Prevalence of Circadian Rhythm Sleep-Wake Disorders and Associated Factors in Euthymic Patients with Bipolar Disorder

Yoshikazu Takaesu1*, Yuichi Inoue1,2, Akiko Murakoshi1, Yoko Komada2, Ayano Otsuka1, Kunihiro Futenma1, Takeshi Inoue1

1 Department of Psychiatry, Tokyo Medical University, 6-7-1 Nishishinjuku, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo, 160-0023, Japan, 2 Department of Somnology, Tokyo Medical University, 6-7-1 Nishishinjuku, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo, 160–0023, Japan

* esu-yosh@tokyo-med.ac.jp

Abstract

Recent studies have suggested that there are certain pathophysiological relationships between bipolar disorder (BD) and circadian rhythm dysfunction. However, apparently no studies have clarified the prevalence of circadian rhythm sleep-wake disorders (CRSWD) in patients with BD. This study was set out to investigate the prevalence of CRSWD and associated factors in patients with BD. One hundred four euthymic BD outpatients participated in this study. The subjects were asked to answer questionnaires including demographic variables, clinical course of BD, and family history of psychiatric disorders and suicide. Severity of BD was assessed by the Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale and Young Mania Rating Scale. CRSWD was diagnosed by clinical interview, together with sleep logs, according to the International Classification of Sleep Disorders, third edition (ICSD-3). Thirty-five subjects (32.4%) met the criteria for CRSWD. The age at the time of investigation and that at the onset of BD were both lower in the CRSWD group than in the non-CRSWD group. The rates of family history of psychiatric disorders and suicide in the CRSWD group were higher than those in the non-CRSWD group. Multiple logistic regression analysis revealed that the presence of CRSWD was significantly associated with younger onset age of BD and family history of suicide. The prevalence of CRSWD could be quite high in BD patients. Younger onset age of BD and family history of suicide were associated with presence of CRSWD in BD patients.

Introduction

The circadian system regulates daily rhythms of physiology and behavior, such as the sleep-wake cycle, core body temperature, hormonal secretion, and mood [1]. Recent studies have suggested that circadian rhythms play a critical role in emotional dysregulation in bipolar disorder (BD) [2–5]. Changes in the sleep-wake cycle, such as decreased need for sleep, insomnia, or hypersomnia, are parts of the diagnostic criteria for BD in the Diagnostic and Statistical
Typically, during the manic phase, there is a reduced need for sleep, whereas during the depressive phase, individuals suffer from insomnia or hypersomnia. Moreover, even during the euthymic period, disruption of the sleep-wake cycle has been reported in previous studies. The circadian rhythm hypothesis of BD emphasizes that instability of the circadian rhythm indicates core vulnerability of BD, and that disturbance in circadian rhythm is a critical factor for the onset and exacerbation of BD.

A recent paper reviewed treatment of BD from the viewpoint of circadian rhythms. Several studies have indicated that the mood stabilizer lithium affects circadian rhythms through glycogen synthase kinase 3β, which is a central regulator of the circadian clock. Social rhythm stabilization by interpersonal and social rhythm therapy is also effective in reducing relapse of BD. Additionally, a recent study showed that adjunctive ramelteon, which has an effect in synchronizing the circadian clock to the day-night cycle, was effective for preventing relapse of BD. These clinical findings suggest that disrupted circadian rhythm may be involved in the pathological mechanism of BD.

Circadian rhythm sleep-wake disorder (CRSWD) is defined by the following criterion, namely, the disorder is caused by alterations of the circadian time-keeping system, its entrainment mechanisms, or a misalignment of the endogenous circadian rhythm to the external environment. A previous study reported that melatonin secretion in euthymic BD patients was suppressed and its peak was delayed compared to those in patients with remitted major depression and normal controls. Another study revealed that BD patients are more likely to have the eveningness chronotype, suggesting a circadian phase delay in these patients. Moreover, there were some common circadian gene polymorphisms among patients with BD, delayed sleep-wake phase disorder, and non-24-hour sleep-wake disorder, which are sub-categories of CRSWD. These study results raise the possibility that BD patients are highly vulnerable for having CRSWD.

