

Tracking potentiating states of dissociation: An intensive clinical case study of sleep, daydreaming, mood, and depersonalization/derealization

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Provisional

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Provisional

Abstract

This study examined in real time the role of sleep and daydreaming as potentiating states for subsequent dissociation in depersonalization/derealization disorder (DDD). Research and theory suggests that dissociation may be exacerbated and maintained by a labile sleep-wake cycle in which ‘dream-like’ mentation intrudes into waking life and fuels dissociative symptoms. We explore and extend this idea by examining the state of daydreaming in dissociation. Daydreaming is a state of consciousness between dreaming and waking cognition that involves stimulus-independent and task-unrelated mentation. We report the results of a unique intensive N=1 study with an individual meeting diagnostic criteria for DDD. Using experience-sampling methodology, the participant rated (six times daily for 40 days) current daydreaming, mood, and dissociative symptoms. At the start of each day sleep quality and duration was also rated. Daydreaming was reported on 45% of occasions and significantly predicted greater dissociation, in particular when daydreams were repetitive and negative (but not fanciful) in content. These relationships were mediated by feelings of depression and anxiety. Sleep quality but not duration was a negative predictor of daily dissociation and also negatively predicted depression but not anxiety. Findings offer initial evidence that the occurrence and content of daydreams may act as potentiating states for heightened, in the moment, dissociation. The treatment implications of targeting sleep and daydreaming for dissociative disorders are discussed.

Keywords: daydreaming, mindwandering, dissociation, depersonalization, sleep, emotion, experience-sampling methodology, clinical case study

Introduction

100
101
102 Detaching from one's immediate surroundings when engrossed in an exhilarating
103 novel or experiencing the energized focus of 'flow' at work, are examples of
104 dissociative experiences that can occur in everyday life. Although typically viewed on
105 a continuum, clinical forms of dissociation are not simply reflective of psychological
106 absorption. Dissociation in dissociative disorders typically involves substantial
107 ongoing problems in integrating thoughts and feelings into consciousness and
108 memory, with associated poor psychosocial functioning (Waller, Putnam, & Carlson,
109 1996). Prevalence estimates for dissociative disorders range from 4-29% of the
110 population and typically involve two common aspects of dissociation:
111 depersonalization (i.e., feelings of disconnection from one's self such as feeling like a
112 robot or automaton) and derealization (i.e., feeling disconnected from ongoing reality,
113 as if the world is distorted or moving in slow motion; van der Kloet, Merckelbach,
114 Giesbrecht, & Lynn, 2012). Recent research and theory proposes that dissociative
115 disorders are maintained and exacerbated by a labile sleep-wake cycle. In this cycle,
116 imaginative, 'dream-like', mentation intrudes into waking life, which, in turn,
117 contributes to dissociative experiences and symptoms. In this paper, we present an
118 initial test and extension of this theory by examining the role of *daydreaming* in
119 dissociation. Specifically, we view daydreaming as a form of dream-like mentation
120 and examine its relationship with sleep, mood, and dissociative symptoms in a unique
121 experience-sampling study with an individual meeting diagnostic criteria for
122 depersonalization/derealization disorder (DDD; APA, 2013).

123 124 **Dissociation and a labile sleep-wake cycle**

125 The etiology of dissociative disorders has historically been proposed to reflect either
126 coping with early childhood adversity/trauma (e.g., Bremner, 2010; Gleaves, 1996;
127 Sanders & Giolas, 1991) or social learning/expectancies (e.g., Lilienfeld et al., 1999).
128 However, more contemporary approaches (e.g., Lynn, Lilienfeld, Merckelbach,
129 Giesbrecht, & van der Kloet, 2012; van Heugten–van der Kloet, Merckelbach,
130 Giesbrecht, & Broers, 2014; van der Kloet et al., 2012; Watson, 2001) highlight the
131 important role of sleep experiences for the proximal development and severity of
132 subsequent dissociation. According to this model "sleep-related deficiencies in
133 cognitive control may promote an influx of imaginative, dreamlike mentation in daily
134 life that contributes to dissociative symptoms such as depersonalization and
135 derealization" (van der Kloet et al., 2012; p. 167). A labile sleep-wake cycle is
136 proposed to promote dissociation by 'pushing' sleep-like mentation into waking
137 consciousness, which then fuels fantasy-proneness, and is associated with cognitive
138 failures, and feelings of depersonalization/derealization.

139
140 Several studies support the close association between sleep disturbance and
141 dissociative symptoms. Correlational research consistently shows that sleep
142 disturbances (e.g., unusual sleep experiences) are positively correlated with
143 dissociation (e.g., Agargun et al., 2003; Giesbrecht & Merckelbach, 2004; Koffel &
144 Watson, 2009a; Levin & Fireman, 2002; Watson, 2001) and experimental studies
145 demonstrate that dissociative symptoms are heightened by sleep-wake cycle
146 disruptions (Giesbrecht, Smeets, Leppink, Jelicic, & Merckelbach, 2007; van
147 Heugten–van der Kloet, Giesbrecht, & Merckelbach, 2015). Although this research
148 indicates that sleep disturbances may exacerbate dissociation, research has yet to fully
149 identify and examine the 'dream-like mentation' purported to precede and fuel

150 dissociation in daily life. Research has therefore typically focused on the distal
151 relationship between nighttime experiences and daytime dissociation rather than
152 examining how different states of consciousness may be linked to current dissociation
153 as they actually occur during wakefulness. We address this gap by examining the state
154 of daydreaming in dissociation, which can be conceptualized as a state of
155 consciousness in between fully-focused waking thought and sleep mentation (i.e.,
156 dreaming). We draw on existing research and theory on daydreaming and emotion to
157 extend theoretical ideas about dream-like mentation (daydreaming) as a potentiating
158 state for heightened dissociation. To ensure external validity and clinical credibility,
159 the theory is tested in an experience-sampling study with an individual meeting
160 diagnostic criteria for DDD (APA, 2013).

161

162 **Daydreaming as dream-like mentation**

163 Daydreaming (also variously referred to as mindwandering, spontaneous thought, off-
164 task thinking, stimulus-independent thought) can be defined as mental content that is
165 both stimulus-independent and task-unrelated (Stawarczyk, Majerus, Maj, Van der
166 Linden & D'Argembeau, 2011). Daydreaming is stimulus-independent because its
167 content is not directly related to the processing of the immediate environment (i.e., it
168 is internally generated) and it is task-unrelated because its content is unrelated to the
169 progression or completion of the current goal(s) in the external environment. Thus
170 defined, daydreaming is estimated to occupy between a third and a half of waking life
171 (Killingsworth & Gilbert, 2010; Klinger & Cox, 1987), during which thought operates
172 in a more free-flowing, diffuse, and less directed manner than during other kinds of
173 waking mentation (e.g., the deliberate and fully focused thought involved in
174 calculating one's monthly finances) (Klinger, 2009).

