



Elevated C-reactive protein and posttraumatic stress pathology among survivors of the 9/11 World Trade Center attacks



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ABSTRACT

Background: Systemic inflammation has emerged as a promising marker and potential mechanism underlying post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The relationship between posttraumatic stress pathology and systemic inflammation has not, however, been consistently replicated and is potentially confounded by comorbid illness or injury, common complications of trauma exposure.

Methods: We analyzed a large naturalistic cohort sharing a discrete physical and mental health trauma from the destruction of the World Trade Center (WTC) towers on September 11, 2001 ($n = 641$). We evaluated the relationship between multiple physical and mental health related indices collected through routine evaluations at the WTC Environmental Health Center (WTC EHC), a treatment program for community members exposed to the disaster. C-Reactive Protein (CRP), a marker of systemic inflammation, was examined in relation to scores for PTSD, PTSD symptom clusters (re-experiencing, avoidance, negative cognitions/mood, arousal), depression and anxiety, while controlling for WTC exposures, lower respiratory symptoms, age, sex, BMI and smoking as potential risks or confounders.

Results: CRP was positively associated with PTSD severity ($p < 0.001$), trending toward association with depression ($p = 0.06$), but not with anxiety ($p = 0.27$). CRP was positively associated with re-experiencing ($p < 0.001$) and avoidance ($p < 0.05$) symptom clusters, and trended toward associations with negative cognitions/mood ($p = 0.06$) and arousal ($p = 0.08$).

Conclusions: In this large study of the relationship between CRP and posttraumatic stress pathology, we demonstrated an association between systemic inflammation and stress pathology (PTSD; trending with depression), which remained after adjusting for potentially confounding variables. These results contribute to research findings suggesting a salient relationship between inflammation and post-traumatic stress pathology.

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1. Introduction

Systemic inflammation has emerged as a potential biological mechanism in the pathogenesis of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Baker et al., 2012; Passos et al., 2015) and depression (Haroon et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2009), the two most common and

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highly comorbid posttraumatic stress responses (Flory and Yehuda, 2015; Galatzer-Levy et al., 2013; Kessler et al., 2005). Elevated levels of C-reactive protein (CRP), a pro-inflammatory acute phase protein that can be measured systemically, have been associated with both PTSD and depression (Gill et al., 2009; Howren et al., 2009; Valkanova et al., 2013), including in populations exposed to terrorism (Canetti et al., 2014). Variants of the CRP gene are also associated with PTSD (Michopoulos et al., 2015), and elevated CRP levels prior to trauma are associated with the development of PTSD prospectively (Eraly et al., 2014).

Post traumatic stress pathology is heterogeneous (Galatzer-Levy and Bryant, 2013) and symptoms of PTSD have been divided into four clusters reflecting these diverse components including symptoms of re-experiencing, avoidance, negative alterations in cognitions and mood (negative cognitions/mood), and alterations in arousal and reactivity (arousal). These components are supported by factor-analytic studies (Cox et al., 2002; Marshall et al., 2013) and have been adopted for the DSM-V criteria.

Elevated CRP levels have been reported in association with re-experiencing symptoms of PTSD (Canetti et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2001; von Känel et al., 2007), and recently, with arousal symptoms (Michopoulos et al., 2015). This growing body of research suggests that systemic inflammation may be a biological marker and participate in the development or persistence of post-traumatic stress responses. The mammalian response to danger and stress involves the rapid activation of the sympathetic nervous system and hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA-axis). This axis interacts with inflammatory pathways and may be a link between inflammation and PTSD (Baker et al., 2012; Michopoulos et al., 2017). Despite this potential overlap, the data supporting a relationship between CRP and PTSD have not consistently been replicated; both high and low CRP levels or no association with PTSD have been reported (McCanlies et al., 2011; Söndergaard et al., 2004; von Känel et al., 2007). The inconsistency of findings may relate to small sample sizes, the use of cross sectional data, or variable trauma exposures. Further, key factors that are associated with both inflammation and trauma, including injury and illness, have not been accounted for in existing studies.