However, there apparently has been no systematic study focusing on the prevalence of CRSWD in BD patients and the clinical characteristics of BD patients with CRSWD comorbidity. Therefore, we set a cross-sectional study to investigate the prevalence and factors associated with the presence of CRSWD in patients with BD.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

This study was approved by the ethics committee of Tokyo Medical University and conducted after obtaining written informed consent from the subject patients. The consecutive bipolar participants were recruited from patients who visited the outpatient clinic of the Neuropsychiatric Department in Tokyo Medical University Hospital from August 2014 to January 2015. There were 127 patients 18 to 75 years old who met the criteria for bipolar I or II disorder according to DSM-5. Participants were eligible if they were euthymic as defined by the Young Mania Rating Scale (YMRS < 7 points) and Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS < 13 points) for at least 8 weeks prior to the investigation. Exclusion criteria included the following: (a) patients were in affective episodes, (b) shift worker, (c) ongoing alcohol or substance abuse, (d) suicidal risk, (e) hospitalized in the previous 8 weeks, or (f) had visual impairments, who were all more likely to have CRSWD. Twelve patients refused to participate in the study and 11 patients met the exclusion criteria. As a result, 104 euthymic BD patients were included in the present study.
Assessments
The subjects were asked to answer questionnaires, including demographic variables, clinical descriptive variables of bipolar disorder and circadian rhythm-related sleep problems, and family history of either psychiatric disorders or suicide. The current mood status was assessed using the MADRS [25] and YMRS [26]. Assessment of subjective sleep disturbance was conducted by using the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI) [27,28]. The diagnoses of CRSWD were made with clinical interview by a board-certified sleep specialist physician together with the results of sleep logs for more than 4 weeks according to the International Classification of Sleep Disorders, third edition (ICSD-3) [18]. The subjects who met the criteria for CRSWD were additionally divided into sub-categories of CRSWD according to the ICSD-3 [18].

Statistical Analyses
The Mann-Whitney U test and chi-square test were used for the comparison of descriptive variables between the subjects who met the criteria for CRSWD (CRSWD group) and those who did not meet the criteria for CRSWD (non-CRSWD group). The chi-square test or Fisher’s exact test was used for the comparison of kinds of medications for the treatment of mood disorders (mood stabilizers, antipsychotics, antidepressants, and benzodiazepines) between the two groups. The Mann-Whitney U test was also used for the comparison of the PSQI score, YMRS score, and MADRS score between the two groups.

Thereafter, factors associated with the presence of CRSWD were examined with the aid of a series of logistic regression analyses with independent variables (sex, age at the time of investigation, age at the onset of BD, duration of illness, living alone or not, educational background, being employed or not, type of BD diagnosis, presence or absence of family history of suicide or psychiatric disorders, MADRS score, YMRS score, and PSQI scores). All variables were initially examined in univariate models. To control for confounding factors and to determine the main correlates, we then performed multivariate logistic regression analyses for all variables that showed significant correlations in univariate models. SPSS version 11.5.1J software for Windows (SPSS Inc., Tokyo) was used for the above statistical analyses. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered to indicate a statistically significant difference.