175

176 Several researchers have noted parallels between the daydreaming state and
177 dreaming/sleeping states (e.g., Christoff, Gordon, & Smith, 2011; Fox, Nijeboer,
178 Solomonova, Domhoff, & Christoff, 2013; Klinger, 2013; Raichle, 2009; Wamsley,
179 2013), supporting the notion that daydreaming lies in the middle of the sleep-wake
180 mentation continuum (e.g., Hartmann, 2010; Montangero, 2012). Daydreams show
181 substantial similarities with dreams both in terms of their content and
182 neurophysiological basis (see Fox et al., 2013 and Wamsley, 2013, for reviews). Both
183 daydreaming and dreaming involve activation of the default-mode network, which is
184 a core network of regions including the medial prefrontal and cingulate cortex, the
185 medial temporal lobe, the lateral parietal cortex, and areas of the cerebellum and
186 striatum (Buckner, Andrews-Hanna, & Schacter, 2008). Domhoff and Fox (2015)
187 have recently conceptualized dreaming as an intensified form of daydreaming because
188 of the increased activation in areas of the default mode network that support
189 sensorimotor imagery in REM sleep relative to the 'resting' states characteristic of
190 daydreaming. These authors further suggest that "people can indeed drift into
191 dreaming during periods of relaxed wakefulness and mindwandering" (p.349) which
192 mirrors suggestions that 'dream-like' or even dreaming mentation can enter
193 consciousness during wakefulness through daydreaming.

194

195 If daydreaming can be one way in which dream-like mentation intrudes into
196 consciousness in dissociative disorders and exacerbates symptoms, then how might
197 these relationships present and unfold in daily life? We propose an initial model of
198 these relationships (shown in Figure 1) in which sleep disturbances
199 exacerbate/increase daydreaming; and, in turn, daydreaming (and its characteristics)

200 elicits negative mood and subsequent dissociation. We now review the evidence for
201 each component of this suggested model within existing literature.

202
203 [Insert Figure 1 about here]

204 205 **Sleep disturbance and daydreaming frequency**

206 Several lines of converging evidence support the proposal that, at least in normative
207 samples, sleep disturbances are related to increased mindwandering/daydreaming. In
208 both laboratory settings and in daily life, daytime fatigue and sleepiness have been
209 consistently associated with increased momentary mindwandering and daydreaming
210 (e.g., Antrobus, Singer, & Greenberg, 1966; Antrobus, Coleman, & Singer, 1967;
211 Manly, Lewis, Robertson, Watson, & Datta, 2002; McVay & Kane, 2009). Sleep
212 duration has been negatively associated with hours spent daydreaming (Kunzendorf,
213 Brown, & McGee, 1983) and sleep deprivation has also been associated with higher
214 rates of later daydreaming (Mikulincer, Babkoff, Capsy, & Weiss, 1990). More
215 recently, daydreaming frequency has been positively associated with various aspects
216 of poor sleep quality (such as sleep latency and disturbances; Carciofo, Du, Song, &
217 Zhang, 2014). People who report poorer sleep quality and more unusual sleep
218 experiences (e.g., sleep paralysis and lucid dreaming) also report daydreaming more
219 frequently (Denis & Poerio, 2016).

220 There are several possibilities for how sleep disturbances might predict the
221 incidence of daydreaming in dissociative disorders. First, as implied by models of
222 dissociation (van der Kloet et al., 2012), poorer sleep could make the intrusion of
223 dream-like mentation via daydreams more common in dissociation. Second, poorer
224 sleep quality could increase levels of fatigue or reduce metacognitive control which
225 might then be associated with greater daydreaming, in turn increasing the likelihood
226 of a dissociative experience in someone prone to dissociation. Indeed previous
227 research has linked dissociation with increased distractibility and attentional
228 difficulties (Guralnik et al., 2007). Another possibility is that both the labile sleep-
229 wake cycle and daydreaming incidence may be underlined by a latent trait in
230 dissociation characterized by attentional/metacognitive control difficulties (which in
231 itself could make intrusions of sleep experiences into waking thought more likely).
232 Although we do not test specifically test these possible mechanisms in the present
233 study, we examine for the first time whether the basic association between sleep
234 disturbances and increased daydreaming found in non-clinical samples also occurs in
235 dissociative disorder. Based on the reviewed evidence, we predict that measures
236 indexing sleep disturbance (e.g., sleep duration and quality) would also be associated
237 greater daydreaming incidence in dissociative disorders.

238 239 **Daydreaming and dissociative symptoms**

240 Daydreaming is typically conceived of as state or symptom of both normative (e.g.,
241 Butler, 2004) and pathological dissociation (Holmes et al., 2005; Lynn et al., 2012).
242 Indeed, measures of dissociation typically include items related to psychological
243 absorption/daydreaming (e.g., “becoming so involved in a fantasy or daydream that it
244 feels as though it were really happening to you” from the Dissociative Experiences
245 Scale; Carlson & Putnam, 2000). Additionally, cross-sectional research has shown
246 that daydreaming styles are positively associated with both dissociative experiences
247 (Segal & Lynn, 1993) and clinical dissociation (Levin & Spei, 2004). More recent
248 research using a large sample has associated the tendency to daydream more
249 frequently with having more dissociative experiences (Denis & Poerio, 2016).

250 However, the existing research has treated daydreaming as a trait or global variable
251 (e.g., daydreaming style or typical frequency) and has not yet examined whether the
252 state of daydreaming is associated with dissociation. This makes it difficult to
253 ascertain whether daydreaming is a concomitant of dissociation or, as theories might
254 suggest, a state that precedes and fuels dissociative symptoms. Whether momentary
255 daydreams are associated with symptoms of dissociation is therefore an open
256 question. We suggest that rather than daydreams per se being associated with worse
257 dissociation, the effect of momentary daydreams on dissociative symptoms will
258 depend on the characteristics of specific daydreams and their relationship with
259 affective states.

260

261 **Daydreaming characteristics, mood, and dissociation**

262 Although daydreaming has been previously labeled as a homogeneous experience that
263 has negative effects on emotional well-being (e.g. Killingsworth & Gilbert, 2010),
264 emerging research has consistently supported the view that daydreaming is a
265 heterogeneous experience and that it is through this heterogeneity that certain costs
266 and benefits of the experience emerge (Smallwood & Andrews-Hanna, 2013). With
267 respect to emotional well-being, a number of studies indicate that the characteristics
268 of daydreams (e.g., what people daydream about) determine whether daydreaming has
269 a positive or negative effect on emotional experiences. For example, research has
270 consistently found that daydreams with a positive emotional and social content are
271 associated with beneficial affective outcomes (e.g., greater feelings of happiness,
272 reduced loneliness; Poerio, Totterdell, & Miles, 2013; Poerio, Totterdell, Emerson, &
273 Miles, 2015a; 2015b; 2016). Analogously, other research has identified the specific
274 characteristics of daydreaming related to negative affective outcomes. In particular,
275 repetitive, self-focused, unintentional, and negative daydreams have been linked with
276 poorer emotional well-being and psychological disorder (Deng, Li, & Tang, 2014;
277 Marchetti, Koster, Klinger, & Alloy, 2016; Marchetti, Van de Putte, & Koster, 2014;
278 Ottaviani & Couyoumdjian, 2013). This suggests that although daydreaming is likely
279 to be associated with affective outcomes and psychopathological symptomology, this
280 relationship will likely depend on the characteristics of daydreaming.

