**Review Article** 

## **Insomnia: Current Treatment and Recent Advances**

#### \*Dhiren M. Pranami<sup>1</sup>, Jyoti Kaushal<sup>1</sup>, Garima Bhutani<sup>2</sup>

- 1. Department of Pharmacology, Pt B D Sharma PGIMS, Rohtak-124001, India.
- 2. Department of Pharmacology, BPS GMC for women, Khanpur Kalan, Sonepat, Haryana, India.

#### ABSTRACT

Insomnia is defined as difficulty with the initiation, maintenance, duration or quality of sleep which affects daytime functioning. About one third of world population suffer from insomnia. It can be classified by various ways i.e. primary or secondary; transient, short term or chronic insomnia; or difficulty in onset or difficulties in maintaining sleep. The derangement of various neurotransmitters e.g. histamine, orexins, noradrenaline, acetylcholine and serotonin leads to insomnia. Predisposing conditions leading to insomnia are familial or genetic tendency, illness, stress and maladaptive sleep habits. Insomnia leads to chronic fatigue, inattention, irritability, emotional outbursts, absence from work, diminished productivity, risk of accidents and other health related problems. The treatment options for insomnia include cognitive behavioural therapy, pharmacological therapy and combined approach. Cognitive behavioural therapy includes stimulus control therapy, sleep restriction therapy, relaxation therapy, sleep hygiene and cognitive therapy. The pharmacological options currently widely in use are benzodiazepines and Z-drugs. Alternative drug delivery methods and innovative treatments hold promise for increasing access to care and accelerating improvement. The newer targets for treatment of insomnia are orexin receptors, melatonin receptors and serotonin receptors. A combined approach of pharmacological treatment, cognitive behavioural treatment and newer formulations for improving drug delivery is required to combat the problem of insomnia.

**Keywords**: Cognitive behavioural therapy in insomnia, insomnia, new drugs for insomnia, orexin receptor antagonists, recent advances in insomnia

Received 19 April 2013

Received in revised form 21 July 2013

Accepted 23 July 2013

## \*Author for Correspondence:

**Dr. Dhiren M. Pranami** Department of Pharmacology, Pt B D Sharma PGIMS, Rohtak-124001, India. E-mail: dhirenpranami13@gmail.com

#### INTRODUCTION Definition of Insomnia

The International Classification of Sleep Disorders defines insomnia as difficulty with the initiation, maintenance, duration, or quality of sleep that results in the impairment of daytime functioning, despite adequate opportunity and circumstances for sleep [1].

#### Epidemiology

In the general population, about one third people have one or more symptoms of insomnia and about 10% fulfil the criteria for a clinical diagnosis of insomnia [2].

Insomnia is more prevalent among women, older adults, and in individuals with less education. Insomnia symptoms are found to be associated with a range of conditions, especially mental conditions, pain conditions with uncertain aetiology and, to a lesser extent, chronic pain conditions [3]. There is close relationship between insomnia, depression, and anxiety [4].

#### **Classification of insomnia**

Insomnia can be classified according to variety of ways. According to International Classification insomnia is divided into two broad categories; primary insomnia or comorbid (secondary). In primary insomnia disturbance cannot be explained by any underlying medical, psychiatric, or environmental problem. Comorbid insomnia can be associated with medical conditions (e.g., chronic pain. thyroid dysfunction, oesophageal reflux), psychiatric disorders (anxiety, depression, bipolar disorder), neurologic disorders (Parkinson disease,

Alzheimer disease), primary sleep disorders (sleep apnoea, restless legs syndrome), and drugs [5]. Another method of classifying insomnia is by their duration: transient, defined as insomnia for less than 2 weeks; short term lasting for 2-4 weeks; and chronic, lasting for more than 4 weeks [6]. According to symptoms insomnia can be of three types: difficulty in onset of sleep; difficulty in maintaining sleep and nonrestorative sleep.

