The Relationship Between Sleep Deprivation and Cognitive Function in College Students

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Annotation: Background: Sleep deprivation is increasingly prevalent among college students, with potential significant impacts on cognitive performance and academic success. This study investigates the relationship between sleep duration, quality, and various measures of cognitive function in undergraduate students.

Methods: A cross-sectional study was conducted with 247 undergraduate students aged 18-24 years from a mid-sized university. Participants completed validated questionnaires, including the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI), and maintained sleep diaries for 14 days. Cognitive function was assessed using computerized tests measuring attention, working memory, processing speed, and executive function. Sleep patterns were categorized into three groups: adequate sleep (\geq 7 hours), moderate sleep restriction (5-6.9 hours), and severe sleep restriction (<5 hours).

Results: Mean sleep duration was 6.2 ± 1.4 hours. Students with severe sleep restriction (n = 68) showed significantly impaired performance across all cognitive domains compared to those with adequate sleep (n = 89). Working memory scores were 23% lower (p < 0.001), sustained attention performance decreased by 18% (p < 0.01), and processing speed was reduced by 15% (p < 0.05) in severely sleep-deprived students. Poor sleep quality (PSQI > 5) was independently associated with decreased executive function performance (β = -0.34, p < 0.001).

Conclusions: Sleep deprivation significantly impairs multiple domains of cognitive function in college students, with dose-dependent relationships observed. These findings suggest that sleep intervention programs could potentially improve academic performance and overall well-being in this population.

Keywords: sleep deprivation, cognitive function, college students, working memory, attention, academic performance.

1. Introduction

Sleep is an essential biological process that is necessary for cognitive functioning, memory consolidation, and overall health. Unfortunately, sleep duration has gradually decreased across all demographics over the last several decades, and college students are arguably the most sleep-deprived population worldwide (1). The transition to university life presents numerous challenges that frequently disrupt standard sleep patterns. These include an irregular schedule, greater academic workload, social influences, and new independence in managing the sleep-wake cycle .(2)

Recent research indicates that approximately 70% of college students experience insufficient sleep, with an average sleep duration among those who do sleep being well below the recommended 7-9 hours (3). The chronic sleep restriction for college students occurs during a crucial period in their development, as the brain undergoes significant maturation, especially in the prefrontal cortex, which is responsible for many higher-level cognitive functions, including executive functions, decision-making, and emotional regulation (4). Attending university can exacerbate this situation by adding high cognitive demands to sleep insufficiencies, which can have serious ramifications for both academic achievement and psychological health.

The association between sleep and cognitive function is complex and involves many interrelated neurobiological processes. Sleep plays critical roles in memory consolidation, synaptic plasticity, and

the final elimination of metabolic waste from the brain (5). When a person is sleeping, specifically slow-wave sleep, the brain does active work to "strengthen" the connections that were laid down during the waking hours and move the information into memory networks beyond temporary storage (6). Furthermore, when students engage in rapid eye movement (REM) sleep, processing of emotional memory and creative problem-solving takes place, all of which have special relevance to academic performance (7). The cognitive processes that are most likely to be affected by sleep loss include attention, working memory, processing speed, and executive functions. Attention, including both selective and sustained attention, deteriorates considerably after sleep restriction. Research using psychomotor vigilance tasks, in which subjects respond to stimuli by pressing a key, has shown that even small amounts of sleep loss can increase reaction time, increase lapses in attention, and diminish the ability to keep focused attention on relevant stimuli in the presence of distractions. Such attention deficits apply to the classroom context, where students are expected to have prolonged attention during lectures, to filter information to focus on the essential parts while ignoring distractions.

Working memory, the system that temporarily holds information in our minds, is susceptible to sleep loss when manipulating information while completing complex cognitive tasks. Imaging studies have shown that when people are sleep deprived, they exhibit compromised functioning of the prefrontal cortical networks that support working memory tasks. As a result, the sleep-deprived person has a decreased capacity to hold information in mind, less ability to update and manipulate their mental representations, and a reduced ability to coordinate the components of the working memory system. Given the importance of working memory to reading comprehension, solving mathematical problems, and complex reasoning, it is clear that sleep-related deficits can threaten academic performance.