Results
Of the total 104 subjects, there were 35 subjects (32.4%) who met the criteria for CRSWD. According to the sub-categories of CRSWD in ICSD-3, 27 patients met the criteria for delayed sleep-wake phase disorder, which is characterized by a significant delay in the phase of the major sleep episode in relation to the desired or required sleep time and wake-up time [29,30] (Fig 1). Six patients met the criteria for non-24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorder, which is characterized by symptoms of insomnia or excessive sleepiness that occur because the intrinsic circadian pacemaker is not entrained to a 24-hour light/dark cycle [29,30] (Fig 1). All these 6 patients with non-24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorder were unemployed and experienced a transition from delayed sleep-wake phase disorder. Two patients met the criteria for irregular sleep-wake rhythm disorder, which is characterized by lack of a clearly defined circadian rhythm of sleep and wake [29,30] (Fig 1). There was no patient who met the criteria for advanced sleep-wake phase disorder, which is characterized by a stable advance (earlier timing) of the major sleep episode, such that habitual sleep onset and offset occur typically two or more hours prior to required or desired times [29,30].

In the CRSWD group, 12 subjects out of 35 total subjects (34.3%) answered “onset of their sleep disturbance was prior to that of mood disturbance”, 8 subjects (22.8%) answered “onset
of mood disturbance was prior to that of CRSD”, and 15 subjects (42.9%) answered “Both of these disturbances occurred almost at the same time”.

Both age at the time of investigation ($p = 0.004$) and onset age ($p < 0.001$) of bipolar disorder in the CRSWD group were significantly younger than those in the non-CRSWD group. The
rates of family history of both suicide and psychiatric disorders in the CRSWD group were significantly higher than those in the non-CRSWD group. No significant differences in any other descriptive variables were found between the two groups (Table 1).

Concerning medication, no significant differences in taking any mood stabilizers, antipsychotics, antidepressants, or benzodiazepines were found between the two groups (Table 2).

Univariate logistic regression analysis showed that age at the time of investigation ($p = 0.016$), onset age of BD ($p = 0.001$), and family history of suicide ($p = 0.007$) and psychiatric disease ($p = 0.029$) were significantly associated with the presence of CRSWD. Multiple logistic regression analysis revealed that onset age of BD ($p = 0.002$) and family history of suicide ($p = 0.038$) were significantly associated with the presence of CRSWD in the subject BD patients (Table 3). When the cut-off value of probability of predicting CRSWD was 0.5, the
sensitivity was 48.6%, specificity was 92.8%, and predictive accuracy was 77.9% in this regression analysis model.

Discussion

To our best knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the prevalence of CRSWD in BD patients in clinical settings. The prevalence of CRSWD in our BD patients (32.4%) seems to be higher compared with that in the general population, which was reported to be 0.13% in the general Japanese population [31] and 0.17% in the general Norwegian population [32]. However, we did not compare it with the prevalence of CRSWD in age- and sex-matched controls or with a population with other psychiatric disorders. Therefore, we could not draw the definite conclusion that the prevalence of CRSWD in BD was significantly higher than that in the general population from this study. One study indicated that BD patients showed a distinctive distribution of chronotype compared with normal controls, schizophrenia patients, and schizoaffective disorder patients [33].

Recently, a new evaluation tool for biological rhythm dysfunction in BD patients was developed (BRIAN: Biological Rhythm Interview of Assessment in Neuropsychiatry) [34]. Several studies revealed the relationship between biological rhythm dysfunction and BD by using BRIAN [35–37]. These studies indicated that biological rhythm dysfunction in BD was more severe than that in healthy controls and in patients with major depressive disorder [36]. Moreover, severity of biological rhythm dysfunction was associated with severity of depressive symptoms and poor psychosocial functioning in BD [37]. Supporting the idea that CRSWD may be more prevalent in BD, the results of these studies indicated a robust pathophysiological relationship between circadian rhythm dysfunction and BD.

