychol*. 2010;66(11):1185-94.
 52. Krakow B, Hollifield M, Schrader R, Koss M, Tandberg D, Lauriello J, McBride L, Warner TD, Cheng

- D, Edmond T, Kellner R. A controlled study of imagery rehearsal for chronic nightmares in sexual assault survivors with PTSD: a preliminary report. *J Trauma Stress*. 2000;13(4): 589-609.
53. Zayfert C, DeViva JC. Residual insomnia following cognitive-behavioral therapy for PTSD. *J Trauma Stress*. 2004;17(1):69-73.
 54. Nishith P, Duntley SP, Dmitrovich PP, et al. Effect of cognitive- behavioral therapy on heart rate variability during REM sleep in female rape victims with PTSD. *J Trauma Stress*. 2003;16(3):247-250.
 55. Morin CM, Culbert JP, Schwartz SM. Nonpharmacological interventions for insomnia: a meta-analysis of treatment efficacy. *Am J Psychiatry*. 1994;151:1172-80.
 56. Murtagh DR, Greenwood KM. Identifying effective psychological treatments for insomnia: a meta-analysis. *J Consult Clin Psych*. 1995;63:79-89.
 57. Morin CM, Vallieres A, Guay B, et al. Cognitive behavior therapy, singly and combined with medication, for persistent insomnia: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2009;301:2005-15.
 58. DeViva JC, Zayfert C, Pigeon WR, Mellman TA. Treatment of residual insomnia after CBT for PTSD: Case studies. *J Trauma Stress*. 2005;18:155-9.
 59. Kim EJ, Dimsdale JE. The effect of psychosocial stress on sleep: a review of polysomnographic evidence. *Behav Sleep Med*. 2007;5(4):256-278.
 60. Brady K, Pearlstein T, Asnis GM, Baker D, Rothbaum B, Sikes CR, Farfel GM. Efficacy and safety of sertraline treatment of posttraumatic stress disorder: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2000;283(14):1837-44.
 61. Davidson JR, Rothbaum BO, van der Kolk BA, Sikes CR, Farfel GM. Multicenter, double-blind comparison of sertraline and placebo in the treatment of posttraumatic stress disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2001;58(5):485-92.
 62. Marshall RD, Beebe KL, Oldham M, Zaninelli R. Efficacy and safety of paroxetine treatment for chronic PTSD: a fixed-dose, placebo-controlled study. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2001;158(12):1982-88.
 63. Van Liempt S, Vermetten E, Geuze E, Westenberg H, "Pharmacotherapeutic treatment of nightmares and insomnia in posttraumatic stress disorder". 2006;Ann.N.Y.
 64. Cates ME, Bishop MH, Davis LL, Lowe JS, Woolley TW. Clonazepam for treatment of sleep disturbances associated with combat-related posttraumatic stress disorder. *Ann Pharmacother*. 2004;38(9):1395-99.
 65. Nappi CM, Drummond SPA, Hall JMH, "Treating nightmares and insomnia in posttraumatic stress disorder: a review of current evidence". 2012. *Neuropharmacology* 62: 576-585.
 66. Groch S, Wilhelm I, Diekelmann S, Born J, "The role of REM sleep in the processing of emotional memories: Evidence from behavior and event-related potentials",2013; *Neurobiology of Learning and Memory* 99 : 1-9.
 67. Groch S, Wilhelm I, Diekelmann S, Sayk F, Gais S, Born J, "Contribution of norepinephrine to emotional memory consolidation during sleep", 2011; *Psychoneuroendocrinology* 36:1342-1350.
 68. Menz MM, Rihm JS, Salari N, Born J, Kalisch R, et al. The role of sleep and sleep deprivation in consolidating fear memories. *Neuroimage*. 2013; 75:87-96.
 69. Van Liempt S, Vermetten E, Geuze E, Westenberg H, "Pharmacotherapeutic treatment of nightmares and insomnia in posttraumatic stress disorder". 2006;Ann.N.Y. Acad.Sci.1071: 502-507.
 70. Spoomaker VI, Sturm A, Andrade KC, Schroter MS, Goya-Maldonado R, et al. The neural correlates and temporal sequence of the relationship between shock exposure, disturbed sleep and impaired consolidation of fear extinction. *J Psychiatr Res*. 2010; 44:1121-8.
 71. Mellman TA, Hipolito MM. Sleep disturbances in the aftermath of trauma and posttraumatic stress disorder. *CNS Spectr*. 2006;11(8):611-5.
 72. Pace-Schott EF, Germain A, Milad M. Sleep and REM sleep disturbance in the pathophysiology of PTSD: the role of extinction memory. *Biology of Mood & Anxiety Disorders* 2015; 5(3): 1-19.
 73. Mellman TA, Bustamante V, Fins AI, Pigeon WR, Nolan B. REM sleep and the early development of posttraumatic stress disorder. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2002;159(10):1696-701.
 74. Mellman TA, Pigeon WR, Nowell PD, Nolan B. Relationships between REM sleep findings and PTSD symptoms during the early aftermath of trauma. *J Trauma Stress*. 2007;20(5):893-901.
 75. Mellman TA, Knorr BR, Pigeon WR, Leiter JC, Akay M. Heart rate variability during sleep and the early development of posttraumatic stress disorder. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2004;55(9):953-6.