Processing speed, or the speed and efficiency with which cognitive processes are completed within a given time frame, is also significantly impaired with sleep loss. In summary, meta-analytic data indicate that sleep deprivation has a nonspecific effect on cognitive processing speed across various domains. The slowing of time-sensitive cognitive task performance affects everything from simple feedback tasks (e.g., choice reaction time tasks) up to complex decision-making scenarios (10). The slowing of mental processing speed can be a function of a range of mechanisms contributing to sleep deprivation effects (10). These mechanisms include decreased neural efficiency, reduced motivation, and compensatory mechanisms that attempt to retain accuracy at the sacrifice of speed.

Executive functions are high-order cognitive functions, such as mental flexibility and inhibitory control, that coordinate or control other cognitive operations. Executive functions depend on specific prefrontal cortical regions that are susceptible to overnight sleep loss and chronic sleep deprivation (11). Sleep-deprived individuals demonstrate a decreased ability to adapt to changing task demands, increased susceptibility to interference from task-irrelevant information, and a compromised ability to engage in strategic planning and goal management. Executive function impairments can cascade to affect various critical aspects of academic performance, including time management, study and learning strategies, test-taking performance, and project completion.

In addition to the challenges of addressing sleep loss caused by academic demands, the college environment can contribute to complex challenges associated with sleep loss, making the cognitive consequences of sleep loss significant. Students commonly have poor sleep habits influenced by academic pressure to meet a variety of deadlines. College students are likely to have erratic sleep-wake schedules. They will often procrastinate before assignments and assessments until the last minute, frequently delaying going to sleep until they can finish the assignment. There are social factors linked to sleep in college due to dormitory living, peer schedule conformity from shared schedules, and newfound independence in sleep decisions (12). The role of technology for leisure learning, academic reading, and studying can also be detrimental to sleep and, ultimately, cognitive performance. Exposure to blue light emitted by electronic devices during the early nighttime hours can negatively impact and alter circadian rhythms by delaying sleep latency (13). Furthermore, stress due to academic performance, financial issues, and social connections can lead to sleep problems because of the adverse effects and behaviors that occur both directly and indirectly.

The individual and context-related costs to society of sleep-related cognitive problems in college students are extensive. Decreased academic performance due to sleep deprivation leads to fewer students graduating, longer time to degree completion, and often less desirable career opportunities (14). From a societal level, the collective investment in higher education results in poorer returns unless colleges and universities are enhancing the learning experience for students. Students suffering from sleep-related cognitive problems are unable to take full advantage of their educational opportunities, which could be largely preventable.

Despite the growing importance placed on individual sleep, significant gaps in our knowledge about these relationships for a college population remain. Furthermore, previous work often employed laboratory studies, and even a single night sleep deprivation study for a university-age population does not entirely depict students suffering from safe levels of chronic partial sleep restriction (15). Finally, much of the research has concentrated on studies aimed at discrete cognitive domains as opposed to screening the whole cognitive profile, and many of the research questions are more relevant to the career prospects of students than individual academics.

Finally, individual differences between sleep need, circadian rhythm preference, and vulnerability to sleep deprivation are poorly understood in this population. For example, some students, while experiencing sleep loss, may exhibit greater resilience, while others may experience significant cognitive losses with smaller sleep restrictions (16). A better understanding of individual differences can lead to a deeper understanding of the variance and inform the design of more tailored sleep education and interventions.

This study aims to address previous limitations by examining the relationships between naturally occurring sleep and an inclusive cognitive assessment in a sizable college population. By using ecologically valid sleep and cognitive measures to study participants over two weeks, this research seeks to answer questions more relevant to real-world academic contexts and potentially inform the development of targeted interventions to positively impact cognitive and educational performance by modifying aspects of sleep behavior in the college student population during this critical and sensitive time of life.