In the results of the present study, the most frequent subcategory of CRSWD was delayed sleep-wake phase disorder (27/35, 77.1%). This result is in line with the previous studies showing delayed peak of melatonin secretion and eveningness chronotype predominance in BD patients [19,20,38]. Moreover, a recent study revealed that eveningness chronotype was associated with greater sleep-wake disturbance, worse quality of life, and more dysfunctional sleep-related cognition and behaviors [39]. Interestingly, the result of this study revealed that the rate of individuals having non-24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorder, which is prevalent in nearly half of totally blind individuals, but thought to be rare in sighted individuals [23,24], was remarkably high in the CRSWD affected patients (6/35, 17.1%) even though no blind individuals participated in this study. The etiology of non-24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorder and the pathophysiological association between this disorder and bipolar disorder have not been well documented in previous studies. In this regard, only Hayakawa et al. reported that more than half of their 57 patients with non-24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorders were diagnosed as having psychiatric disorders before or after the onset of the disorder [40]. However, their psychiatric diagnoses were mainly major depression and no patient was diagnosed with bipolar

| Table 3. Multivariate logistic regression analysis of the associated factors for CRSWD (N = 104). |
| Univariate odds ratio (95% CI) | p-value | Multivariate odds ratio (95% CI) | p-value |
| Age at the time of investigation (years) | 0.96 (0.93–0.99) | 0.016 | 0.97 (0.93–1.00) | 0.068 |
| Onset age of BD (years) | 0.93 (0.90–0.97) | 0.001 | 0.94 (0.90–0.98) | 0.002 |
| Family history of psychiatric disorders (yes/no) | 2.54 (1.10–5.85) | 0.029 | 1.99 (0.78–5.08) | 0.150 |
| Family history of suicide (yes/no) | 5.63 (1.59–19.88) | 0.007 | 4.19 (1.05–16.27) | 0.038 |

BD, bipolar disorder; CRSWD, circadian rhythm sleep-wake disorder

Only variables at \( p < 0.05 \) in the univariate models are shown in this table.

**doi**:10.1371/journal.pone.0159578.t003
disorder. The inconsistency between the present study and the previous report is unclear. However, considering that in approximately 20% of patients receiving an initial diagnosis of depression the diagnosis is changed to bipolar disorder within 20 years [41], one possible explanation for this inconsistency is that the age of the patients who were diagnosed as having major depression in the study of Hayakawa et al. were too young (26.2±8.5 years) to make accurate psychiatric diagnosis for bipolar-unipolar distinction compared with the age of the patients in our study (46.7±14.6 years). Previous studies have indicated that patients with non-24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorders are likely to have a preceding period with delayed sleep-wake phase disorders and the symptoms of delayed sleep-wake phase disorders change to non-24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorders possibly due to the loss of social zeitgebers [40,42]; these are in line with the results of the present study. Taking these factors into consideration, delayed circadian rhythm can be one of the characteristic features of euthymic BD, especially in young-onset cases with high likelihood of transition to free running of circadian rhythm in this kind of patient.

Although the causal relationship between BD and CRSWD cannot be determined in this cross-sectional study, about one-third of subjects with CRSWD answered “onset of sleep disturbance was prior to that of mood disturbance”. Previous studies have suggested that sleep changes preceded mood dysregulation in BD patients [2,43,44]. Perlman et al. reported that sleep disturbance predicted relapse of depressive symptoms through the 6-month follow-up on BD patients [45]. Although it is difficult to draw a conclusion about the relationship between sleep disturbance and mood dysregulation in BD (2), at least it can be said that sleep disturbances, including CRSWD, are associated with the primary pathophysiology of BD.

Interestingly, the results of our study showed that the presence of CRSWD was significantly associated with younger onset age of BD and family history of suicide in the subject patients. Dysregulation of sleep-wake pattern has been reported to be an early marker of BD in familial high-risk individuals [46]. Moreover, BD patients with younger onset age were reported to have more eveningness chronotype, which is closely related to the occurrence of delayed sleep-wake phase disorder [33]. Concerning genetic factors, some circadian genes have been suggested to be related to the pathogenesis of BD [12–14,47–50]. Among these, the CLOCK gene has been found to be associated with clinical features of BD, such as the increase in motor activity in the evening, delayed sleep phase [48], and recurrent episodes of mood dysfunction [51]. Interestingly, CLOCK mutant mice showed mania-like behavior that is reversed by treatment with the mood stabilizer lithium [52]. Taking these into consideration, common genetic backgrounds between CRSWD and BD may exist.