The current study tested the hypothesis that elevated CRP was associated with posttraumatic stress pathology, including PTSD symptom clusters, depression and anxiety, controlling for WTC exposures, lower respiratory symptoms, age, sex, BMI and tobacco use. We used a large civilian population exposed to the terrorist attack on the World Trade Center (WTC) towers and its ensuing environmental disaster. These patients were enrolled in the WTC Environmental Health Center (WTC EHC), a treatment and monitoring program for physical and psychological effects associated with the attacks (Reibman et al., 2009, 2016). Individuals had potential for acute environmental exposures to the initial dust clouds created as the WTC buildings collapsed (WTC dust cloud), as well as chronic inhalation and topical exposure from re-suspended dust and fumes from prolonged fires (Lioy and Georgopoulos, 2006; Lippmann et al., 2015; Maslow et al., 2012; Reibman et al., 2016). Adverse health effects in community members (residents, local workers, clean-up workers, and others) include upper and lower respiratory symptoms (Brackbill et al., 2009; Farfel et al., 2008; Friedman et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2007; Reibman et al., 2005). In addition, many individuals witnessed death and dismemberment and often experienced their own fear of death as they escaped collapsing buildings or engulfment by blinding dust clouds. Some individuals were exposed to extended rescue and recovery efforts or displacement from homes and workplaces due to clean up efforts.

2. Methods

2.1. Subjects

The Bellevue Hospital Center WTC EHC provides medical and mental health treatment for self-referred community members (Reibman et al., 2009, 2016). Well-described adverse health effects in this population include persistent lower respiratory symptoms (LRS) (Brackbill et al., 2009; Farfel et al., 2008; Friedman et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2005, 2007; Reibman et al., 2005). Mental health symptoms include those associated with PTSD, depression, and anxiety (Brackbill et al., 2009; DiGrande et al., 2008). The Institutional Review Board of New York University School of Medicine approved the research database (NCT00404898) and only data from patients who signed informed consent were used for analysis. CRP measurements were performed in patients undergoing initial evaluation or monitoring between August 2007 and December 2012. Patients were included in the analysis if they also had complete exposure information, and complete medical and mental health questionnaires.

2.2. Measures

Upon enrollment in the WTC EHC, patients completed a multi-dimensional, interviewer-administered questionnaire that included demographic information, characterizations of WTC-related exposure, and tobacco use (Reibman et al., 2009). Individuals were classified as positive for dust cloud exposure if they reported having been in a WTC dust cloud created by the collapsing buildings on 9/11/2001. Potential for WTC acute and chronic exposures were characterized by classification into four additional categories: local resident (resident), local worker, clean-up worker, other. Patients who reported more than 5 pack-year history of tobacco use were defined as smokers. The presence and severity of LRS of wheeze, cough, chest tightness and dyspnea were measured by standardized health questionnaires (Reibman et al., 2009) and patients with symptoms more than twice per week during the month preceding enrollment were considered positive for persistent LRS. In addition, body mass index (BMI) of patients were calculated using information gathered during the initial medical visit.

2.2.1. CRP

CRP was measured using a wide-range CRP assay (Siemen's Diagnostic Center, Tarrytown, NY). The wide range CRP (wr-CRP) assay is a clinically used measure that has a wide sensitivity range with a lower limit of detection of 0.12 mg/L. The wr-CRP correlates significantly with the high sensitivity CRP (hs-CRP) measurements and quantitation of microinflammatory activity in individuals (Rogowski et al., 2005). A value > 3 mg/L was considered "High" (Yeh and Willerson, 2003).

2.2.2. Psychiatric symptom assessments

2.2.2.1. Posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms.

The Post-traumatic Check List-17 (PCL-17) (Weathers FW et al., 1993), was used to measure PTSD symptom presence and severity. A score ≥ 44 was used to suggest "probable PTSD" (PTSD) (Farfel et al., 2008). Questions from the PCL-17 were matched to the DSM-V diagnostic criteria for characterization into four clusters reflecting symptoms of re-experiencing, avoidance, negative alterations in cognitions and mood (negative cognitions/mood), and alterations in arousal and reactivity (arousal), and an average score was calculated for each cluster, ranging between 1 and 5.