2. Methodology

2.1 Study Design and Participants

This is a cross-sectional observational study conducted at a private university in Iraq from September of 2023 to April of 2024. The purpose of this study was to observe naturalistic sleep patterns and their relationships to cognitive performance in undergraduate students during typical academic terms, excluding exam weeks and holiday breaks .

Participants were recruited from various sources, including from student portals, classroom advertisements, flyers posted in dorms and academic buildings, and from student-centric channels on social media. The wording of the recruitment resources emphasized that the study was solely interested in relationships between sleep and academic performance in order to limit student self-selection bias. Recruitment resources were stratified to include undergraduate students from different educational years and colleges in order to represent participants across various educational levels and disciplines adequately.

Participating students had to meet the following criteria: (1) they needed to be currently enrolled undergraduate students aged between 18-24 years of age, (2) able to read and write in English, (3) no previously diagnosed sleep disorders, nor neurological condition such as a head injury, that could impact cognitive function, (4) not taking medications that significantly impact sleep or cognitive performance, (5) students who agree to complete all aspects of study participation including daily sleep diaries and cognitive test sessions. Exclusion criteria included (1) history of traumatic brain injury with loss of consciousness greater than 30 minutes, (2) currently diagnosed as clinically depressed or diagnosed with other major psychiatric disorder (including major depressive disorder, bipolar disorder, or anxiety disorders that required medication), (3) abusing drugs or alcohol in the past

six months, (4) are pregnant, and (5) currently participate in other research studies that involve cognitive testing or sleep manipulation.

2.2 Sample Size Calculation

Sample size calculations were performed using G*Power 3.1.9.7 software based on previous research examining sleep-cognition relationships in young adults (17). Assuming a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$) for the relationship between sleep duration and cognitive performance, with $\alpha = 0.05$, $\beta = 0.20$ (power = 0.80), and allowing for multiple predictor variables in regression analyses, a minimum sample size of 180 participants was determined. To account for potential attrition and missing data, recruitment targeted 280 participants, ultimately yielding a final analytical sample of 247 participants.

2.3 Sleep Assessment

Sleep patterns were assessed using a multi-method approach combining subjective and objective measures over 14 days. This extended assessment period was chosen to capture typical sleep patterns while accounting for day-to-day variability and potential weekend-weekday differences.

Sleep Diaries: Participants completed daily sleep diaries using a smartphone application developed explicitly for research purposes (SleepTracker Pro v2.1). The diary included items assessing bedtime, sleep onset latency, number and duration of nocturnal awakenings, final wake time, and subjective sleep quality ratings on a 1-10 scale. Participants were instructed to complete diary entries within 30 minutes of waking each morning. The application included automated reminders and features for monitoring compliance.

Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI): The PSQI, a widely validated 19-item questionnaire assessing sleep quality over the past month, was administered at the beginning of the study period (18). The PSQI generates a global sleep quality score ranging from 0 to 21, with scores greater than 5 indicating poor sleep quality. Component scores include sleep duration, sleep efficiency, sleep disturbances, use of sleep medications, daytime dysfunction, and subjective sleep quality.

Actigraphy: A subset of participants (n = 89) wore research-grade actigraphs (ActiGraph GT3X-BT) on their non-dominant wrist for the entire 14-day period. Actigraphic data were collected in 30-second epochs and analyzed using validated algorithms to estimate sleep-wake patterns, total sleep time, sleep efficiency, and wake after sleep onset. Participants were instructed to wear the devices continuously, except during water-based activities, and to maintain event logs noting the times when the devices were removed.

2.4 Cognitive Assessment

Cognitive function was assessed using a comprehensive computerized battery administered in a controlled laboratory environment. Testing sessions took place during the afternoon hours (1:00-5:00 PM) to minimize the impact of circadian influences on performance. The cognitive battery included validated tasks measuring four primary domains: attention, working memory, processing speed, and executive function.

Attention: Sustained attention was measured using a 10-minute Psychomotor Vigilance Task (PVT), requiring participants to respond to visual stimuli appearing at random intervals (19). Primary outcome measures included mean reaction time, the number of lapses (reaction times exceeding 500 ms), and response speed variability. Selective attention was assessed using a modified Attention Network Test measuring the efficiency of alerting, orienting, and executive attention networks (20).