# PHYSIOLOGY OF SLEEP

# Sleep cycle

Sleep is divided into two distinct states known as rapid eye movement (REM) and non-rapid eve movement (NREM) sleep. The American Academy of Sleep Medicine (AASM) further divides NREM into three stages: N1, N2, and N3. Stage N3, characterized by the presence of high voltage slow waves (delta waves), is also termed slow wave sleep (SWS) and provides an indication of the intensity or depth of sleep [7]. REM sleep is characterised by irregular rapid movement of eye, low voltage EEG and low muscle tone. About 5% of sleep time is spent in stage I, 45% to 50% in stage II, and 25% to 30% in stages III and IV, while REM sleep accounts for 20% of total sleep time [5]. Sleep consist of approximately five to six cycles of 90 minutes, each cycle consisting of alternative NREM and REM stages of sleep [8].

# Neurochemistry of sleep

Wake promoting neurons release histamine or orexins, which directly stimulate the arousal centres as well as the cerebral cortex itself. Noradrenaline, acetylcholine and serotonin are also involved in the regulation of wakefulness [9].

## PATHOGENESIS OF INSOMNIA Causes of insomnia

Spielmen proposed most widely accepted 3P model which describes **p**redisposing conditions, **p**recipitating circumstances, and **p**erpetuating factors for development & maintenance of chronic insomnia [10]. Predisposing conditions may be having role in development of insomnia like hyperarousal and familial or genetic tendency. Compare to normal sleepers, Insomnia patients are found to be more aroused and less sleepy in bedroom before sleep [11]. Precipitating factors such as illness, family. work and school and other stressors may adversely influence a person's sleep [12]. Maladaptive sleep habits (e.g., extended time in bed, irregular sleep-wake schedules, irregular napping, sleep-incompatible activities in bed), dysfunctional cognitions (e.g., worry, unrealistic expectations, misattributions) are the perpetuating factors for insomnia [10].

# TREATMENT OPTIONS

Insomnia is associated with various daytime impairments such as chronic fatigue, inattention, irritability, diminished productivity, emotional problems and absenteeism. Insomnia can also increase the health related problems, use of alcohol, risk of accidents, and work impairment [13]. Current treatment options for treatment of insomnia can be divided into two parts: pharmacological therapy and cognitive behavioural therapy.

## A. COGNITIVE BEHAVIOURAL THERAPY (CBT)

Cognitive behavioural therapy is very important in case of insomnia. Cognitive behaviourally based self-help book is very beneficial to the patients of insomnia (reduces insomnia severity, and improve sleep and day-time functioning in adults with insomnia and co-morbid problems). The beneficial effects can be enhanced by adding brief, structured weekly therapist support over the telephone [14]. Cognitive behavioural therapy offers clinicallv effective option for treatment of the insomnia. In some studies it is found that CBT improves insomnia by decreasing sleep latency and wake time after sleep onset and increasing total sleep time and sleep efficacy [15, 16]. Benefits due to CBT and combination of CBT plus pharmacotherapy last longer than pharmacotherapy alone [17].

# Stimulus Control therapy (SCT)

It was the first non-pharmacological treatment to develop for the treatment of insomnia which later becomes gold standard for other non-pharmacological therapy. In many patients of insomnia, bed and bed room are associated with behaviour which is incompatible with sleep such as watching TV, eating, lying awake, and worrying. Aim of SCT is to dissociate

such type of behaviour by giving simple instructions such as, going into bed only when you are sleepy, not using the bed for any other activity other than sleep and sex and not staying awake in bed for more than 10 minutes, leaving the bedroom and coming back when feel sleepy. Waking up in the morning same time everyday irespective of hours of sleep and not sleeping during daytime [10].

# Sleep-Restriction Therapy (SRT)

SRT is very useful for patients who spend too much time in bed attempting to sleep {low sleep efficiency (SE: ratio of total sleep time to time spent in sleep)}. Rational behind partial sleep deprivation is that it increase homeostatic sleep drive and consolidates sleep. In SRT, initially mean total sleep time (TST) is determined by maintain sleep diary for 2 weeks before therapy. A wake time is fixed and according to mean TST required, a bed time is adjusted. For example if wake up time is fixed to 6:00 AM and total sleep time for patient is 7 hours, patient need to go to sleep at 11:00 PM. During each week bed time is reduced 15 minutes. Duration of SRT is 6 weeks [10]. Patient is not prescribed less than 5 hour of sleep time. If SE <85%, 15 minutes are reduced from time in bed. If SE > 90%, additional 15 minutes given to patient to sleep; & no change made if SE between 85-90% [10]. According to Taylor DJ et al, 8 week SRT and hypnotic withdrawal reported better sleep quality and dose reduction as compared to sleep alone education hygiene and also improvement in follow-up sessions [18].