281

282 Drawing on this research and the importance of viewing daydreaming as a
283 heterogeneous experience, we sought to capture pertinent characteristics of
284 daydreaming and their links to mood and dissociation in the present study.
285 Specifically, we measured the emotional valence, repetitive, and fanciful nature of
286 individual daydreams. The first two characteristics were chosen because research in
287 both daydreaming and repetitive thought has consistently associated negative and
288 repetitive thoughts with the occurrence and maintenance of psychopathology (e.g.,
289 Segerstrom, Stanton, Alden, & Shortridge, 2003; Watkins 2008). In light of this
290 evidence, we expected that daydreams that were more negative in valence and
291 repetitive would be associated with greater dissociation. The fanciful nature of
292 daydreams was chosen as a characteristic of specific clinical relevance to dissociative
293 disorders. Fantasy proneness (i.e., the tendency to engage in vivid imaginative
294 experiences) is a consistent correlate of dissociation in both clinical and non-clinical
295 samples (e.g., Giesbrecht & Merckelbach, 2006; Rauschenberger & Lynn, 1995).
296 Indeed, fantasy proneness is a personality trait that is proposed to map onto
297 dissociation, and fantasy intrusions into waking states are proposed to be a
298 symptomatic and maintenance factor for dissociative disorders (van der Kloet et al.,
299 2012). To our knowledge, no previous research has examined fantasy as a current

300 state (e.g., in terms of on-going fanciful daydreams) to assess whether such fanciful
301 cognition is associated with dissociation. Based on previous research and theory, we
302 expected more fanciful daydreams to be associated with greater dissociation.
303

304 **The present study**

305 Building on existing theories of sleep disturbances in dissociation and research on
306 daydreaming, we propose an initial model of how sleep and daydreaming interrelate
307 to predict negative mood and dissociative symptoms during dissociative disorder.
308 Specifically, we predict that sleep disturbances will be associated with a greater
309 incidence of daydreaming; and that daydreaming will be associated with greater
310 symptoms of dissociation and negative mood depending on the nature of those
311 daydreams (i.e., the extent to which they are fanciful, repetitive and negative). We
312 tested this model by sampling daydreaming episodes, sleep experience, negative
313 mood (anxiety and depression), and dissociative symptoms of an individual with
314 DDD in an intensive single-case experience-sampling study. Intensive quantitative
315 single clinical case study research has a long and significant heritage and is
316 particularly indicated in the 'hourglass model' (Salkovskis, 1997) when there is a lack
317 of evidence for clinical phenomena and a need for associated theory building.
318 Experience-sampling involves reporting on targeted momentary experiences on each
319 occasion participants are signaled over a period of time (Stone, Kessler, &
320 Haythornthwaite, 1991). In a clinical context, experience-sampling enables an
321 examination of how fluctuations in everyday experience (e.g., daydreaming) relate to
322 changes in clinical symptoms (e.g., dissociation) within a patient over time, which can
323 be different from between person relationships (Tennen & Affleck, 2002). This
324 method has been found to be particularly useful in N=1 outcome studies (e.g.,
325 Totterdell, Kellett, & Mansell, 2012), because it has the advantage of capturing
326 relationships between, and change in, clinical symptoms much closer to their
327 occurrence, compared to traditional retrospective nomothetic outcome measures.
328

329 **Materials and methods**

330 **Participant**

331 The participant was a 24 years old white-British male. The participant had a history of
332 childhood trauma (poor attachment and an assault) and associated attendance in child
333 and adult psychiatric services. Previous psychiatric assessment on three separate
334 occasions had diagnosed a dissociative disorder, with childhood onset. The participant
335 had also been previously diagnosed with Generalized Anxiety Disorder as a child by a
336 psychiatrist. There were no previous episodes of psychiatric admission to an in-
337 patient setting. The participant approached the research team volunteering to
338 participate in research because of his diagnosis and the impact he recognized the
339 dissociation had on his ability to function. Throughout the duration of the study, the
340 patient was taking a low dose of an anti-convulsant and this did not change. Prior to
341 the current study the patient underwent psychological assessment in the form of the
342 (a) Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV Dissociative Disorders (SCID-D;
343 Steinberg, 1993) and (b) Clinician Administered Dissociative States Scale (CADSS;
344 Bremner et al., 1998). The SCID-D findings were that the patient met diagnostic
345 criteria for DDD (APA, 2013) and, on the CADSS, the participant scored 74, which is
346 above the mean for dissociative disorder (Bremner et al., 1998). In brief, the
347 participant described chronic feeling of disconnection from his immediate
348 environment, frequently occupying a cut-off dreamlike state and that he frequently
349

350 experienced himself as an unreal, disembodied, robot-like figure. Regarding sleep, the
351 participant stated at assessment that he was a vivid dreamer and that his sleep was
352 chaotic and labile; he frequently went to bed much later than the average person
353 (therefore sleeping later in the day) and often had disturbed and broken sleep.

354

355 **Experience-sampling protocol**

356 A signal-contingent experience-sampling protocol (Wheeler & Reis, 1991) was used
357 to obtain repeated data on dissociation, daydreaming, mood and sleep. The
358 participant was signaled on a smartphone via text message six times daily for 40 days
359 with a link to answer online questionnaires regarding dissociation, daydreaming,
360 mood and sleep (see for example, Poerio et al., 2015b, 2016). The six signals were
361 scheduled to occur in three pairs of two signals (separated by between 5-10 minutes)
362 during the following time slots, which were chosen according to the participant's
363 typical waking hours: 12:00-16:30, 16:30-21:30, 21:30-02:30. The first signal in each
364 pair occurred at a random time within each time block with the constraint that pairs of
365 consecutive signals were at least an hour apart. The pairing of signals in each time
366 slot was originally designed to allow an examination of temporal contiguity (by
367 splitting the data into two alternate time-series) over a longer period but the study was
368 curtailed to 40 days due to the participant's new work commitments, so the reduced
369 number of observations meant that this could not be examined.

370

371 **Procedure**

372 After completing the psychological assessment, the participant met with the
373 researchers on two occasions to discuss the nature of the study and what it would
374 involve. In the first session, the experience-sampling design and appropriate times for
375 signaling were negotiated to fit in with daily routines. We also collaborated with the
376 participant regarding wording of items to ensure that measures of dissociative
377 symptoms were grounded in the participant's daily experiences of derealization and
378 depersonalization (Kellett & Beail, 1997). In the second session, the participant was
379 provided with detailed instructions for completing the study. He was given a written
380 and verbal description of daydreaming and his understanding of the concept was
381 checked and discussed. In line with previous studies (e.g., Poerio et al., 2015b, 2016),
382 a daydream was defined as a series of connected thoughts and/or images where that
383 mental content is not about whatever mental or physical activity one is engaged in at
384 the present moment. Next, the participant was provided with a demonstration of the
385 text message with online questionnaire link and verbal explanation of the meaning
386 and response of each questionnaire item. All instructions for how to complete the
387 study were also provided in written format for later reference. Informed consent was
388 obtained and a start date for the experience-sampling was agreed. At the end of the
389 training session, the participant completed global measures indexing dissociative
390 experiences over the past month. Ethical approval for this study was obtained from
391 the University of Sheffield Psychology ethics committee and was conducted in line
392 with British Psychological Society ethical guidelines.