2.2.2.2. Depression and anxiety.

We used the Hopkins Symptom Checklist for depression and anxiety (HSCL-25) (Derogatis et al.,

1974). These scales provided scores of depression (HSCL-D) and anxiety (HSCL-A) severity with a score ≥ 1.75 considered to suggest “probable depression” (depression) or “probable anxiety” (anxiety).

2.3. Statistical methods

In addition to demographic variables, variables of interest included WTC exposure categories and WTC dust exposure, not only as proxies for trauma exposure, but also because they were found to be significantly associated with CRP levels in prior research by our group (Kazeros et al., 2015). In addition, BMI and smoking status were included in the analysis as they are consistently found in research to be associated with elevated CRP levels, along with age and sex; WTC-related lower respiratory illness was included, as respiratory illness can be related to adverse mental health and to inflammation (Kaptoge et al., 2010).

Descriptive statistics were calculated for CRP, demographic variables, exposures and lower respiratory symptoms, where categorical variables were summarized using counts and proportions, and continuous variables were summarized using means and standard deviations or median and inter-quartile range (IQR). CRP was summarized both as a categorical (high CRP when level >3 , low CRP otherwise) and a continuous variable. To investigate univariate association of mental health symptoms with each of the predictor variables, the PTSD, depression and anxiety symptom scores were also summarized using median and IQR within each category of the categorical or dichotomized continuous predictors. Median and IQR were used because distributions of mental health symptoms were asymmetrical around their averages. Significance of such associations was assessed using the Kruskal-Wallis test. Subsequently, multivariate associations among mental health scores and predicting variables were studied using multiple linear regression. Each of the PTSD cluster scores was also modeled with linear regression. In all regression models, CRP score was log-transformed because its distribution is skewed. Log CRP is closer to being normally distributed, thus unit change is more easily interpreted. R, version 3.2.4, was used to perform the statistical analyses.

3. Results

3.1. Patient characteristics

The final study population consisted of 641 patients who enrolled in the WTC EHC between February 2005 and November 2011. The characteristics of the study population were similar to those previously described (Liu et al., 2012; Reibman et al., 2009), and are presented in Table 1. Half of the diverse population was female, 38% of the group identified as Hispanic, the overall mean age was 50, and the majority reported a low annual household income ($\leq \$30K$). Half of the population reported being caught in the WTC dust cloud and the majority were local workers. Patients reported high rates of persistent LRS as well as overall high rates of PTSD (41%), depression (59%) and anxiety (49%) symptoms. CRP levels were also high, with levels > 3 mg/L in 36%.

3.2. Association of CRP and patient characteristics with mental health symptoms

We found significant elevations in PTSD ($p = 0.007$) and depression ($p = 0.05$) symptoms in relation to elevated CRP (>3) (Table 2). This association was not found for anxiety symptoms. PTSD, anxiety and depression were also associated with three demographic characteristics: race ($p < 0.001$ for all), income ($p < 0.001$ for all) and education ($p = 0.006$; $p < 0.001$; $p = 0.01$ respectively). WTC dust cloud exposure was significantly associated

Table 1
Patient characteristics, $n = 641$.