# **Relaxation therapy**

Relaxation therapy, useful in insomnia with hyper-arousal, includes progressive muscle relaxation, deep breathing, guided imagery, meditation, yoga, and hypnosis [10]. As a monotherapy, relaxation therapy is not found to be effective but as a part of combination therapy, it is useful [19, 20].

# Sleep Hygiene and education (SHE)

Sleep hygiene controls all behavioural and environmental factors that precede sleep and may interfere with sleep [21]. In SHE patient is educated about sleep and its functions along with sets of rules that are to be followed like- avoiding coffee, alcohol and nicotine before bedtime, hide clock to avoid repeated watching of time, avoiding heavy meal near bedtime or skipping meals in the evening, minimize noise, light and excessive temperature during sleep, take a warm (not hot) bath before bedtime, use appropriate size of pillow and bedding according to comfort [22, 23].

# **Cognitive Therapy**

Various unrealistic cognitive beliefs play a role in development and maintenance of insomnia. Cognitive therapy targets these dysfunctional beliefs by challenging the validity of those beliefs through therapeutic process [24]. In a trial by Harvey et al. treating patients with cognitive therapy alone significantly improved symptoms of insomnia and day time impairment and was maintained through 12 month follow-up [25].

# **B. PHARMACOLOGICAL TREATMENT**

Current pharmacological treatment of insomnia consists of mainly three groups: Benzodiazepines; Novel Benzodiazepine Receptor Agonists (Z compounds); Melatonin receptor agonist.

## Benzodiazepines (BZDs)

approved benzodiazepines FDA for insomnia includes flurazepam, quazepam, estazolam, temazepam, and triazolam. BZDs increase total sleep duration by increasing time spent in stage II of NREM sleep, despite decrease in time spends in stage I, III & IV, & REM sleep. BZDs agonists act by binding to GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor at a site other than GABA  $(\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid) binding site and increase the amount of chloride current generated by GABA<sub>A</sub> activation [26]. BZDs decrease sleep latency and in some cases improve sleep maintenance by decreasing the awakening in night but are not useful in non-restorative sleep. BDZs are used to treat short term insomnia as their chronic use is associated with dependence and tolerance. In elderly, benefit of use of BZDs does not outweigh risk [27-29]. Common adverse events associated with BZDs include excessive sedation, motor incoordination, cognitive impairment and anterograde amnesia [29]. According to Wagner et al, use of long and short acting BZDs is associated with an increased incidence of hip fracture with peak at 2weeks of use [30]. Long acting as well as short acting BZDs increase residual day

time sleepiness and are associated with increase the risk of accidental fall and hip fracture [31].

## Novel Benzodiazepine Receptor Agonists (Z compounds)

These compounds provide better alternative in terms of safety with comparable efficacy. Z compounds bind to the  $\alpha 1$  subunit of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor and produce sedative and hypnotic effect without any anxiolytic or anticonvulsant or muscle relaxant property [32].

Zolpidem is a short acting drug, FDA approved for short term treatment of insomnia with difficulty in sleep onset. extended-release Zolpidem tablet is approved by FDA for the treatment of insomnia characterized by difficulties with sleep onset and/or sleep maintenance. Commonly observed adverse events of zolpidem are drugged feeling. lethargy and drowsiness [33, 34]. According to Krystal et al, the most common adverse effects associated with zolpidem extended-release as compared to placebo are headache, anxiety. somnolence. dizziness. fatigue. disturbance in attention, irritability, nausea, and sinusitis [35]. Zaleplon and zolpidem effective in relieving sleep-onset are insomnia and have been approved by the FDA for use for up to 7-10 days at a time [26]. Both the drugs have sustained hypnotic efficacy without occurrence of rebound insomnia on abrupt discontinuation [36]. Zaleplon and zolpidem have similar degrees of efficacy. Zolpidem has a t1/2 of approximately 2 hours, which is sufficient to cover most of a typical 8hour sleep period, and is presently approved for bedtime use only [26].