This study has several limitations. First, because this study was conducted as a single-center study, the sample size was relatively small and subjects might not be representative of general bipolar patients. A multi-center study with a larger sample size will be needed to confirm our findings. Second, because we did not use age- and sex-matched controls, we could not draw any conclusion about the difference in the prevalence between BD patients and the general population. Third, we did not use reliable objective measures of circadian rhythm, such as actigraphy or measurement of endogenous melatonin secretion, which are recommended in the ICSD-3 criteria [18]. We also did not use the valuable assessment of biological rhythm BRIAN as mentioned above. Fourth, it was possible that BD patients with concomitant CRSWD suffered from more difficulties than those without CRSWD, with the consequence of their higher consultation rate and apparent high prevalence of CRSWD in BD patients. Fifth, although there were no significant differences in the rate of prescriptions between the two groups with our relatively small sample size, it is possible that some medications, particularly medications having sedative effects, might have contributed to the association between CRSWD and BD. Sixth, we analyzed three different types of CRSWD (delayed sleep-wake phase disorder, non-
24-hour sleep-wake rhythm disorder, and irregular sleep-wake rhythm disorder) as a single group because of the small numbers of patients with each disorder. Although these three disorders are likely to convert to each other and are thought to have a similar biological mechanism [40,42], this heterogeneity might have contributed to the results of this study. Seventh, the ratios of employed/unemployed were similar between the subjects with/without CRSWD in this study. We investigated the employment status of patients only with a simple question “Do you have an occupation now?”. However, we should have asked them about details of their employment status (e.g. regular employment, part-time job, or housewife), because circadian rhythm is strongly affected by social factors. If we investigated details of employment status, there might have been some significant differences in employment status between the two groups.

In conclusion, the results of this study revealed that CRSWD is frequently comorbid with BD. Younger onset age of BD and family history of suicide were associated with the presence of CRSWD in the subject BD patients. Therefore, it can be speculated that there are underlying common pathophysiological backgrounds between BD and CRSWD. In the future, a longitudinal follow-up study with a larger sample size and comparison of the prevalence of CRSWD with controls would be needed to confirm the findings of the present study.

Acknowledgments
We are indebted to the medical editors of the Department of International Medical Communications at Tokyo Medical University for editing and reviewing the initial English manuscript.

Author Contributions
Conceived and designed the experiments: YT YI YK. Performed the experiments: YT AM AO KF. Analyzed the data: YT TI. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: YT YI. Wrote the paper: YT YI YK TI.