393

394 **Global dissociation measures**

395 **Cambridge Depersonalization Scale** (CDS; Sierra & Berrios, 2000). 29-items
396 measured the frequency and duration of depersonalization and derealization
397 symptoms associated with depersonalization disorder including: abnormal sensory
398 experiences (e.g., "*Familiar voices (including my own) sound remote and unreal*"),
399 cognitive and emotional complaints (e.g., "*When I weep or laugh, I do not seem to*

400 *feel any emotions at all*") and space and time distortions (e.g. "*Objects around me*
401 *seem to look smaller or further away*"). Each item was rated on two likert scales for
402 frequency over the past month (1 = *never*, 5 = *all the time*) and duration of the
403 experience (1 = *a few seconds*, 6 = *more than a week*). Average scores for frequency
404 and duration were calculated with higher values indexing more frequent and longer-
405 lasting symptoms of depersonalization over the preceding month.

406
407 **Dissociative Experiences Scale (DES-II;** Carlson & Putnam, 2000). 28-items
408 measured the frequency of dissociative experiences over the past month (e.g.,
409 "*Finding yourself in a place and having no idea how you got there*"). Each item was
410 rated using 100-point sliding scales (higher values indicating greater frequency).
411 Scores for each item were summed to create an overall score with higher scores
412 indicative of greater dissociative experiences over the past month. The measure also
413 included three subscales, each with 6-items, indexing amnesia (e.g., "*Finding yourself*
414 *dressed in clothes that you don't remember putting on*"),
415 depersonalization/derealization (e.g., "*Looking in the mirror and not recognizing*
416 *yourself*"), and absorption (e.g., "*Sitting staring off into space, thinking of nothing,*
417 *and not being aware of the passage of time*").

418
419 **Experience-sampling measures**

420 At each signal, the first question always asked about daydreaming and, if applicable,
421 daydreaming characteristics. These questions were followed by items regarding mood
422 and dissociative symptoms, and finally alcohol consumption within the past three
423 hours. For the first signal of every day, the daydreaming questions were followed by
424 items indexing the previous night's sleep. The set of experience-sampling items was
425 kept brief to minimize participant burden, in line with recommended practice (Bolger,
426 Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003; Christensen, Barrett, Bliss-Moreau, Lebo, & Kaschub, 2003).
427

428 **Daydreaming incidence and characteristics.** The participant was asked "*Right*
429 *before you were signaled, or within the last 5 minutes, were you daydreaming?*" (0 =
430 *No*, 1 = *Yes*). When the participant answered affirmatively, he was asked several other
431 questions about the characteristics of that daydream. Each daydream was rated on
432 three 7-point scales according to its fanciful nature (1 = *completely realistic*, 7 =
433 *completely fanciful*), emotional valence (1 = *very negative*, 7 = *very positive*), and
434 novelty (1 = *very repetitive*, 7 = *completely novel*). The order of these items was
435 individually randomized for each presentation.

436
437 **Current mood and dissociative symptoms.** In response to the question "*How do you*
438 *feel right now?*" the participant answered two items concerning mood that indexed
439 anxiety ("*anxious*") and depression ("*depressed*"), and seven items concerning
440 dissociative symptoms that included three items for experiences of derealization ("*Cut*
441 *off from the world around me*", "*Detached from my surroundings*", "*That the world*
442 *around me seems to look smaller or larger*"), and four items for experiences of
443 depersonalization ("*Emotionally numb*", "*That I am outside of my body*", "*That I am*
444 *robotic*", "*That I am a detached observer*"). The symptoms of dissociation were taken
445 from the Cambridge Depersonalization Scale (CDS; Sierra & Berrios, 2000) and were
446 adapted to effectively tap into the participant's own experience of dissociation. This
447 'client centred' and idiographic measurement of clinical phenomena is at the
448 methodological heart of N=1 research (Totterdell, Kellett, & Mansell, 2012).
449 Detailed efforts were therefore made to ensure the high face validity of dissociative

450 items with the participant, so that the items were grounded in their daily experience of
451 dissociation. This is in keeping with good practice in the design of N=1 research
452 (Kellett & Beail, 1997). For example, CDS item 1 'out of the blue, I feel strange, as if
453 were not real or as if I were cut from the world around me' was shortened in
454 collaboration with the participant to 'cut off from the word around me' with the stem
455 of I am currently feeling. The order of all these items was individually randomized for
456 each presentation and items were answered on a 5-point scale from 1(*not at all*) to
457 5(*extremely*). The seven dissociative symptom items were averaged at each time point
458 to create an overall score, where higher values indicated greater current experience of
459 dissociation in general (derealization and depersonalization) ($\alpha = .81$).

460
461 **Alcohol and medication.** The participant indicated his recent alcohol consumption
462 (“*Have you consumed any alcohol in the last 3 hours?*”; 0 = *No*, 1 = *Yes*) and, using a
463 free text response box, whether there had been any deviations from his medication (of
464 which there were none reported during the study). Alcohol consumption was
465 measured to be included as a control variable in our analyses. This was because the
466 participant indicated during assessment that alcohol typically increased his tendency
467 to dissociate (although there was no evidence of alcohol dependency from the
468 assessment). This is also consistent with previous research suggesting that clinical
469 dissociation is made worse by alcohol consumption (Baker et al., 2003).

470
471 **Sleep.** The participant was asked to provide the previous night’s time of sleep onset
472 and waking (“*What time did you go to sleep/wake up?*”); the total daily minutes of
473 sleep duration was calculated from these values. Sleep quality was assessed with a
474 single item “*How well did you sleep last night?*” ranging from 1(*very badly*) to 7(*very*
475 *well*).

476

477

Results

478

479 Analytical approach

480 The data were examined with regression and mediation analyses. We modeled the
481 non-independence of the repeated measurement data by first determining the
482 autoregressive structure of each time series using plots of their autocorrelation
483 function and partial autocorrelation function (see Pollock, Kellett, & Totterdell, 2014
484 for a similar time series analysis of ideographic clinical symptoms). The functions
485 indicated the presence of a second order autocorrelation in the time series (probably
486 owing to the pairing of signals), so the second order lag of each dependent variable
487 was included as a predictor in each model to control for its potential influence. For
488 analyses examining associations with sleep variables, we aggregated sampled
489 observations (e.g., individual instances of daydreaming) so that each day of the study
490 was associated with one mean score per variable; we modeled the non-independence
491 of daily data by including the first-order lag of the dependent variable in each
492 regression model. This procedure allowed us to examine associations between sleep
493 and average daily levels of daydreaming, dissociation, and mood. Alcohol
494 consumption was controlled for in all analyses and all regressions were performed
495 with bootstrapping (1000 samples).

496

497 Response rate

498 All of the experience-sampling data were date and time stamped allowing us to check
499 when the surveys were completed. Only the first answered survey was counted as a

500 valid response if consecutively answered signals were less than five minutes apart. Of
501 the 211 occasions on which experiences were reported, 81 (38%) were considered
502 invalid; this left 130 observations upon which the following analyses were based
503 which corresponds to a 54% valid response rate over the study period.