Zaleplon has a shorter  $t1/2 \sim 1$  hour and is approved for use immediately at bedtime or when the patient has difficulty falling asleep after bedtime. Because of its short t1/2, zaleplon has not been shown to be different from placebo in measures of duration of sleep and number of awakenings [26].

Eszopiclone is the active S(+) enantiomer of zopiclone. In various studies, it is found to be effective in both sleep onset and sleep maintenance type of insomnia. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved eszopiclone for the transient and chronic insomnia [26].

# Melatonin receptor agonist

Melatonin is a hormone secreted by pineal gland and has very important role in the maintenance of circadian rhythm regulation. Secretion of melatonin in body corresponds to the night hours [37]. Melatonin promotes sleep by reducing the effect of wake promoting signals in suprachiasmatic nucleus of hypothalamus [38]. Binding of melatonin to MT1 receptors promotes the onset of sleep while melatonin binding to  $MT_2$  receptors shifts the timing of the circadian system [39].

# Prolong release melatonin (PRM)

A prolonged- release melatonin (PRM) is licensed in Europe and other countries for the treatment of primary insomnia in patients aged 55 years and over for a duration of up to 3 months [40]. In some studies, Prolong release melatonin shows improvement in efficacy parameters of insomnia such as sleep latency, morning alertness, quality of life [41, 42]. It is the only drug that is approved for the treatment of insomnia with poor quality of sleep. According to Lemoine et al. discontinuation of PRM even after 12 months of use was not associated with adverse events, withdrawal symptoms, or suppression of endogenous melatonin production [40].

# Ramelteon

Ramelteon is a new FDA approved drug for onset type of insomnia and it acts as an agonist at MT<sub>1</sub> and MT<sub>2</sub> melatonin receptors located in the suprachiasmatic nuclei of the brain [43]. Adverse effects of ramelteon at the dose of 8mg/day include somnolence dizziness and fatigue [44]. Long term use of ramalteon is not associated with dependence and tolerance with no withdrawal symptoms or rebound insomnia on discontinuation [45]. It was found that there was significant impairment of driving performance. cognition, memorv and psychomotor performance when ramelteon 8 mg was given at bedtime but it did not produce balance impairment [46].

## Off-label drugs to treat insomnia

Some of the commonly used off label medications include sedative antihistaminics like diphenhydramine, doxilamine; sedative antidepressants like trazodone, amitriptyline, doxepin, trimipramine, mirtazapine, agomelatine[9]. Very few short term studies are available for over the counter medications and efficacy and safety of these medications for long term use is not known [47]. Doxepin, a tricyclic anti-depressant was approved by US FDA in 2010 for the treatment of insomnia with difficulty in sleep maintenance [9].

## Alternative treatments

Some of the herbal drugs used as an alternative medicine for insomnia include kava-kava and valerian [5]. Efficacy and safety of these medications for treatment of insomnia is not known.

## **RECENT ADVANCES**

## Orexin receptor antagonists

Orexin-A & -B are neuropeptides, also known as hypocretin-1 & -2 (as produced in lateral hypothalamus) are found to be having profound effect on arousal and sleep by acting through OX-1 & -2 receptors. In various studies, it was found that loss of producing orexin neurons led to development of narcolepsy in humans and rodents. Consequently interest in development of orexin receptor antagonist raised as a novel therapy for treatment of insomnia [48, 49]. Suvorexant (MK-4305), OX-1 & -2 antagonist, is a new molecule under development for treatment of insomnia and has completed phase III trial [9].

# Melatonin receptor agonist

Tasimelteon is a newer melatonin receptor agonist currently in phase III of clinical trial for the treatment of insomnia. Tasimelteon got an orphan drug status in the USA for treatment of non-24 hour sleep-wake disorder in blind people without light perception on 19<sup>th</sup> January 2010 [50]. NEU-P11 is a novel melatonin agonist under development for the treatment of insomnia. In various animal studies, it was found that it also inhibits weight gain and improves insulin sensitivity in high fat/high sucrose fed rats [51].