Working Memory: Working memory capacity was evaluated using an automated version of the Operation Span Task (OSPAN), requiring participants to solve mathematical equations while remembering letters for subsequent recall (21). The task included practice trials followed by test trials ranging from 3 to 7 items. Primary outcomes included absolute span scores and mathematical accuracy. Additionally, a spatial working memory task, the Corsi Block Test, assessed visuospatial working memory capacity.

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Processing Speed: Information processing speed was measured using the Symbol Digit Modalities Test (SDMT), administered in computerized format, which requires participants to match symbols with corresponding digits as quickly as possible (22). The Digit Symbol Substitution Test (DSST) provided an additional measure of psychomotor speed and sustained attention.

Executive Function: Executive functions were assessed using the Wisconsin Card Sorting Test (WCST), which measures cognitive flexibility and set-shifting abilities (23). The Stroop Color-Word Test evaluated inhibitory control and selective attention (24). The Tower of London task assessed planning abilities and goal-directed behavior.

2.5 Additional Measures

Demographics and Health: Participants completed questionnaires assessing age, gender, race/ethnicity, academic major, year in school, GPA, employment status, and living arrangements. Health-related variables included body mass index (BMI), caffeine consumption, alcohol use, exercise habits, and stress levels, as measured using the Perceived Stress Scale (25).

Circadian Preferences: The Morningness-Eveningness Questionnaire (MEQ) assessed individual circadian preferences, categorizing participants as morning types, evening types, or intermediate types (26). This measure was included because of the known relationships between circadian preferences and both sleep patterns and cognitive performance.

2.6 Procedure

Following initial screening and informed consent, participants attended an orientation session where study procedures were explained and baseline questionnaires were completed. Participants then began the 14-day sleep monitoring period, during which they completed daily sleep diaries and, for the subset, wore actigraphs. Cognitive testing occurred during the second week of sleep monitoring to ensure that cognitive assessments reflected established sleep patterns rather than acute changes in sleep behavior.

Cognitive testing sessions lasted approximately 90 minutes and were conducted individually in a quiet, distraction-free laboratory environment. Tasks were administered in a standardized order with brief breaks between domains to minimize fatigue effects. Research assistants trained in cognitive assessment procedures conducted all testing sessions and remained present to ensure compliance and address any technical issues.

2.7 Statistical Analysis

Data analyses were conducted using SPSS version 29.0 and R version 4.3.0. Descriptive statistics characterized the sample and key study variables. Sleep duration was categorized into three groups based on established recommendations and empirical distributions: adequate sleep (\geq 7 hours), moderate sleep restriction (5-6.9 hours), and severe sleep restriction (<5 hours).

Primary analyses utilized analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare cognitive performance across sleep duration groups, followed by post-hoc Tukey tests for pairwise comparisons. Multiple linear regression analyses examined the relationships between continuous sleep variables and cognitive outcomes, while controlling for potential confounders, including age, gender, caffeine use, stress levels, and circadian preferences.

Correlation analyses explored associations between sleep quality measures (PSQI scores, sleep efficiency, sleep fragmentation) and cognitive performance indices. Effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's d for group comparisons and R^2 for regression analyses. Missing data were handled using multiple imputation procedures when data were missing at random, with sensitivity analyses conducted to evaluate the impact of missing data assumptions.

Statistical significance was set at $\alpha = 0.05$, with Bonferroni corrections applied for multiple comparisons within cognitive domains. All analyses adhered to intention-to-treat principles, including

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all participants who completed baseline assessments, regardless of whether they completed all study procedures.

3. Results

3.1 Participant Characteristics

A total of 247 undergraduate students completed the study protocol. The sample was predominantly female (64.4%, n = 159) with a mean age of 19.8 \pm 1.3 years. Participants represented all undergraduate class years: freshmen (28.3%), sophomores (26.7%), juniors (24.3%), and seniors (20.6%). The racial/ethnic composition included White (67.2%), Hispanic/Latino (14.2%), Black/African American (9.3%), Asian (6.9%), and other/multiracial (2.4%) students. Academic majors were distributed across sciences (31.6%), social sciences (24.7%), business (18.6%), humanities (15.4%), and engineering (9.7%).