504

505 **Descriptive statistics**

506 At the start of the study, the participant's average level of dissociative experiences
507 according to the Dissociative Experiences Scale was 57.61 (measured on 100-point
508 scale where >30 is considered a clinical cut-off for dissociation). Average values for
509 each subscale of the DES also showed that symptoms of
510 depersonalization/derealization ($M = 73.33$) and absorption ($M = 75.67$) were high;
511 and levels of amnesia were relatively low ($M = 29.83$). Mirroring this, average levels
512 for the Cambridge Depersonalization Scale showed high frequency and duration of
513 dissociative symptoms ($M_{frequency} = 4.03$; $M_{duration} = 4.45$). Daydreaming was reported
514 on 45% of sampled occasions. This frequency of daydreaming is within the range
515 reported by other experience-sampling studies with non-clinical samples (e.g., 26%:
516 Franklin et al., 2013; 30%: Kane et al., 2007; 47%: Killingsworth & Gilbert, 2010;
517 36%: Poerio et al., 2013; 60%: Song & Wang, 2012).

518

519 **Sleep duration and quality predicting daydreaming, dissociation, and mood**

520 We examined whether sleep duration ($M = 413$ mins; $SD = 240$ mins) and quality ($M =$
521 2.00 ; $SD = 1.54$) independently predicted daily daydreaming and dissociative
522 symptoms. Neither sleep duration nor quality predicted average daily daydreaming
523 levels (duration: $\beta = .005$, $p = .710$, $B = .00$, $SE = .00$, 95%CI: .00, .00; quality: $\beta = -$
524 $.002$, $p = .814$, $B = -.001$, $SE = .00$, 95%CI: -.004, .005). However, average daily
525 dissociative symptoms were negatively predicted by sleep quality ($\beta = -.17$, $p = .015$,
526 $B = -.03$, $SE = .01$, 95%CI: -.06, -.00), but not sleep duration ($\beta = -.07$, $p = .399$, $B =$
527 $.00$, $SE = .00$, 95%CI: .00, .00). This suggests that although daydreaming incidence
528 was not associated with sleep, dissociative symptoms were greater when sleep quality
529 was poor. We also examined how sleep duration and quality were associated with
530 average daily levels of anxiety and depression. Sleep duration did not predict either
531 anxiety ($\beta = -.01$, $p = .961$, $B = .00$, $SE = .00$, 95%CI: .00, .00) or depression ($\beta = -$
532 $.07$, $p = .427$, $B = .00$, $SE = .00$, 95%CI: .00, .00). Sleep quality was a negative
533 predictor of depression ($\beta = -.17$, $p = .022$, $B = -.05$, $SE = .00$, 95%CI: -.01, .00) but
534 not of anxiety ($\beta = -.14$, $p = .115$, $B = -.04$, $SE = .01$, 95%CI: -.10, .03).

535

536 **Daydreaming incidence predicting dissociation and mood**

537 Next, we examined whether the occurrence of daydreaming predicted experiences of
538 dissociation, anxiety, and depression. Daydreaming incidence was a significant
539 negative predictor of dissociation ($\beta = -.28$, $p = .001$, $B = -.25$, $SE = .06$, 95%CI: -.36,
540 $-.13$), anxiety ($\beta = -.43$, $p < .001$, $B = -.73$, $SE = .13$, 95%CI: -.96, -.46), and
541 depression ($\beta = -.33$, $p < .001$, $B = -.57$, $SE = .14$, 95%CI: -.83, -.28) suggesting that
542 experiences of dissociation, anxiety, and depression were more severe when
543 daydreaming had occurred.

544

545 **Characteristics of daydreaming predicting dissociation and mood**

546 Given the heterogeneity of daydreaming, we next examined whether the
547 characteristics of daydreaming predicted experiences of dissociation, anxiety and
548 depression. In contrast to our predictions, the fanciful nature of daydreams did not
549 predict dissociation ($\beta = -.17$, $p = .175$, $B = -.03$, $SE = .02$, 95%CI: -.07, .00), anxiety

550 ($\beta = -.07, p = .229, B = -.07, SE = .05, 95\%CI: -.17, .03$), or depression ($\beta = -.22, p =$
551 $.110, B = -.10, SE = .05, 95\%CI: -.20, .02$). However, the novelty of daydreaming was
552 a significant negative predictor of dissociation ($\beta = -.37, p = .002, B = -.06, SE = .02,$
553 $95\%CI: -.11, -.03$), anxiety ($\beta = -.51, p < .001, B = -.18, SE = .04, 95\%CI: -.27, -.10$),
554 and depression ($\beta = -.45, p < .001, B = -.17, SE = .05, 95\%CI: -.28, -.07$). Likewise,
555 the positivity of daydreams was a significant negative predictor of dissociation ($\beta = -$
556 $.50, p < .001, B = -.10, SE = .02, 95\%CI: -.14, -.05$), anxiety ($\beta = -.58, p < .001, B = -$
557 $.24, SE = .05, 95\%CI: -.33, -.17$), and depression ($\beta = -.63, p < .001, B = -.28, SE =$
558 $.06, 95\%CI: -.40, -.17$). These results suggest that repetitive and negative (but not
559 fanciful) daydreams were associated with more severe experiences of dissociation,
560 anxiety, and depression.

561

562 **Supplementary mediation analyses**

563 Given the significant associations between daydreaming, mood, and dissociative
564 symptoms, we were interested in further exploring whether mood mediated
565 associations between daydreaming (incidence, novelty and emotional valence) and
566 dissociation. To examine the role of mood as a potential mediator we ran a series of
567 mediation analyses using PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) in which daydreaming variables
568 were entered as the predictor variables, dissociation as the dependent variable, and
569 anxiety and depression as the mediator variables. We entered the second order lag of
570 the dependent variable and alcohol consumption as covariates in all models. The
571 results of these mediation analyses are summarized in Table 1. Depression and
572 anxiety significantly mediated relationships between: daydreaming incidence and
573 dissociation and the novelty of daydreams and dissociation. Only anxiety was a
574 significant mediator of the relations between the emotional valence of daydreams and
575 dissociation.

576

577

577 **Discussion**

578

579 In this intensive clinical case study we used experience-sampling methodology to
580 sample sleep, daydreaming (and its characteristics), mood and dissociative symptoms
581 in an individual meeting diagnostic criteria for depersonalization/derealization
582 disorder (DDD; APA, 2013). Based on previous research and theory on both the role
583 of sleep and ‘dream-like’ intrusions in the maintenance of dissociation and the
584 potential role of daydreaming in this process, we proposed an initial model (Figure 1)
585 explaining how sleep and daydreaming are linked with mood and dissociative
586 symptoms. The evidence for this model based on the results of the current study are as
587 follows (an updated model based on the present study is presented in Figure 2):

588

589

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

590

591 First, although we expected sleep disturbances to be associated with greater
592 daydreaming we did not find evidence to suggest that either sleep duration or quality
593 predicted average daily incidence of daydreaming. This finding is unexpected because
594 a range of previous evidence on sleep and daydreaming suggests that sleep
595 disruptions are associated with greater daydreaming frequency (e.g., Carciofo et al.,
596 2014; Denis & Poerio, 2016; Kundendorf et al., 1983; Mikulincer et al., 1990). We
597 suspect that this null finding may be because the method examining daydreaming
598 incidence (i.e., averaging whether the participant was daydreaming or not across the
599 number of questionnaires answered each day) was unable to accurately characterize