References
1. Linkowski P (2003) Neuroendocrine profiles in mood disorders. Int J Neuropsychopharmacol 6: 191–197. PMID: 12890312
2. Murray G, Harvey A (2010) Circadian rhythms and sleep in bipolar disorder. Bipolar Disord 12: 459–472. doi: 10.1111/j.1399-5618.2010.00843.x PMID: 20712747
3. Lee HJ, Son GH, Geum D (2013) Circadian rhythm hypotheses of mixed features, antidepressant treatment resistance, and manic switching in bipolar disorder. Psychiatry Investig 10: 225–232. doi: 10.4306/pi.2013.10.3.225 PMID: 24302944
4. Harvey AG (2008) Sleep and circadian rhythms in bipolar disorder: seeking synchrony, harmony, and regulation. Am J Psychiatry 165: 820–829. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp.2008.08010098 PMID: 18519522
5. Soreca I (2014) Circadian rhythms and sleep in bipolar disorder: implications for pathophysiology and treatment. Curr Opin Psychiatry 27: 467–471. doi: 10.1097/YCO.0000000000000108 PMID: 25211500
6. American Psychiatric Association (2013) Diagnostic and statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth edition. Arlington, VA: American Psychiatric Association.
7. Kripke DF, Mullaney DJ, Atkinson M, Wolf S (1978) Circadian rhythm disorders in manic-depressives. Biol Psychiatry 13: 335–351. PMID: 667233
8. Salvatore P, Ghidini S, Zita G, De Panfilis C, Lambertino S, Maggini C, et al. (2008) Circadian activity rhythm abnormalities in ill and recovered bipolar I disorder patients. Bipolar Disord 10: 256–265. doi: 10.1111/j.1399-5618.2007.00505.x PMID: 18271904
9. Jones SH, Hare DJ, Evershed K (2005) Actigraphic assessment of circadian activity and sleep patterns in bipolar disorder. Bipolar Disord 7: 176–186. PMID: 15762859
10. Gruber J, Harvey AG, Wang PW, Brooks JO 3rd, Thase ME, Sachs GS, et al. (2009) Sleep functioning in relation to mood, function, and quality of life at entry to the Systematic Treatment Enhancement
11. Abreu T, Braganca M (2015) The bipolarity of light and dark: A review on Bipolar Disorder and circadian cycles. J Affect Disord 185: 219–229. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2015.07.017 PMID: 26241867

12. Gould TD, Manji HK (2005) Glycogen synthase kinase-3: a putative molecular target for lithium mimetic drugs. Neuropsychopharmacol 30: 1223–1237.

13. Beaulieu JM, Sotnikova TD, Yao WD, Woodgett JR, Gainedtlinov RR, et al. (2004) Lithium antagonizes dopamine-dependent behaviors mediated by an AKT/glycogen synthase kinase 3 signaling cascade. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 101: 5099–5104. PMID: 15044694

14. Yin L, Wang J, Klein PS, Lazar MA (2006) Nuclear receptor Rev-erbaalpha is a critical lithium-sensitive component of the circadian clock. Science 311: 1002–1005. PMID: 16484495

15. Frank E, Kuper DJ, Thase ME, Mallinger AG, Lerman J, Primelo RA, et al. (2005) A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial of adjunctive ramelteon for the treatment of insomnia and mood stability in patients with euthymic bipolar disorder. J Affect Disord 144: 141–147. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2005.08.023 PMID: 22963894

16. Norris ER, Karen B, Correll JR, Zemanek KJ, Lerman J, Primelo RA, et al. (2013) A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial of adjunctive ramelteon for the treatment of insomnia and mood stability in patients with euthymic bipolar disorder. J Affect Disord 144: 141–147. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2012.06.023 PMID: 22963894

17. Mitterauer B (2000) Clock genes, feedback loops and their possible role in the etiology of bipolar disorders: an integrative model. Med Hypotheses 55: 155–159. PMID: 10904433

18. American Academy of Sleep Medicine (2014) International Classification of Sleep Disorders, Third Edition: American Academy of Sleep Medicine.

19. Nurnberger Jr., Adkins S, Lahiri DK, Mayeda A, Hu K, Lewy A, et al. (2000) Melatonin suppression by light in euthymic bipolar and unipolar patients. Arch Gen Psychiatry 57: 572–579. PMID: 10839335

20. Wood J, Birmaher B, Axelion D, Ehmann M, Kalas C, Monk K, et al. (2009) Replicable differences in preferred circadian phase between bipolar disorder patients and control individuals. Psychiatry Res 166: 201–209. doi: 10.1016/j.pysres.2008.03.003 PMID: 19278733

21. Kripke DF, Klimecki WT, Nievergelt CM, Rex KM, Murray SS, Shekhtman T, et al. (2014) Circadian polymorphisms in night owls, in bipolars, and in non-24-hour sleep cycles. Psychiatry Investig 11: 345–362. doi: 10.4306/pi.2014.11.4.345 PMID: 25395965