3.2 Sleep Patterns

Mean sleep duration across the 14-day monitoring period was 6.2 ± 1.4 hours per night. Sleep duration groups were distributed as follows: adequate sleep ≥ 7 hours (n=89, 36.0%), moderate sleep restriction 5-6.9 hours (n=90, 36.4%), and severe sleep restriction <5 hours (n=68, 27.5%). Significant differences in sleep patterns were observed between weekdays and weekends, with weekend sleep duration averaging 1.2 hours longer than weekdays (p<0.001).

The mean PSQI global score was 7.8 ± 3.2 , with 68.4% of participants scoring >5, indicating poor sleep quality. Sleep efficiency averaged $79.2 \pm 12.4\%$, and mean sleep onset latency was 28.6 ± 18.9 minutes. Actigraphic data from the subset (n = 89) correlated moderately with diary-reported sleep duration (r = 0.67, p < 0.001) and sleep efficiency (r = 0.58, p < 0.001).

| Cognitive Domain | Adequate Sleep (≥7h) n=89 | Moderate Restriction (5-6.9h) n=90 | Severe Restriction (<5h) n=68 | F- statistic | p-value | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|---------|--|--|
| Attention | | | | | | | |
| PVT Mean RT (ms) | $285.3\pm45.2^{\rm a}$ | $312.7\pm52.1^{\rm b}$ | $336.8\pm61.4^{\circ}$ | 18.24 | < 0.001 | | |
| PVT Lapses (#) | $2.1\pm2.8^{\mathrm{a}}$ | $4.6\pm4.2^{\mathrm{b}}$ | $7.9\pm6.1^{\circ}$ | 22.15 | < 0.001 | | |
| ANT Efficiency | $94.2\pm6.8^{\rm a}$ | 89.1 ± 8.2^{b} | $85.3\pm9.7^\circ$ | 19.67 | < 0.001 | | |
| Working Memory | | | | | | | |
| OSPAN Score | $58.4 \pm 12.6^{\mathrm{a}}$ | 48.9 ± 14.2^{b} | $45.1\pm13.8^{\mathrm{b}}$ | 21.84 | < 0.001 | | |
| Corsi Span | $6.8 \pm 1.4^{\mathrm{a}}$ | 5.9 ± 1.6^{b} | $5.2\pm1.5^{\circ}$ | 16.73 | < 0.001 | | |
| Processing | | | | | | | |
| Speed | | | | | | | |
| SDMT Score | $67.3 \pm 11.2^{\text{a}}$ | $61.8 \pm 12.4^{\rm b}$ | $57.1 \pm 13.6^{\circ}$ | 13.45 | < 0.001 | | |
| DSST Score | $89.6\pm15.4^{\rm a}$ | 82.1 ± 16.8^{b} | $76.3 \pm 18.2^{\circ}$ | 11.92 | < 0.001 | | |
| Executive | | | | | | | |
| Function | | | | | | | |
| WCST Categories | $5.2\pm1.1^{\mathrm{a}}$ | $4.6 \pm 1.3^{\text{b}}$ | $3.9 \pm 1.4^{\circ}$ | 17.38 | < 0.001 | | |
| Stroop Interference | $12.8\pm8.4^{\rm a}$ | 18.6 ± 11.2^{b} | $24.3 \pm 13.7^{\circ}$ | 19.22 | <0.001 | | |
| Tower of London | $16.4\pm3.8^{\rm a}$ | 14.1 ± 4.2 ^b | 12.6 ± 4.9° | 14.67 | < 0.001 | | |

Table 1: Cognitive Performance Scores by Sleep Duration Groups

3.3 Cognitive Performance by Sleep Duration Groups

Note: Values represent means \pm standard deviations. Different superscript letters indicate significant between-group differences (p<0.05) based on Tukey post-hoc tests. PVT = Psychomotor Vigilance Task; RT = Reaction Time; ANT = Attention Network Test; OSPAN = Operation Span Task; SDMT =