## Serotonin receptor modulators

It is now established that serotonin (5-HT) functions have role in promoting wakefulness and inhibition of REM sleep [52]. Various drugs are under development that modulates the serotonin receptor. Modulation of serotonin receptor remains worthwhile exploring.

## CONCLUSION

Prevalence of insomnia is high and is associated with a range of psychological, psychiatric. and medical conditions. Insomnia affects health by influencing cognitive, emotional, and social functioning. Insomnia develops under stressful conditions that lead to arousal, maladaptive sleep habits, and dysfunctional cognitions. Circadian and sleep homeostatic processes play an important role in insomnia development, maintenance, and treatment. Psychological and behavioural treatments for insomnia are efficacious for primary and comorbid insomnia. The common elements of CBT are stimulus control therapy, sleep restriction therapy, relaxation therapy, sleep hygiene and cognitive therapy. Adding pharmacological treatment to cognitive behavioural treatment can help in improving the condition. Alternative delivery methods and innovative treatments hold promise for increasing access to care and accelerating improvement.

#### REFERENCES

- 1. Sateia MJ, Nowell PD. Insomnia. Lancet. 2004 Nov 27-Dec 3;364(9449):1959-73.
- 2. Ohayon MM. Epidemiology of insomnia: what we know and what we still need to learn. Sleep Med Rev. 2002 Apr;6(2):97-111.
- Sivertsen B, Krokstad S, Øverland S, Mykletun A. The epidemiology of insomnia: associations with physical and mental health. The HUNT-2 study. J Psychosom Res. 2009 Aug;67(2):109-16.
- Taylor DJ, Lichstein KL, Durrence HH, Reidel BW, Bush AJ. Epidemiology of insomnia, depression, and anxiety. Sleep. 2005 Nov;28(11):1457-64.
- Budur K, Rodriguez C, Foldvary-Schaefer N. Advances in treating insomnia. Cleve Clin J Med. 2007 Apr;74(4):251-66.
- 6. Buysse DJ. Diagnosis and classification of insomnia disorder. In: Szuba MP, Kloss JD, Dinges DF editors. Insomnia: Principles and Management. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2003. p. 3-22.
- Silber MH, Ancoli-Israel S, Bonnet MH, Chokroverty S, Grigg-Damberger MM, Hirshkowitz M, Kapen S, Keenan SA, Kryger MH, Penzel T, Pressman MR, Iber C. The visual scoring of sleep in adults. J Clin Sleep Med. 2007 Mar 15;3(2):121-31.

- 8. Beersma DG. Models of human sleep regulation. Sleep Med Rev. 1998 Feb;2(1):31-43.
- 9. Zisapel N. Drugs for insomnia. Expert Opin Emerg Drugs. 2012 Sep;17(3):299-317.
- 10. Bootzin RR, Epstein DR. Understanding and treating insomnia. Annu Rev Clin Psychol. 2011;7:435-58.
- 11. Robertson JA, Broomfield NM, Espie CA. Prospective comparison of subjective arousal during the pre-sleep period in primary sleep-onset insomnia and normal sleepers. J Sleep Res. 2007 Jun;16(2):230-8.
- 12. Bastien CH, Vallières A, Morin CM. Precipitating factors of insomnia. Behav Sleep Med. 2004;2(1):50-62.
- 13. Simon GE, VonKorff M. Prevalence, burden, and treatment of insomnia in primary care. Am J Psychiatry. 1997 Oct;154(10):1417-23.
- 14. Jernelöv S, Lekander M, Blom K, Rydh S, Ljótsson B, Axelsson J, et al. Efficacy of a behavioral self-help treatment with or without therapist guidance for co-morbid and primary insomnia-a randomized controlled trial. BMC Psychiatry. 2012 Jan 22;12:5.
- 15. Espie CA, Inglis SJ, Tessier S, Harvey L. The clinical effectiveness of cognitive behaviour therapy for chronic insomnia: implementation and evaluation of a sleep clinic in general medical practice. Behav Res Ther. 2001 Jan;39(1):45-60.
- 16. Morin CM. Cognitive-behavioral approaches to the treatment of insomnia. J Clin Psychiatry. 2004;65 Suppl 16:33-40.
- 17. Morin CM, Blais F, Savard J. Are changes in beliefs and attitudes about sleep related to sleep improvements in the treatment of insomnia? Behav Res Ther. 2002 Jul;40(7):741-52.
- 18. Taylor DJ, Schmidt-Nowara W, Jessop CA, Ahearn J. Sleep restriction therapy and hypnotic withdrawal versus sleep hygiene education in hypnotic using patients with insomnia. J Clin Sleep Med. 2010 Apr 15;6(2):169-75.
- 19. Morin CM, Bootzin RR, Buysse DJ, Edinger JD, Espie CA, Lichstein KL. Psychological and behavioral treatment of insomnia:update of the recent evidence (1998-2004). Sleep. 2006 Nov;29(11):1398-414.
- 20. Jacobs GD, Pace-Schott EF, Stickgold R, Otto MW. Cognitive behavior therapy and pharmacotherapy for insomnia: a randomized controlled trial and direct comparison. Arch Intern Med. 2004 Sep 27;164(17):1888-96.
- 21. Van der Heijden KB, Smits MG, Gunning WB. Sleep hygiene and actigraphically evaluated