22. Steinan MK, Krane-Gartiser K, Langsrud K, Sand T, Kallestad H, Monken G (2014) Cognitive behavioral therapy for insomnia in euthymic bipolar disorder: study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. Trials 15: 24. doi: 10.1186/1745-6215-15-24 PMID: 24433249

23. Sack RL, Lewy AJ, Blood ML, Keith LD, Nakagawa H (1992) Circadian rhythm abnormalities in totally blind people: incidence and clinical significance. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 75: 127–134. PMID: 1619000

24. Lockley SW, Skene DJ, Arendt J, Tabandeh H, Bird AC, Defrance R (1997) Relationship between melatonin rhythms and visual loss in the blind. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 82: 3763–3770. PMID: 8960538

25. Asberg M, Montgomery SA, Perris C, Schalling D, Sedvall G (1978) A comprehensive psychopathological rating scale. Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl: 362. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0447.1978.tb01563.x PMID: 802343

26. Young RC, Biggs JT, Ziegler VE, Meyer DA (1978) A rating scale for mania: reliability, validity and sensitivity. Br J Psychiatry 133: 249–253. PMID: 861910

27. Doi Y, Minowa M, Uchiyama M, Okawa M, Kim K, Shibui K, et al. (2000) Psychometric assessment of subjective sleep quality using the Japanese version of the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI-J) in psychotropic disordered and control subjects. Psychiatry Res 97: 165–172. PMID: 11166088

28. Auger RR, Burgess HJ, Emens JS, Deriy LV, Thomas SM, Sharkey KM (2015) Clinical Practice Guidelines for the Treatment of Intrinsic Circadian Sleep-Wake Disorders: Advanced Sleep-Wake Phase Disorder (ASWPD), Delayed Sleep-Wake Phase Disorder (DSWPD), Non-24-Hour Sleep-Wake Rhythm Disorder (N24SWD), and Irregular Sleep-Wake Rhythm Disorder (ISWRD). An Update for 2015. An American Academy of Sleep Medicine Clinical Practice Guideline. J Clin Sleep Med 11: 1199–1236. doi: 10.5664/jcsm.5100 PMID: 26414986

29. Ahmed I, Thorpy MJ (2007) CLASSIFICATION OF SLSSP DISORDERS CONTINUUM: Lifelong Learning in Neurology. Sleep Disorders 13: 13–30.

30. Yazaki M, Shikawa S, Okawa M, Takahashi K (1999) Demography of sleep disturbances associated with circadian rhythm disorders in Japan. Psychiatry Clin Neurosci 53: 267–268. PMID: 10459707
32. Schrader H, Bovim G, Sand T (1993) The prevalence of delayed and advanced sleep phase syndromes. J Sleep Res 2: 51–55. PMID: 10607071

33. Mansour HA, Wood J, Chowdari KV, Dayal M, Thase ME, Kupfer DJ, et al. (2005) Circadian phase variation in bipolar I disorder. Chronobiol Int 22: 571–584. PMID: 16076655

34. Giglio LM, Magalhaes PV, Andreazzza AC, Walz JC, Jakobson L, Rucci P, et al. (2009) Development and use of a biological rhythm interview. J Affect Disord 118: 161–165. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2009.01.018 PMID: 19327243

35. Moro MF, Carta MG, Pintus M, Pintus E, Melis R, Kapczinski F, et al. (2014) Validation of the Italian Version of the Biological Rhythms Interview of Assessment in Neuropsychiatry (BRIAN): Some Considerations on its Screening Usefulness. Clin Pract Epidemiol Ment Health 10: 48–52. doi: 10.2174/17450179141010010048 PMID: 24987447

36. Duarte Faria A, Cardoso Tde A, Campos Mondin T, Souza LD, Magalhaes PV, Patrick Zeni C, et al. (2015) Biological rhythms in bipolar I disorder. Chronobiol Int 22: 571–584. PMID: 16076655