Demographic characteristics	
Female gender, n (%)	325 (51)
Age, mean (SD) ^a	50.1 (11.6)
Race/ethnicity, n (%)	
Hispanic	241 (38)
Non-Hispanic white	204 (32)
Non-Hispanic black	131 (20)
Other	65 (10)
Education, n (%)	
>High school	431 (67)
\leq High school	210 (33)
Income, n (%)	
$> \$30,000$ /year	239 (37)
$\leq \$30,000$ /year	402 (63)
BMI, mean (SD)	28.6 (6.2)
Ever smoker, n (%)	146 (23)
Exposures	
WTC dust cloud exposure, n (%)	325 (51)
Exposure classification, n (%)	
Local worker	331 (52)
Resident	121 (19)
Clean-up worker	108 (17)
Other	81 (13)
Lower respiratory symptoms	
Cough, n (%)	433 (68)
Wheeze, n (%)	328 (51)
Chest tightness, n (%)	408 (64)
Dyspnea at rest, n (%)	262 (41)
Positive mental health score	
PTSD, n (%)	260 (41)
Depression, n (%)	374 (59)
Anxiety, n (%)	316 (49)
CRP	
CRP, median (IQR) ^b	1.54 (0.34,5.07)
CRP >3 , n (%)	233 (36)

^a SD, standard deviation.

^b IQR, inter-quartile range.

with elevated scores for PTSD ($p < 0.001$), whereas exposure classification (local worker, resident, etc.) was associated with all psychiatric symptom scores (PTSD $p = 0.007$; anxiety $p < 0.001$; depression $p = 0.003$). The presence of each LRS (cough, wheeze, dyspnea, chest tightness) was associated with positive scores for each psychiatric symptom, with p values ranging from <0.001 to 0.05. In contrast, general health indicators (BMI, tobacco use) were not significantly associated with psychiatric scores. Anxiety was significantly associated with younger age ($p = 0.04$).

Since both physical and mental health symptoms were frequent in community members after the disaster, we analyzed the relationship of CRP with psychiatric symptoms while controlling for demographic variables, WTC exposures, subsequent lower respiratory health symptoms, and other variables that might account for the shared variance between psychiatric symptoms and CRP (Table 3). CRP levels remained associated with PTSD ($\beta = 1.12$, standard error [SE] = 0.43 $p = 0.01$) and trended toward an association with depression symptoms ($\beta = 0.55$, SE = 0.29, $p = 0.06$). Many demographic characteristics remained associated with each psychiatric score. Importantly, exposure to the WTC dust cloud remained associated with PTSD ($\beta = 5.01$, SE = 1.30, $p < 0.01$).

3.3. Association of CRP and patient characteristics with PTSD clusters

To understand the relationship between CRP and components of PTSD, we examined the relationship of CRP levels to specific PTSD symptom clusters while controlling for other variables (Table 4). Re-experiencing and avoidance symptoms were associated with CRP levels ($\beta = 0.08$, SE = 0.03, $p = 0.002$; $\beta = 0.08$, SE = 0.04,

Table 2

Univariate tests for association of PTSD, anxiety and depression scores with each of the predictors; (n = 641).