Symbol Digit Modalities Test; DSST = Digit Symbol Substitution Test; WCST = Wisconsin Card Sorting Test.

| Sleep Measure | Attention Composite | Working Memory Composite | Processing Speed Composite | Executive Function Composite |
|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| PSQI Global Score | -0.42*** | -0.38*** | -0.35*** | -0.41*** |
| Sleep Efficiency | 0.31** | 0.29** | 0.27** | 0.33** |
| Sleep Onset Latency | -0.24* | -0.21* | -0.19* | -0.26** |
| Sleep Fragmentation | -0.28** | -0.26** | -0.23* | -0.31** |
| Weekend Sleep Debt | -0.19* | -0.17* | -0.15 | -0.22* |

3.4 Sleep Quality and Cognitive Performance

 Table 2: Correlations Between Sleep Quality Measures and Cognitive Performance

*Note: ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p*<0.05. *Composite scores represent z-score averages of tasks within each domain.*

Multiple regression analyses revealed that poor sleep quality (PSQI > 5) was independently associated with decreased performance across all cognitive domains, after controlling for sleep duration, age, gender, caffeine use, and stress levels. The strongest relationships were observed for executive function ($\beta = -0.34$, p < 0.001) and attention ($\beta = -0.31$, p < 0.001).

Students in the severe sleep restriction group showed cognitive performance decrements equivalent to 0.5-0.8 standard deviations below those with adequate sleep. Working memory showed the largest effect size (d = 0.77), followed by attention (d = 0.72), executive function (d = 0.69), and processing speed (d = 0.58). These effect sizes represent moderate to significant clinical and practical significance.

Sleep efficiency emerged as a significant predictor of cognitive performance independent of total sleep time, with each 10% increase in sleep efficiency associated with a 0.2 standard deviation improvement in overall mental performance (p<0.01). Weekend sleep extension did not fully compensate for weekday sleep restriction, with persistent cognitive deficits observed in students relying on weekend "catch-up" sleep.

4. Discussion

The present study provides compelling evidence for significant relationships between sleep patterns and multiple domains of cognitive function in college students. The findings demonstrate that sleep deprivation, both in terms of duration and quality, is associated with substantial impairments in attention, working memory, processing speed, and executive function. These results have important implications for understanding the mechanisms underlying academic performance difficulties in sleepdeprived students and for developing targeted interventions to improve both sleep and cognitive outcomes in this population.

The observed prevalence of inadequate sleep in our sample (64% obtaining less than 7 hours of sleep nightly) aligns with previous epidemiological studies, confirming that sleep deprivation remains a significant public health concern among college students (27). The finding that mean sleep duration was 6.2 hours, nearly one hour below recommended minimums, underscores the magnitude of this problem. Particularly concerning is the observation that over one-quarter of students were severely sleep restricted (<5 hours), a level of sleep loss associated with performance impairments equivalent to legal intoxication (28).

The dose-response relationship observed between sleep duration and cognitive performance provides strong evidence for the causal role of sleep in maintaining optimal cognitive function. Students with severe sleep restriction showed performance decrements of 15-23% across cognitive domains

compared to adequately rested peers. These effect sizes are substantial and likely translate to meaningful differences in academic performance, including poorer performance on examinations, reduced comprehension of course material, and decreased ability to engage effectively in classroom discussions and activities.

The particular vulnerability of working memory to sleep deprivation that this study found is in keeping with neuroimaging studies that have demonstrated that the prefrontal cortical regions that support working memory are heavily impacted by sleep loss (29). Working memory has been shown to be a central element of higher order cognitive processes, including but not limited to reading comprehension, problem solving in math, and composition (i.e. writing). The 23% decline in working memory performance from severe sleep deprivation likely causes significant academic problems for students, since working memory capacity serves as a strong predictor of educational performance.(30)