sleep characteristics in children with ADHD and chronic sleep onset insomnia. J Sleep Res. 2006 Mar;15(1):55-62.

- 22. Hauri PJ. Sleep hygiene, relaxation therapy, and cognitive interventions. In: Hauri PJ editor.Case Studies in Insomnia. New York: Plenum; 1991. p. 65–84.
- Lande RG, Gragnani C. Nonpharmacologic approaches to the management of insomnia. J Am Osteopath Assoc. 2010 Dec;110(12):695-701.
- 24. Belanger L, Savard J, Morin CM. Clinical management of insomnia using cognitive therapy. Behav Sleep Med. 2006;4(3):179-198.
- 25. Harvey AG, Sharpley AL, Ree MJ, Stinson K, Clark DM. An open trial of cognitive therapy for chronic insomnia. Behav Res Ther. 2007 Oct;45(10):2491-501.
- 26. Mihic SJ, Harris RA. Hypnotics and Sedatives. In: Brunton LL, Chabner BA, Knollmann BC, editors. Goodman & Gilman's the pharmacological basis of therapeutics. 12th ed. McGraw-Hill. p.457-80.
- Glass J, Lanctôt KL, Herrmann N, Sproule BA, Busto UE. Sedative hypnotics in older people with insomnia: meta-analysis of risks and benefits. BMJ. 2005 Nov 19;331(7526):1169.
- 28. Szabadi E. Drugs for sleep disorders: mechanisms and therapeutic prospects. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 2006 Jun;61(6):761-6.
- 29. Lader M. Benzodiazepines revisited--will we ever learn? Addiction. 2011 Dec;106(12):2086-109.
- 30. Wagner AK, Zhang F, Soumerai SB, Walker AM, Gurwitz JH, Glynn RJ, Ross-Degnan D. Benzodiazepine use and hip fractures in the elderly: who is at greatest risk? Arch Intern Med. 2004 Jul 26;164(14):1567-72.
- 31. Vermeeren A. Residual effects of hypnotics: epidemiology and clinical implications. CNS Drugs. 2004;18(5):297-328.
- 32. Lavoisy J, Zivkovic B, Benavides J, Perrault GH, Robert P. Contribution of zolpidem in the management of sleep disorders. Encephale. 1992 Jul-Aug;18(4):379-92.
- Dockhorn RJ, Dockhorn DW. Zolpidem in the treatment of short-term insomnia: a randomized, double-blind, placebocontrolled clinical trial. Clin Neuropharmacol. 1996 Aug;19(4):333-40.
- 34. Scharf MB, Roth T, Vogel GW, Walsh JK. A multicenter, placebo-controlled study evaluating zolpidem in the treatment of chronic insomnia. J Clin Psychiatry. 1994 May;55(5):192-9.
- 35. Krystal AD, Erman M, Zammit GK, Soubrane C, Roth T; ZOLONG Study Group. Long-term

efficacy and safety of zolpidem extendedrelease 12.5 mg, administered 3 to 7 nights per week for 24 weeks, in patients with chronic primary insomnia: a 6-month, randomized, double-blind, placebocontrolled, parallel-group, multicenter study. Sleep. 2008 Jan;31(1):79-90.