	PTSD		Anxiety		Depression ^a	
	Median (IQR) ^b	P value	Median (IQR)	P value	Median (IQR)	P value
CRP > 3		0.007		0.73		0.05
Yes	42 (28,54)		17 (13,24)		30 (23,39)	
No	37 (25,51)		17 (13,24)		28 (21,37)	
Demographics						
Gender		0.09		0.27		0.08
Female	40 (27,53)		18 (14,24)		31 (22,39)	
Male	37 (25,52)		17 (13,23)		28 (21,37)	
Age at first visit>50		0.12		0.04		0.07
Yes	39 (25,51)		17 (13,23)		28 (21,37)	
No	39 (27,55)		18 (14,24)		30 (22,39)	
Race/ethnicity		<0.001		<0.001		<0.001
Hispanic	42 (31,56)		21 (15,26)		32 (25,40)	
Non-Hispanic white	35 (24,50)		17 (13,23)		28 (21,37)	
Non-Hispanic black	36 (24,50)		16 (13,22)		25 (20,34)	
Other	33 (23,52)		16 (12,22)		27 (20,35)	
Education		0.006		<0.001		0.01
>High school	37 (24,52)		17 (13,23)		28 (21,37)	
≤High school	41 (28,55)		20 (14,26)		32 (24,39)	
Income		<0.001		<0.001		<0.001
> \$30,000/year	36 (24,50)		16 (12,22)		26 (20,35)	
≤ \$30,000/year	41 (28,55)		19 (14,25)		31 (23,39)	
BMI>30		0.14		0.62		0.47
Yes	41 (28,53)		17 (13,25)		29 (22,39)	
No	38 (25,52)		17 (14,23)		29 (22,38)	
Ever smoker		0.90		0.18		0.77
Yes	40 (26,53)		17 (13,23)		28 (21,39)	
No	39 (26,53)		18 (13,24)		29 (22,38)	
Exposures						
WTC dust cloud		<0.001		0.11		0.08
Yes	42 (28,54)		18 (14,24)		30 (23,38)	
No	36 (24,51)		17 (13,24)		28 (21,38)	
Exposure classification		0.007		<0.001		0.003
Local worker	40 (26,53)		17 (13,23)		28 (21,38)	
Resident	35 (25,47)		17 (13,23)		28 (22,37)	
Clean-up worker	43 (30,58)		22 (17,28)		34 (27,41)	
Other	38 (24,47)		16 (13,23)		26 (22,36)	
Lower respiratory symptoms						
Cough		0.05		0.009		0.03
Yes	40 (27,53)		18 (14,25)		30 (22,39)	
No	36 (25,51)		16 (13,22)		28 (20,36)	
Wheeze		0.002		<0.001		0.01
Yes	42 (27,55)		19 (14,25)		30 (23,39)	
No	37 (24,50)		17 (13,23)		28 (21,37)	
Dyspnea at rest		<0.001		<0.001		<0.001
Yes	42 (28,56)		20 (15,26)		32 (23,41)	
No	37 (24,50)		16 (13,22)		28 (20,37)	
Chest tightness		<0.001		<0.001		<0.001
Yes	42 (27,56)		20 (14,25)		31 (23,40)	
No	35 (24,46)		16 (12,21)		26 (20,35)	

Significant P-values are bolded.

^a 5 participants missing depression data: n = 636 for depression analysis.^b IQR, inter-quartile range.

p = 0.02), whereas negative cognitions/mood and arousal trended toward an association ($\beta = 0.06$, SE = 0.03, p = 0.06; $\beta = 0.05$, SE = 0.03, p = 0.08).

4. Discussion

We examined the relationship between systemic CRP and multiple dimensions of posttraumatic stress pathology including specific PTSD symptom clusters, as well as depression and anxiety. Notably, we studied a civilian population with a shared discrete and well-documented physical and psychological trauma, allowing us to investigate the relationship between CRP and posttraumatic stress pathology while addressing alternative explanations for the relationship between inflammation and PTSD. Physical illness, health behaviors and ageing are some factors that can impact

inflammation. Our study used a population undergoing treatment for symptoms related to this discrete disaster, allowing us to control for lower respiratory symptoms, BMI, smoking, age and sex, as well as type of exposure to the toxic aftermath. Our findings support and expand upon previous findings suggesting an important association between systemic inflammation and posttraumatic stress pathology and offers evidence of the relationship between systemic inflammation and PTSD, independent of illness.

C-reactive protein is an acute phase protein usually produced in the liver during acute inflammation in response to interleukin-6 (IL-6). As such, serum CRP is a non-specific biomarker of the innate immune response; its short half-life suggests that it is a measure of an ongoing process. Importantly, IL-6, upstream of CRP, is a product of macrophages, but in the brain, neurons, astrocytes, microglia and endothelial cells are all potential sources. The close

Table 3
Multiple linear regressions of PTSD, anxiety and depression scores; n = 641.