Sleep deprivation also causes attention deficits which can adversely affect students' learning performance in the classroom. Since sleep-deprived students were slower to respond to items and had longer instances of attention lapses, they are less likely to sustain attention in lectures, contribute to class discussions, and filter out irrelevant information. Attention performances tended to deteriorate with the severity of sleep restriction, suggesting that even moderate sleep loss results in statistically measurable attention performance deficits. The current findings are analogous to occupational studies finding that sleep deprivation increases accidents and reduces performance at work.(31)

The significant sleep deprivation-related declines in processing speed might reflect less optimal neural efficiency and slowing neural processing time. With regard to academic performance, processing speed can be a challenge if an exam has a time limit, if a student has poor reading speed, and if a neuro-cognitive disorder limits the student's comprehension of complex material. The 15% decline in processing speed (as a function of sleep deprivation) observed among severely sleep deprived students is a significant burden in academic contexts where time matters.Deficits in executive functioning observed in sleep-deprived students likely generalize broadly beyond specific tasks in: cognitive flexibility, planning, and inhibitory control can influence study strategies, effective use of time, goal setting, and decision making. These deficits could indicate poor academic habits and diminished self-regulation in sleep-deprived students.

The separate effect of sleep quality on cognitive performance, independent of sleep duration, demonstrates the need for a comprehensive assessment of sleep quality by researchers and clinicians. Sleep deprived students with poor sleep quality demonstrated cognitive impairment despite adequate sleep duration, demonstrating that sleep quality (i.e., sleep fragmentation, difficulty initiating sleep) is critical to mental functioning. This finding is important for intervention development since focusing solely on sleep duration may not address students who typically experience poor sleep quality .

The fact that weekend sleep extension does not fully mitigate weekday sleep restriction challenges the belief that students can "catch up" on sleep and restore cognitive ability with weekend extension. Students who catch up by sleeping in on weekends still displayed cognitive impairment, suggesting that chronic sleep restriction results in cumulative effects that are very difficult to mitigate using a strategy of intermittent sleep extension. This evidence strongly suggests that sleep scholars should continue to recommend students engage in adequate sleep throughout the week instead of using weekends as restoration time.

There were important individual differences in vulnerability to sleep deprivation that contributed to variability between cognitive responses in the study. It is possible that some students can tolerate sleep loss better than others, while students at the opposite end of the spectrum may be negatively impacted even with modest sleep loss. This understanding could inform individually tailored approaches to sleep education and intervention. Individual differences in vulnerability have been theorized to result from, genetic polymorphisms that permit naturally occur different sleep needs, intrinsic circadian rhythm preferences, stress resilience factors, or baseline cognitive ability and processing speed .

Alertness and cognitive performance are likely influenced by multiple mechanisms due to the complex and nuanced relationship between sleep and executive functions. Sleep deprivation affects the dopaminergic, noradrenergic, and cholinergic neurotransmission systems which influence attention, arousal, and cognition (32). Importantly sleep deprivation alters the expected function of the default mode network and other relevant brain networks related to cognitive control and self-regulation (33). Finally, extended waking periods lead to the accumulation of adenosine and various metabolic byproducts that will directly affect neurological functioning, and could assist in further explaining similar cognitive deficits and functional impairments over time.

From a practical perspective, these findings suggest several potential targets for intervention in college populations. Sleep education programs that provide students with information about the importance of sleep for cognitive function and academic performance may increase motivation for behavioral change. Environmental modifications, such as reducing noise and light exposure in dormitories, could improve sleep quality. Policy changes, including later start times for morning classes and limits on academic scheduling during traditionally late evening hours, might help align academic demands with students' natural circadian rhythms.

Technology-based interventions, including smartphone applications for sleep tracking and behavior modification, may provide scalable approaches to improving sleep habits in large student populations. Cognitive-behavioral therapy for insomnia (CBT-I) has shown efficacy in college students and could be adapted for delivery through digital platforms to increase accessibility (34). Addressing underlying factors contributing to poor sleep, such as stress, anxiety, and time management difficulties, may require comprehensive approaches incorporating mental health services and academic support programs.