600 daily daydreaming rates. On average, the participant answered 3.7 questionnaires each
601 day (modes = 1, 3), which may not have provided an accurate assessment of the
602 likelihood of daydreaming occurrence. Notably, previous research linking sleep
603 experiences to daydreaming frequency has involved estimates of thoughts over during
604 a brief time period (i.e., a laboratory task; Mikulincer et al., 1990) or has been based
605 on retrospective/global judgments of daydreaming frequency (Carciofo et al., 2014).
606 To appropriately characterize daydreaming incidence with experience-sampling
607 methodology, future research would benefit from more frequent sampling and/or a
608 retrospective daily evaluation of daydreaming frequency. Firmly establishing the link
609 between sleep disturbance and daydreaming in dissociative disorder is important in
610 order to provide empirical evidence to support theoretical ideas that sleep disruptions
611 are associated with an increase of ‘dream-like’ intrusions into waking life (van der
612 Kloet et al., 2012) often reported in dissociative disorders (APA, 2013).

613
614 Second, poorer self-reported sleep quality (but not sleep duration) was associated with
615 significantly greater severity of dissociative symptoms across the following day. This
616 finding is consistent with research and theory highlighting the importance of sleep
617 disturbance in dissociation (e.g., Agargun et al., 2003; Koffel & Watson, 2009a;
618 Giesbrecht & Merckelbach, 2004; Giesbrecht et al., 2007; Levin & Fireman, 2002;
619 van der Kloet et al., 2012; van Heugten–van der Kloet, et al., 2015; Watson, 2001).
620 Our study not only confirms this association but it is also the first to provide evidence
621 for a positive association between disrupted sleep and dissociative symptoms using an
622 intensive repeated measures design of a dissociative disorder. Measuring fluctuations
623 in sleep quality over time and assessing accompanying dissociative symptoms ‘in the
624 moment’ overcomes the potential biases involved in using cross-sectional research
625 based on retrospective/global reports (e.g., Bradburn & Rips, 1987). Our research
626 suggests that the relationship between sleep and dissociation in dissociative disorders
627 over time is important and that poor quality sleep may be a factor that might maintain
628 or exacerbate dissociative symptoms. The finding that sleep quality but not duration
629 was associated with dissociation is of particular interest because previous research has
630 suggested that whereas mood disorders appear to be linked with insomnia,
631 dissociation appears to be uniquely linked to unusual sleep experiences (Koffel &
632 Watson, 2009b; van Haugten-van der Kloet, Merckelbach, Giesbrecht, & Broers,
633 2014). Our research broadly supports this finding to the extent that subjective sleep
634 quality is a measure that reflects or captures sleep disturbances. Having established
635 the link between sleep quality and dissociative symptoms in an intensive longitudinal
636 design, future research would benefit from more extensive measurement of sleep
637 disturbance across both subjective (e.g., additional measures on the presence/absence
638 of unusual sleep experiences such as nightmares and hallucinations; and dreaming
639 content) and objective measures (e.g., actigraphy). The use of more objective
640 measures of sleep and/or more sensitive self-report measures (e.g., the Pittsburgh
641 Sleep Quality Index; Buysse et al., 1989) would be particularly important in future
642 research because the present study is limited by the use of single items to measure
643 sleep quality and duration..

644
645 Third, daydreaming and its characteristics were associated with both mood and
646 dissociative symptoms. In line with our predictions, repetitive and negative
647 daydreams were associated with greater feelings anxiety, depression, and dissociation.
648 This is consistent with previous research on the role of repetitive thought and
649 daydreaming in clinical disorders (e.g., Segerstrom, et al., 2003; Watkins 2008).

650 However, our study extends these ideas beyond depression and anxiety to
651 dissociation, indicating that daydreaming incidence and content are important factors
652 to assess in dissociative disorders. Notably, these findings support theoretical (but
653 until now empirically untested) ideas that dream-like intrusions in daily life are
654 involved in the proximal development and progression of dissociative disorders (e.g.,
655 van der Kloet et al., 2012). Not only was the occurrence of daydreaming associated
656 with dissociative symptoms, but the extent to which daydreaming negatively impacted
657 on mood and dissociation also depended on the characteristics of daydreams. This
658 highlights the need to consider the content (rather than just the occurrence) of
659 daydreaming in clinical disorder and supports a growing body of research showing
660 that in order to determine the positive and/or negative impact of daydreaming on well-
661 being it is vital to measure the heterogeneity of the experience (e.g., Franklin et al.,
662 2013; Mar, Mason, & Litvack, 2012; Ottaviani & Couyoumdjian, 2013; Poerio et al.,
663 2013, 2015a, 2015b, 2016; Ruby, Smallwood, Engen, & Singer, 2013; Smallwood &
664 Andrews-Hanna, 2013).

666 Fourth, supplementary mediation analyses examined the possibility that mood might
667 mediate the association between daydreaming and its characteristics on dissociation.
668 We found evidence that, in general, feelings of anxiety and depression mediated the
669 positive statistical effects of repetitive and negative daydreaming on dissociative
670 symptoms. This suggests that at least part of the reason why daydreaming is
671 associated with dissociative symptoms arises indirectly from the effect of
672 daydreaming on mood. This is consistent with previous research, which has
673 consistently documented the strong and important impact of various types of imagery
674 on mood in emotional disorders (Holmes & Mathews, 2010) and, in non-clinical
675 samples, the well-established link between daydreaming content and later mood states
676 (e.g., Franklin et al., 2013; Poerio et al., 2013; Ruby et al., 2013). Examining the role
677 of mood in dissociative disorders is important because anxiety and depression are
678 associated with the severity of dissociative symptoms in clinical populations and a
679 previous diagnosis of depression and/or anxiety has been identified as the main risk
680 factor for depersonalization disorder (Baker et al., 2003). This, combined with the
681 present findings, suggests that research examining the development and progression
682 of dissociative disorders would benefit from exploring interactions and the causal
683 relationships between daydreaming, mood, and dissociative symptoms.

685 One additional and unexpected finding deserves particular mention. We predicted that
686 fanciful daydreaming would be associated with worse mood and greater dissociative
687 symptoms. Not only were the relationships between fanciful daydreaming and
688 feelings of anxiety, depression, and dissociation non-significant but the direction of
689 the relationship between fanciful daydreaming and dissociation was also the opposite
690 of what would be predicted based on previous research and theory. Previous research
691 has consistently identified fantasy-proneness as a correlate of dissociative disorders
692 (Giesbrecht & Merckelbach, 2006; Rauschenberger & Lynn, 1995) and excessive
693 involvement in fantasy is proposed to be a symptom of dissociation (van der Kloet et
694 al., 2012). To our knowledge, this study is the first to measure fanciful thought as it
695 occurs momentarily in daily life and has failed to find evidence of a link between
696 fanciful mentation and dissociative symptoms. Although any inferences based on this
697 finding must be considered tentative given our N=1 sample, we suggest that the often-
698 cited link between fantasy and dissociation should be reconsidered and examined in
699 relation to actual daily experiences of fantasy, rather than composite and global

700 tendencies of imaginative involvement (see also Bremner, 2010; Cima, Merckelbach,
701 Klein, Shellbach-Matties, & Kremer, 2001). Indeed, it has previously been suggested
702 that the association between fantasy-proneness and dissociation may arise simply
703 because measures assessing both constructs show substantial overlap in item wording
704 (Klinger, Henning, & Janssen, 2009).