	PTSD		Anxiety		Depression ^a	
	β (SE) ^b	P value	β (SE)	P value	β (SE)	P value
log(CRP)	1.12 (0.43)	0.01	0.19 (0.18)	0.27	0.55 (0.29)	0.06
Demographics						
Gender - male	-2.49 (1.25)	0.05	-0.95 (0.51)	0.06	-1.87 (0.84)	0.03
Age at first visit	-0.07 (0.06)	0.26	-0.02 (0.02)	0.40	-0.07 (0.04)	0.06
Race/ethnicity Hispanic	4.73 (1.53)	0.00	1.73 (0.62)	0.01	2.31 (1.03)	0.03
Education \leq High School	0.23 (1.5)	0.88	0.35 (0.61)	0.57	-0.08 (1.0)	0.93
Income \leq \$30k/year	3.72 (1.36)	0.01	1.82 (0.55)	0.00	2.62 (0.91)	0.00
log(BMI)	-3.57 (3.4)	0.29	-1.56 (1.38)	0.26	-2.28 (2.28)	0.32
Ever smoker	0.37 (1.54)	0.81	-0.62 (0.63)	0.33	0.06 (1.03)	0.95
Exposures						
WTC dust cloud exposure	5.01 (1.3)	0.00	1.39 (0.53)	0.01	1.98 (0.87)	0.02
Exposure classification						
Resident	-2.19 (1.72)	0.20	0.12 (0.70)	0.87	0.60 (1.15)	0.60
Clean-up worker	1.48 (2.16)	0.49	2.41 (0.88)	0.01	2.06 (1.44)	0.15
Other	-2.92 (2.0)	0.14	-0.49 (0.81)	0.55	-0.94 (1.34)	0.48
Lower respiratory symptoms						
Cough	0.47 (1.4)	0.74	0.52 (0.57)	0.37	0.87 (0.94)	0.35
Wheeze	0.71 (1.38)	0.61	0.38 (0.56)	0.50	0.41 (0.92)	0.66
Dyspnea at rest	3.05 (1.37)	0.03	1.73 (0.56)	0.00	1.87 (0.92)	0.04
Chest tightness	4.70 (1.37)	0.00	2.61 (0.56)	0.00	2.79 (0.92)	0.00

Significant P-values are bolded.

^a 5 participants missing depression data: n = 636 for depression analysis.

^b β , regression coefficient; (SE), standard error.

Table 4
Multiple linear regressions of PTSD symptom cluster scores; n = 641.

	Re-experiencing		Avoidance		Negative cognitions/mood		Arousal	
	β (SE) ^a	P value	β (SE)	P value	β (SE)	P value	β (SE)	P value
log(CRP)	0.08 (0.03)	0.002	0.08 (0.04)	0.02	0.06 (0.03)	0.06	0.05 (0.03)	0.08
Demographics								
Gender - male	-0.13 (0.08)	0.09	-0.35 (0.10)	0.001	-0.07 (0.08)	0.42	-0.16 (0.09)	0.07
Age at first visit	0.00 (0.00)	0.78	0.00 (0.00)	0.41	-0.01 (0.00)	0.16	0.00 (0.00)	0.24
Race/ethnicity Hispanic	0.25 (0.10)	0.008	0.30 (0.13)	0.02	0.21 (0.10)	0.04	0.36 (0.11)	0.001
Education \leq High school	0.04 (0.09)	0.67	-0.03 (0.13)	0.80	-0.04 (0.10)	0.68	0.06 (0.11)	0.58
Income \leq \$30k/year	0.29 (0.08)	0.001	0.34 (0.11)	0.003	0.19 (0.09)	0.04	0.13 (0.10)	0.17
log(BMI)	-0.11 (0.21)	0.62	-0.52 (0.28)	0.07	-0.19 (0.23)	0.41	-0.21 (0.24)	0.39
Ever smoker	-0.08 (0.10)	0.40	-0.04 (0.13)	0.76	0.08 (0.10)	0.47	0.09 (0.11)	0.39
Exposures								
WTC dust cloud	0.30 (0.08)	0.00	0.34 (0.11)	0.002	0.25 (0.09)	0.005	0.32 (0.09)	0.001
Exposure classification								
Resident	-0.16 (0.11)	0.13	-0.28 (0.14)	0.05	-0.06 (0.12)	0.60	-0.11 (0.12)	0.39
Clean-up worker	0.02 (0.13)	0.89	0.06 (0.18)	0.74	0.17 (0.15)	0.23	0.08 (0.15)	0.61
Other	-0.17 (0.12)	0.16	-0.25 (0.17)	0.14	-0.19 (0.13)	0.17	-0.12 (0.14)	0.38
Lower respiratory symptoms								
Cough	0.01 (0.09)	0.88	-0.03 (0.12)	0.80	0.05 (0.09)	0.57	0.04 (0.10)	0.70
Wheeze	-0.01 (0.09)	0.89	0.08 (0.12)	0.50	0.04 (0.09)	0.66	0.08 (0.10)	0.42
Dyspnea at rest	0.20 (0.08)	0.02	0.21 (0.11)	0.07	0.17 (0.09)	0.06	0.15 (0.10)	0.13
Chest tightness	0.30 (0.08)	0.00	0.19 (0.11)	0.09	0.24 (0.09)	0.01	0.33 (0.10)	0.001