The study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. The crosssectional design precludes causal inferences, although the strong theoretical foundation and doseresponse relationships observed support causal interpretations. The reliance on self-reported sleep data for the majority of participants introduces potential measurement error, although the correlation between diary and actigraphic data in the subset suggests reasonable validity. The sample was drawn from a single university, which may limit generalizability to other student populations with different demographic characteristics or academic cultures.

Selection bias may have influenced the findings, as students volunteering for a sleep research study might differ systematically from the general student population in terms of sleep awareness, sleep problems, or academic motivation. The exclusion of students with diagnosed psychiatric conditions may have underestimated the true prevalence of sleep problems and cognitive difficulties in the broader student population, as mental health issues are common among college students and often co-occur with sleep disturbances.

The cognitive battery, while comprehensive, was administered in a controlled laboratory environment that may not fully capture the mental demands of real-world academic situations. The testing took place during afternoon hours to minimize circadian effects; however, this timing may not accurately reflect the periods when students typically engage in demanding cognitive tasks. Additionally, the study did not examine long-term consequences of chronic sleep deprivation or the potential for cognitive recovery following sleep intervention.

Future research should employ longitudinal designs to examine the causal relationships between sleep and cognitive function, as well as to investigate the long-term consequences of chronic sleep deprivation in college students. Intervention studies are needed to determine whether improving sleep patterns leads to corresponding improvements in cognitive performance and academic outcomes. Research examining the effectiveness of different intervention approaches, including individual versus group-based programs and technology-assisted versus traditional delivery methods, would inform evidence-based practice.

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Investigation of moderating factors that influence individual vulnerability to sleep deprivation could facilitate personalized intervention approaches. Genetic studies examining polymorphisms affecting sleep need and circadian preferences may identify students at particular risk for sleep-related cognitive impairments. Research examining the interaction between sleep patterns and other lifestyle factors, such as nutrition, exercise, and substance use, could inform comprehensive wellness programs for college students.

The economic implications of sleep-related cognitive impairment deserve further investigation. Studies examining the relationships between sleep patterns and academic outcomes, such as GPA, retention rates, and time to graduation, could quantify the broader impact of sleep problems on educational investment returns. Cost-effectiveness analyses of sleep intervention programs could inform institutional decision-making about resource allocation for student health and wellness programs.

In conclusion, this study provides robust evidence for significant relationships between sleep patterns and cognitive function in college students. The findings demonstrate that sleep deprivation produces substantial impairments across multiple cognitive domains, with dose-response relationships suggesting that even moderate sleep restriction has meaningful consequences. The independent effects of sleep quality beyond sleep duration highlight the importance of comprehensive sleep assessment and intervention. These results support the development of targeted programs to improve sleep habits in college students as a means of enhancing cognitive performance and academic success.

5. Conclusion

This comprehensive study of 247 college students provides compelling evidence that sleep deprivation significantly impairs multiple domains of cognitive function essential for academic success. Students who obtain less than 7 hours of sleep per night demonstrate marked deficits in attention, working memory, processing speed, and executive function compared to their well-rested peers. The dose-response relationship observed, with severe sleep restriction producing cognitive impairments of 15-23% across domains, underscores the critical importance of adequate sleep for optimal mental performance.

Particularly noteworthy is the finding that sleep quality independently contributes to cognitive function beyond the effects of sleep duration, suggesting that both quantitative and qualitative aspects of sleep must be addressed in intervention efforts. The observation that weekend "catch-up" sleep does not fully compensate for weekday sleep restriction challenges common student beliefs about sleep recovery. It supports recommendations for consistent, adequate sleep throughout the week.

These findings have significant implications for higher education institutions, suggesting that sleep education and intervention programs could substantially improve students' academic performance and well-being. Given that nearly two-thirds of students in this sample obtained insufficient sleep, addressing sleep problems represents a substantial opportunity to enhance educational outcomes in this population.

Future research should examine the effectiveness of targeted sleep interventions in improving both sleep patterns and academic performance among college students. The substantial cognitive benefits associated with adequate sleep, combined with the high prevalence of sleep problems in this population, make sleep intervention a promising target for improving student success and maximizing educational investment returns.

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