- 36. Walsh JK, Vogel GW, Scharf M, Erman M, William Erwin C, Schweitzer PK, Mangano RM, Roth T. A five week, polysomnographic assessment of zaleplon 10 mg for the treatment of primary insomnia. Sleep Med. 2000 Feb 1;1(1):41-49.
- Brzezinski A. Melatonin in humans. N Engl J Med. 1997 Jan 16;336(3):186-95.
- Reiter RJ. Melatonin: clinical relevance. Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2003 Jun;17(2):273-85.
- 39. Liu C, Weaver DR, Jin X, Shearman LP, Pieschl RL, Gribkoff VK, Reppert SM. Molecular dissection of two distinct actions of melatonin on the suprachiasmatic circadian clock. Neuron. 1997 Jul;19(1):91-102.
- 40. Lemoine P, Garfinkel D, Laudon M, Nir T, Zisapel N. Prolonged-release melatonin for insomnia - an open-label long-term study of efficacy, safety, and withdrawal. Ther Clin Risk Manag. 2011;7:301-11.
- 41. Wade AG, Ford I, Crawford G, McConnachie A, Nir T, Laudon M, et al. Nightly treatment of primary insomnia with prolonged release melatonin for 6 months: a randomized placebo controlled trial on age and endogenous melatonin as predictors of efficacy and safety. BMC Med. 2010 Aug 16;8:51.
- 42. Wade AG, Ford I, Crawford G, McMahon AD, Nir T, Laudon M, Zisapel N. Efficacy of prolonged release melatonin in insomnia patients aged 55-80 years: quality of sleep and next-day alertness outcomes. Curr Med Res Opin. 2007 Oct;23(10):2597-605.
- 43. Trevor AJ, Way WL. Sedative-Hypnotic drugs. In: Katzung BG, Masters SB, Trevor AJ, editors. Basic & Clinical Pharmacology. 11th ed. McGraw-Hill; 2009. p.371-86.
- 44. Miyamoto M. Pharmacology of ramelteon, a selective MT1/MT2 receptor agonist: a novel therapeutic drug for sleep disorders. CNS Neurosci Ther. 2009 Winter;15(1):32-51.
- 45. Mayer G, Wang-Weigand S, Roth-Schechter B, Lehmann R, Staner C, Partinen M. Efficacy and safety of 6-month nightly ramelteon administration in adults with chronic primary insomnia. Sleep. 2009 Mar;32(3):351-60.

- 46. Mets MA, de Vries JM, de Senerpont Domis LM, Volkerts ER, Olivier B, Verster JC. Nextday effects of ramelteon (8 mg), zopiclone (7.5 mg), and placebo on highway driving performance, memory functioning, psychomotor performance, and mood in healthy adult subjects. Sleep. 2011 Oct 1;34(10):1327-34.
- 47. Meolie AL, Rosen C, Kristo D, Kohrman M, Gooneratne N, Aguillard RN, et al. Oral nonprescription treatment for insomnia: an evaluation of products with limited evidence. J Clin Sleep Med. 2005 Apr 15;1(2):173-87.
- 48. Crocker A, España RA, Papadopoulou M, Saper CB, Faraco J, Sakurai T, et al. Concomitant loss of dynorphin, NARP, and orexin in narcolepsy. Neurology. 2005 Oct 25;65(8):1184-8.
- 49. Scammell TE, Winrow CJ. Orexin receptors: pharmacology and therapeutic opportunities. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol. 2011;51:243-66.
- 50. Lankford DA. Tasimelteon for insomnia. Expert Opin Investig Drugs. 2011 Jul;20(7):987-93.
- 51. She M, Deng X, Guo Z, Laudon M, Hu Z, Liao D, et al. NEU-P11, a novel melatonin agonist, inhibits weight gain and improves insulin sensitivity in high-fat/high-sucrose-fed rats. Pharmacol Res. 2009 Apr;59(4):248-53.
- 52. Monti JM. Serotonin control of sleep-wake behavior. Sleep Med Rev. 2011 Aug;15(4):269-81.