705
706 Despite the unique contributions stemming from the present study, it is important to
707 highlight that (a) our results may not be applicable to all individuals with dissociative
708 disorders because this is a single case study specific to DDD and (b) the causal nature
709 of these results should not be overstated. The correlational nature of the study design
710 and the use of self-report measures make it important to emphasize that this study
711 cannot shed light on the causal or temporal nature of the observed associations. For
712 example, it is possible that the participant's own theories about his disorder (of which
713 we have no knowledge) may have affected his reporting (e.g., that negative
714 daydreams should be associated with worse mood and dissociation). It is also likely
715 that the associations observed are bi-directional. For example, although we examined
716 how daydreaming was related to mood because daydreaming was measured as
717 occurring before the signal (or in the preceding 5 minutes) whereas mood was
718 measured 'right now', previous research has shown that prior mood also influences
719 the frequency and nature of daydreaming. Research has revealed that a negative mood
720 (particularly sadness) is associated with increased daydreaming in both laboratory
721 settings (Smallwood, Fitzgerald, Miles, & Phillips, 2009) and in daily life (Poerio et
722 al., 2013). This suggests that rather than (or in addition to) daydreaming predicting
723 negative 'in the moment' feelings, daydreaming is also preceded or caused by
724 negative mood. Although we failed to find associations between sleep and
725 daydreaming incidence, other research has suggested that this relationship is also bi-
726 directional (i.e., that daydreaming is linked with subsequent difficulty falling asleep;
727 Ottaviani & Couyoumdjian, 2013). Likewise, dissociation may be a predictor as well
728 as a consequence of daydreaming incidence and content. For example, the
729 daydreaming state may exacerbate symptoms in someone who is prone to
730 dissociation, while states of dissociation could make daydreaming more likely (e.g.,
731 dissociation may be linked with the inability to inhibit task-irrelevant thoughts due to
732 a lack of metacognitive control or distractibility; Guralnik et al., 2007). Although this
733 previous research might be suggestive of alternative explanations to the current
734 results, we suspect that these directions of influence are not mutually exclusive or
735 contradictory. Indeed, considering the bi-directional associations between sleep,
736 daydreaming, mood, and dissociation is likely to represent a more comprehensive
737 account of the cyclical and dynamic nature of moment-to-moment cognition and
738 emotion, particularly within clinical disorders (Borsboom & Cramer, 2013). Future
739 work would profit from examining these variables with more advanced and intensive
740 experience-sampling designs involving multiple participants and in response to
741 intervention. This would enable an examination of the relative strength of different
742 directions of influence (e.g., is the effect of sleep on dissociation stronger than the
743 effect of dissociation on sleep?) and of individual differences that moderate the
744 relationships.

745
746 We have argued and provided evidence for the idea that daydreaming is an important
747 state of consciousness relevant to dissociative disorders. However, an important
748 outstanding question involves the precise role of daydreaming in dissociative
749 disorders. Daydreaming has sometimes been conceptualized as a cognitive failure or

750 attention lapse (e.g., Cheyne, Carriere, & Smilek, 2006; McVay & Kane, 2010), or as
751 engagement with fantasy and imagery (e.g., Oettingen & Mayer, 2002), and more
752 recently as an important state of cognition for psychosocial functioning (e.g., Poerio
753 & Smallwood, 2016). The former two conceptions of daydreaming are of direct
754 relevance to dissociative disorders, with research suggesting that clinical dissociation
755 is linked both with cognitive failures and distractibility (Giesbrecht, Lynn, Lilenfeld,
756 & Merckelbach, 2008) and with a preoccupation and absorption with fantasy (Segal &
757 Lynn, 1993). Although our findings suggests that the fanciful nature of daydreaming
758 may not be as pertinent to the maintenance of dissociative symptoms as previously
759 suggested (at least in this particular individual), future work should further explore
760 relevant characteristics of daydreaming to investigate whether its relationship with
761 dissociation arises from cognitive failure or fantasy immersion. Future work might
762 also examine the less explored aspects of daydreaming and psychosocial functions in
763 relation to dissociation; by, for example, examining how aspects of social cognition
764 (e.g., the ability to distinguish between self and other) during daydreaming are linked
765 with symptoms of dissociation (in particular depersonalization).

766
767 There are several potential aspects of daydreaming that might shed light on this issue
768 of whether daydreaming in dissociation reflects cognitive failure or fantasy proneness
769 – taking into account both the nature of daydreaming and the context in which it
770 occurs. First, drawing on methods used to examine daydreaming in laboratory settings
771 (e.g., Konishi, McLaren, Engen, & Smallwood, 2015), research could investigate
772 whether rates of daydreaming during tasks requiring attention are related to the
773 severity of dissociative symptoms (e.g., as measured by the DES or by comparing
774 clinical and non-clinical samples). Second, experience-sampling research could
775 investigate how the extent of immersion or absorption in daydreams is related to
776 dissociative symptoms with the expectation that these dimensions of daydreaming
777 would be associated with, and possibly exacerbate, dissociative symptoms. Although
778 daydreaming is a ubiquitous experience, it is possible that daydreaming in
779 dissociation is more ‘immersive’ and so individuals with dissociative disorders
780 struggle to disengage from daydreams and ground themselves in reality. Third and
781 relatedly, an important dimension to be explored would be the controllability and
782 intentionality of daydreaming. Recent research has linked spontaneous (rather than
783 deliberate) daydreaming with clinical disorders (Marchetti et al., 2016) suggesting
784 that they may be more detrimental to mental health. This prediction fits well with the
785 idea that uncontrollable and spontaneous daydreams may be more detrimental to
786 dissociation because they are further towards the dreaming end of the wake-sleep
787 cognition continuum. Indeed, this is mirrored by associations observed in sleeping
788 cognition because uncontrollable sleep disturbances (e.g., nightmares) are typically
789 more strongly associated with dissociative experiences than controllable sleep
790 mentation such as lucid dreaming (Koffel & Watson, 2009a).

791
792 Finally our findings motivate the intriguing possibility that sleep and daydreaming are
793 potential intervention targets for dissociative disorders. Research has already
794 demonstrated that improving sleep quality through a sleep hygiene intervention can
795 reduce dissociation (van der Kloet, Giesbrecht, Lynn, Merckelbach, & Zutter, 2012).
796 Although the potential for intervention requires future work, we believe that
797 examining the state of daydreaming and its characteristics in dissociative disorders
798 will enrich our understanding of how dissociative symptoms evolve and are
799 potentiated as they occur in daily life. There is scope for targeted interventions aimed

800 at changing the negative aspects of daydreaming whilst maintaining its functional
801 outcomes (e.g., planning, creativity, and social well-being). In terms of the clinical
802 methods to help to change negative aspects of daydreams, use of imagery re-scripting
803 (i.e., actively manipulating negative daydreaming imagery) holds some promise (Wild
804 & Clark, 2011). For more complex patient problems, sleep hygiene and daydream
805 content interventions could occur in the initial phase of treatment, so that dissociation
806 is reduced and the patient is stabilized, to enable them to engage more effectively in
807 psychotherapeutic work on past trauma. In keeping with the hourglass model of
808 evaluation (Salkovskis, 1995), further N=1 outcome studies offer the opportunity to
809 study, in detail, responsiveness to suggested phases of treatment, before proceeding onto
810 larger group studies. In conclusion, this research has shed new light on the
811 relationships between sleep, daydreaming, mood, and dissociation in DDD and
812 highlights exciting avenues for future clinical and research work.