Significant P-values are bolded.

^a β , regression coefficient; (SE), standard error.

relationship between neuroinflammatory pathways such as IL-6, and dysregulation of the HPA axis are well described (Furtado and Katzman, 2015). Synaptic plasticity, learning, and memory, as well as motivation, sleep and arousal are impacted by inflammation (Khairova et al., 2009; McAfoose and Baune, 2009; Ransohoff, 2009; Yirmiya and Goshen, 2011) and are perturbed in both PTSD and depression (Olbert et al., 2014; Pitman et al., 2012; Yehuda and LeDoux, 2007), suggesting a potential shared etiology for post-traumatic stress pathology involving inflammatory pathways. Our findings reinforce the potential for an interplay between systemic inflammation and posttraumatic stress pathology. Interestingly, we do not observe a relationship between CRP and measures of anxiety in this population. We propose that we are identifying a

relationship between a systemic measure of inflammation, which may be related to HPA-Axis regulation and a specific role in learned fear and threat responses, rather than a more general anxiety response. This interplay has been suggested by others (Norrholm et al., 2015).

The current study demonstrates an association between elevated CRP and particular PTSD clusters. Elevated CRP was most strongly associated with re-experiencing. This suggests that this component of posttraumatic stress pathology may be most related to the stress response, and thus associated with aberrant HPA-axis regulation and inflammation. This symptom cluster association is consistent with studies of individuals with PTSD symptomatology after terrorist attack or other traumatic events

(Canetti et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2001; von Känel et al., 2007). In our study, PTSD symptoms were assessed 6–11 years after 9/11/2001, suggesting a relationship between chronic re-experiencing and inflammation. The avoidance cluster of symptoms was also associated with inflammation consistent with the concept that re-experiencing and avoidance may be linked. We did not identify a significant relationship of CRP with the arousal symptom cluster in our study. In contrast, elevated CRP has been shown to be associated with an individual symptom of arousal, i.e. “overly alert” in another population with chronic trauma symptoms (Michopoulos et al., 2015). The difference in findings may be due to sample size, our analysis of symptom clusters rather than individual symptoms, or the use of different instruments in the assessment of symptoms.

The relationship between depression and inflammation is more established in the literature than that between PTSD and inflammation (Haroon et al., 2012; Howren et al., 2009; Valkanova et al., 2013). Both the PCL and the Hopkins symptoms checklist assess symptoms of depression using different questions. We identified a trend in the association between inflammation and depressive symptoms, even when measured by two separate questionnaires, rather than the strong association reported by others. The absence of a strong association may be due to sample size. Another explanation may be that posttraumatic depression is a distinct construct from major depression and, as such, may have a distinct etiology. This explanation is supported by prospective studies of major health events demonstrating that emergent depression following the event has a distinct trajectory from major depression (Burton et al., 2015; Flory and Yehuda, 2015; Galatzer-Levy and Bonanno, 2014; Zhu et al., 2014).