 76. Walker MP. The role of sleep in cognition and emotion. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2009;1156:168-97.
 77. Levin R, Nielsen TA. Disturbed dreaming, post-traumatic stress disorder, and affect distress: a review and neurocognitive model. *Psychol Bull*. 2007;133(3):482-528.
 78. Yoo SS, Gujar N, Hu P, Jolesz FA, Walker MP. The human emotional brain without sleep – a prefrontal amygdala disconnect. *Curr Biol*. 2007;17(20):R877-8.
 79. Thomas M, Sing H, Belenky G, Holcomb H, Mayberg H, Dannals R, et al. Neural basis of alertness and cognitive performance impairments during sleepiness. I. Effects of 24 h of sleep deprivation on

- waking human regional brain activity. *J Sleep Res.* 2000;9(4):335-52.
80. Killgore WD. Self-reported sleep correlates with prefrontal-amygdala functional connectivity and emotional functioning. *Sleep.* 2013;36(11):1597-608.
 81. Nishida M, Pearsall J, Bucker RL, Walker MP. REM sleep, prefrontal and the consolidation of human emotional memory. *Cereb Cortex.* 2009; 19:1158-1166.
 82. Pawlyk AC, Morrison AR, Ross RJ, Brennan FX. Stress-induced changes in sleep in rodents: models and mechanisms. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 2008;32(1):99-117.
 83. Sanford LD, Suchecki D, Meerlo P. Stress, arousal, and sleep. *Curr Top Behav Neurosci.* 2014. doi:10.1007/7854_2014_314.
 84. Otte C, Lenoc M, Metzler T, Yehuda R, Marmar C, Neylan T. Hypothalamic-Pituitary- Adrenal Axis Activity and Sleep in Posttraumatic Stress Disorder. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2005. 30; 117-1180.
 85. Kovachy B, O'Hara R, Hawkins N, Gershon A, Primeau M, Madej J, Carrion V. Sleep Disturbance in Pediatric PTSD: Current Findings and Future Directions. *JCSM.* 2013;9(5): 501-510.
 86. Schmidt U, Kaltwasser SF, Wotjak CT, "Biomarkers in Posttraumatic Stress Disorder: Overview and Implications for Future Research", 2013; Hindawi Publishing Corporation Disease Markers Volume 35: 43-54.
 87. Mallick BN, Singh A. REM sleep loss increases brain excitability: role of noradrenaline and its mechanism of action. *Sleep Med Rev.* 2011; 15:165-78
 88. Hilbert J, Mohsenin V. Can periodic limb movement disorder be diagnosed without polysomnography? a case-control study. *Sleep Med.* 2003;4(1):35-41
 89. Fuller KH, Waters WF, Scott O. An investigation of slow-wave sleep processes in chronic PTSD patients. *J. Anxiety Disord.* 1994; 227-236.
 90. Lauer CJ, Wiegand M, Krieg JC: All-night electroencephalographic sleep and cranial computed tomography in depression. A study of unipolar and bipolar patients. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience.* 1992;242:59-68.
 91. Giles DE, Rush AJ, Roffwarg HP: Sleep parameters in bipolar I, bipolar II, and unipolar depressions. *Biological Psychiatry.* 1986;21:1340-43.
 92. de Maertelaer V, Hoffman G, Lemaire M, Mendlewicz J: Sleep spindle activity changes in patients with affective disorders. *Sleep.* 1987;10:443-51.
 93. Fossion P, Staner L, Dramaix M, Kempnaers C, Kerkhofs M, Hubain P, et al.: Does sleep EEG data distinguish between UP, BPI or BPII major depressions? An age and gender controlled study. *Journal of Affective Disorders.* 1998;49:181-87.
 94. Pagel JF. Treating Nightmares- Sleep Medicin and Posttraumatic Stress Disorder. *J Clin Sleep Med.* 2015; 11(1):9-10.
 95. Woodward, S. H., Friedman, M. J., & Bliwise, D. L. (1996). Sleep and depression in combat-related PTSD inpatients. *Biological Psychiatry*, 39, 182-192.
 96. Kessler, R. C., Sonnega, A., Bromet, E., Hughes, M., & Nelson, C. B. (1995). Posttraumatic stress disorder in the national comorbidity survey. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 52, 1048-1060.
 97. Brower, K. J., & Hall, J. M. (2001). Effects of age and alcoholism on sleep: A controlled study. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol*, 62, 335-343.
 98. Irwin, M., Miller, C., Gillin, J. C., Demodena, A., & Ehlers, C. L. (2000). Polysomnographic and spectral sleep EEG in primary alcoholics: An interaction between alcohol dependence and African-American ethnicity. *Alcoholism, Clinical and Experimental Research*, 24, 1376-1384.
 99. Crum, R. M., Storr, C. L., Chan, Y., & Ford, D. E. (2004). Sleep disturbance and risk for alcohol-related problems. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, 161, 1197-1203.
 100. Saladin, M. E., Brady, K. T., Dansky, B. S., & Kilpatrick, D. G. (1995). Understanding comorbidity between PTSD and substance use disorders: Two preliminary investigations. *Addictive Behaviors*, 20, 643-655.