813

814 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

815 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial
816 or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

817

818 **Author Contributions**

819 All authors conceived of, and designed, the study. GP collected and analyzed the data
820 with assistance and contributions from SK and PT. GP drafted the manuscript; SK
821 and PT provided revisions. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

822

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Table 1. Summary of mediation analyses.

Model	Path a	Path b	Path c (direct effect)	Indirect (mediated) effect
Daydreaming Incidence-Anxiety-Dissociation	B = -.73, SE = .13, $p < .001$	B = .26, SE = .04, $p < .001$	B = -.04, SE = .07, $p = .565$	B = -.19, SE = .05, 95% CI[-.32, -.10]
Daydreaming Incidence-Depression-Dissociation	B = -.57, SE = .14, $p = .001$	B = .26, SE = .04, $p < .001$	B = -.08, SE = .06, $p = .218$	B = -.15, SE = .04, 95% CI[-.26, -.09]
Daydreaming Novelty-Anxiety-Dissociation	B = -.19, SE = .04, $p < .001$	B = .18, SE = .06, $p = .004$	B = -.03, SE = .02, $p = .253$	B = -.04, SE = .02, 95% CI[-.07, -.01]
Daydreaming Novelty-Depression-Dissociation	B = -.19, SE = .05, $p < .001$	B = .15, SE = .05, $p = .009$	B = -.03, SE = .02, $p = .132$	B = -.03, SE = .02, 95% CI[-.06, .00]
Daydreaming Valence-Anxiety-Dissociation	B = -.24, SE = .04, $p < .001$	B = .13, SE = .06, $p = .032$	B = -.06, SE = .02, $p = .019$	B = -.03, SE = .01, 95% CI[-.06, -.01]
Daydreaming Valence-Depression-Dissociation	B = -.28, SE = .05, $p < .001$	B = .09, SE = .06, $p = .117$	B = -.07, SE = .03, $p = .017$	B = -.03, SE = .02, 95% CI[-.06, .01]

Note. B = Unstandardized path coefficients, SE = Standard error. 95% Confidence intervals for indirect effects are based on 1000 bootstrapped samples. Path a refers to the effect of the predictor on the proposed mediator (e.g., daydreaming on anxiety), Path b refers to the effect of the mediator on the dependent variable (e.g., anxiety on dissociation), Path c refers to the direct effect of the predictor on the dependent variable considering the mediator. The indirect effect provides an indication of statistical mediation such that 95% CIs excluding zero are considered statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. Alcohol consumption and the second order lag of the dependent variable were entered as covariates in all models.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. A proposed model of how daydreaming is related to dissociation.

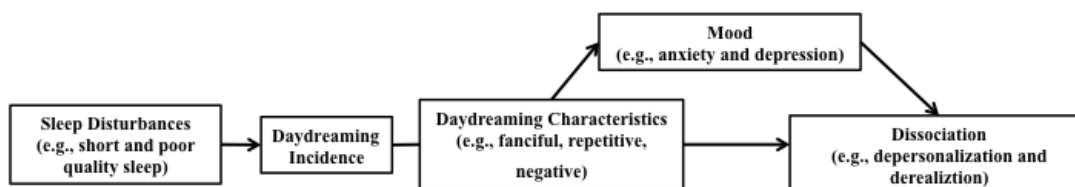


Figure 2. An updated model of how daydreaming is related to dissociation. Values represent regression coefficients for analyses in the current study.

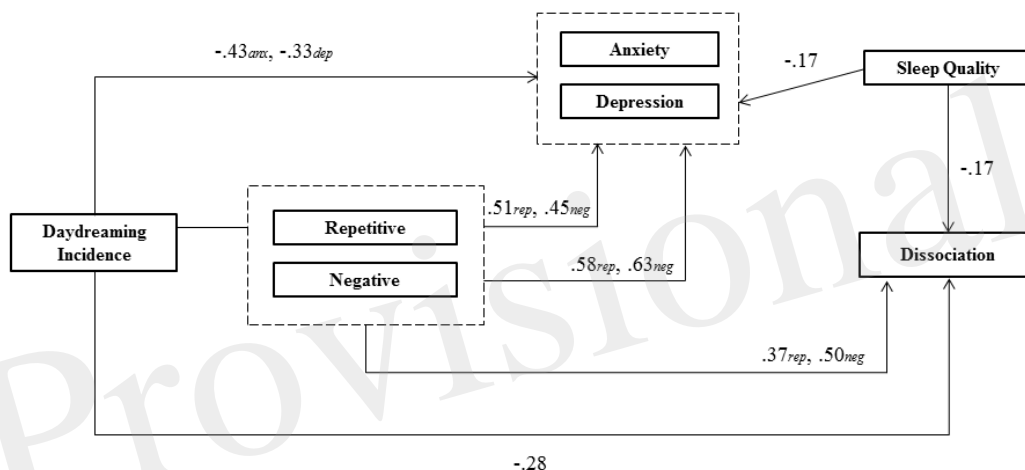
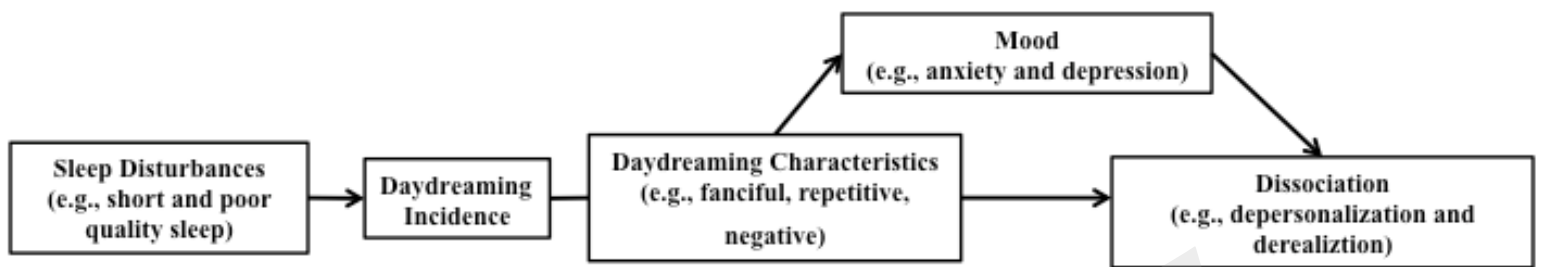


Figure 01.TIF



Provisional

Figure 02.TIF