The association of inflammation with PTSD has important implications for health risks and management. Inflammation is associated with significant metabolic dysfunction, as is PTSD, suggesting that the inflammatory and stress response to trauma are important pathways to long-term health problems (Daskalakis et al., 2013; Farr et al., 2014). The heterogeneity in posttraumatic stress pathology and the relationship between specific PTSD symptom cluster and inflammatory pathways may also have important prevention and treatment implications. Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), the first line of medication treatment for PTSD, differ in their ability to suppress inflammatory signals such as IL-6 and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) (Eyre et al., 2016). These differences in anti-inflammatory potency, coupled with the association of inflammation with PTSD suggest potential targeting of specific SSRIs in PTSD treatment. Moreover, the differences in inflammatory markers within PTSD clusters, suggests potential targeting of SSRIs depending upon the PTSD pathology. PTSD with co-morbid depression is difficult to treat, and further elucidation of predominant symptom clusters may help in refining psychotherapy choices as well as adjunctive psychopharmacology (Flory and Yehuda, 2015).

4.1. Limitations and future directions

There are specific limitations to this study. We studied a cross-sectional civilian population, limiting the ability to explore cause and effect. Our analyses included variables with potential to influence CRP including BMI, smoking, age and gender. The possibility exists that concurrent medication use (statins), as well as other physical conditions such as diabetes or cardiovascular disease had potential to modify CRP levels. Future analyses should account for these potential confounders. While the population has all been exposed to the same trauma, a noted strength of the study, this may limit the generalizability of these results. Participants were self-referred patients seeking treatment for physical or mental health

symptoms and were not drawn from a general, WTC exposed population of survivors, raising the potential for selection bias for these symptoms. However, our analyses are between symptoms and CRP levels, and patients did not self-refer for CRP measurements. Our findings support and expand upon those described by others with general population reference groups (Michopoulos et al., 2017; Passos et al., 2015).

Importantly, alterations in CRP represent a non-specific inflammatory response. A recent meta-analysis of cytokine levels in relation to PTSD have pointed to more upstream effects that ultimately may influence the observed CRP levels in the current study. Specifically, Passos et al. (2015) demonstrate abnormal levels of IL-6, TNF- α , interleukin 1 β (IL-1 β), and interferon γ (IFN- γ) in PTSD. These analyses are consistent with our findings and may represent more specific pathways and targets for treatment. Future work in this population and others should explore cytokine pathways leading to elevations in CRP. In addition, we did not examine the activation of other inflammatory pathways, including those unrelated to CRP. CRP has a short half-life and we describe CRP levels and mental health findings years after the presumed inciting event. As such, we cannot characterize cause and effect, however, the short half-life suggests that the stimulus for CRP is ongoing, consistent with the persistence of PTSD pathology in our population. The possibility exists that the physiologic corollary to the re-experiencing cluster of symptoms is a mechanism that triggers acute inflammatory cytokines.

The current findings further our understanding of the important relationship between systemic inflammation and posttraumatic stress pathology. Heterogeneity of the posttraumatic stress diagnosis warrants refinement of symptom clusters to inform potential targets for therapeutic intervention. Identifying the biologic pathways associated with these underlying dimensions of posttraumatic stress responses has potential to lead to additional targeted approaches to treatment.

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Contributors

Rebecca L. Rosen, Ph.D contributed to the study design, interpretation of results, and writing of the manuscript.

Nomi Levy-Carrick, MD, MPhil contributed to the study design, interpretation of results, and writing of the manuscript.

Joan Reibman, MD, contributed to the study design, interpretation of results, and writing of the manuscript.

Ning Xu, MS contributed to the data analysis.

Yongzhao Shao, Ph.D contributed to the study design, data analysis, and writing of the manuscript.

Mengling Liu, Ph.D contributed to the study design and data analysis.

Lucia Ferri, Ph.D contributed to the study design and interpretation of results.

Angeliki Kazeros, MD, contributed to the study design and interpretation of results.

Caralee E. Caplan-Shaw, MD contributed to the interpretation of results.

Deepak R. Pradhan, MD contributed to the interpretation of results.

Michael Marmor, Ph.D contributed to interpretation of results.

Isaac R. Galatzer-Levy contributed to interpretation of results and writing of the manuscript.

All authors critically reviewed and approved the manuscript.

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