37. Giglio LM, Magalhaes PV, Andreazzza AC, Walz JC, Jakobson L, Rucci P, et al. (2009) Development and use of a biological rhythm interview. J Affect Disord 118: 161–165. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2009.01.018 PMID: 19327243

38. Millar A, Espie CA, Scott J (2004) The sleep of remitted bipolar outpatients: a controlled naturalistic study using actigraphy. J Affect Disord 80: 145–153. PMID: 15207927

39. Ng TH, Chung KF, Lee CT, Yeung WF, Ho FY (2015) Eveningness and Its Associated Impairments in Remitted Bipolar Disorder. Behav Sleep Med: 1–15.

40. Hayakawa T, Uchiyama M, Kamei Y, Shibui K, Tagaya H, Asada T, et al. (2005) Clinical analyses of sighted patients with non-24-hour sleep-wake syndrome: A study of 57 consecutively diagnosed cases. Sleep 28: 945–952. PMID: 16218077

41. Fiedorowicz JG, Endicott J, Leon AC, Solomon DA, Keller MB, Coryell WH (2011) Subthreshold hypomanic symptoms in progression from unipolar major depression to bipolar disorder. Am J Psychiatry 168: 40–48. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp.2010.10030328 PMID: 21078709

42. Oren DA, Wehr TA (1992) Hypernyctohemeral syndrome after chronotherapy for delayed sleep phase syndrome. N Engl J Med 327: 1762. PMID: 1435929

43. Bauer M, Grof P, Rasgon N, Bshorch T, Glenn T, Whybrow PC (2006) Temporal relation between sleep and mood in patients with bipolar disorder. Bipolar Disord 8: 160–167. PMID: 16542186

44. Colombo C, Benedetti F, Barbini B, Camperi E, Smeraldi E (1999) Rate of switch from depression into mania after therapeutic sleep deprivation in bipolar depression. Psychiatry Res 86: 267–270. PMID: 10482346

45. Perlman CA, Johnson SL, Mellman TA (2006) The prospective impact of sleep duration on depression and mania. Bipolar Disord 8: 271–274. PMID: 16696829

46. Jones SH, Tai S, Evershed K, Knowles R, Bentall R (2006) Early detection of bipolar disorder: a pilot familial high-risk study of parents with bipolar disorder and their adolescent children. Bipolar Disord 8: 362–372. PMID: 16879137

47. Shi J, Wittke-Thompson JK, Badner JA, Hattori E, Potash JB, Wilour VL, et al. (2008) Clock genes may influence bipolar disorder susceptibility and dysfunctional circadian rhythm. Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet 147B: 1047–1055. doi: 10.1002/ajmg.b.30714 PMID: 18228528

48. Benedetti F, Dallaspezia S, Fulgosi MC, Lorenzi C, Serretti A, Barbini B, et al. (2007) Actimetric evidence that CLOCK 3111 T/C SNP influences sleep and activity patterns in patients affected by bipolar depression. Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet 144B: 631–635. PMID: 17221848

49. Nievergelt CM, Kripke DF, Barrett TB, Evershed K, Knowles R, Bentall R (2006) Early detection of bipolar disorder: a pilot familial high-risk study of parents with bipolar disorder and their adolescent children. Bipolar Disord 8: 362–372. PMID: 16879137

50. Mansour HA, Monk TH, Nimmoakar VL (2005) Circadian genes and bipolar disorder. Ann Med 37: 196–205. PMID: 16019718

51. Benedetti F, Serretti A, Colombo C, Barbini B, Lorenzi C, Campori E, et al. (2003) Influence of CLOCK gene polymorphism on circadian mood fluctuation and illness recurrence in bipolar disorder. Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet 141B: 234–241. PMID: 16528748

52. Roybal K, Theobald D, Graham A, DiNieri JA, Russo SJ, Krishnan V, et al. (2007) Mania-like behavior induced by disruption of CLOCK. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104: 6406–6411. PMID: 17379666