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## Review article

## Fasting in mood disorders: neurobiology and effectiveness. A review of the literature

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## ABSTRACT

Clinicians have found that fasting was frequently accompanied by an increased level of vigilance and a mood improvement, a subjective feeling of well-being, and sometimes of euphoria. Therapeutic fasting, following an established protocol, is safe and well tolerated. We aim in this article to explore the biological mechanisms activated during fasting that could have an effect on brain function with particular focus on mood (we do not discuss here the mechanisms regulating eating behavior) and to provide a comprehensive review on the potential positive impact of therapeutic fasting on mood. We explored Medline, Web of Science and PsycInfo according to the PRISMA criteria (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analysis). The initial research paradigm was: [(fasting OR caloric restriction) AND (mental health OR depressive disorders OR mood OR anxiety)]. Many neurobiological mechanisms have been proposed to explain fasting effects on mood, such as changes in neurotransmitters, quality of sleep, and synthesis of neurotrophic factors. Many clinical observations relate an early (between day 2 and day 7) effect of fasting on depressive symptoms with an improvement in mood, alertness and a sense of tranquility reported by patients. The persistence of mood improvement over time remains to be determined.

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## Contents

1. Introduction	254
1.1. Fasting across time and cultures	254
1.2. Definitions of fasting, caloric restriction and modified/therapeutic fasting	254
1.3. Establishment protocol	254
1.4. Objectives	254
2. Method	254
2.1. Process	254
2.2. Eligibility criteria	255
3. Results	255
3.1. The neurobiology of mood improvement during fasting	255
3.2. Clinical efficacy of therapeutic fasting on depressive symptoms	256
4. Limits and perspectives	256
5. Conclusion	257
Acknowledgments	257
References	257

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## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Fasting across time and cultures

Humanity, until recently, has been exposed to large fluctuations in the availability of its food, alternating periods of over-feeding and starvation. Periodic fasting with voluntary restriction of the intake of solid food is practiced around the world, mostly for cultural or religious reasons (fasting is thought to favor man's awakening to spirituality) (Buchinger, 1950, 1952; Heun, 1954a, b, 1956; Rooth and Carlstrom, 1970). Since Hippocrates, fasting has been offered as treatment of acute and chronic diseases, following the empirical observation that infection is frequently accompanied by an anorexic response (Exton, 1997; McCarthy et al., 1985). The deliberate choice of fasting in some religions as renunciation of external rewards in an ascetic approach could be strengthened by the concomitant increase in mental alertness, sense of calm and improved mood. Mood alleviation during fasting may represent an adaptive mechanism promoting phylogenetic struggle for survival and search for food. Thus, the human body may be programmed to cope with famine, but not with over-feeding.

### 1.2. Definitions of fasting, caloric restriction and modified/therapeutic fasting.

Very low calorie diets allow up to 800 kcal/day. Caloric restriction is defined by a decrease in daily calorie intake by 30–40% (Varady and Hellerstein, 2007). Dietary restriction below 500 kcal/day initially triggers a strong neuroendocrine activation that leads to rapid mobilization of glycogen stores (Phase I), followed after 24 h of fasting by the lipolysis of fat mass (phase II) that precedes a phase of accelerated protein catabolism (phase III). This protein catabolism is significantly reduced by the intake of 200–500 kcal/day in the form of fruits or soups: this defines fasting therapy, also called modified/therapeutic fasting, which is focused upon in this review (Varady and Hellerstein, 2007). Optimal medical fasting is defined as 2 days of 800 kcal/day diet in the form of fruit or rice or potatoes. The patient then receives a small amount of oral laxative. While fasting, it is recommended that the patient drink 2–3 liters of fluid per day (mineral water, small amounts of fruit juice, tea). Food is gradually reintroduced at the end of fasting (after 1–3 weeks) and ends with taking normal-calorie vegetarian dishes at day 4 after fasting cessation. This period of re-introduction is accompanied by a focus on feeding mindfulness.

### 1.3. Establishment protocol.

Medical fasting is still practiced on a voluntary patient basis, and its duration is limited and predefined (Michalsen, 2010). The recommended duration of fasting in the indication “chronic pain” is 1 to 2 weeks. Standardized methods of medical fasting were developed in the United States in the early 20th century by Dewey Tanner and Hazzard but have since disappeared from this country, although this method has been increasingly successful in Europe since the 1950s. The most used method is one proposed by the German physician Otto Buchinger: it is defined by fasting for 1–3 weeks with the ingestion of mineral water and fruit juice in limited amounts, accompanied by a moderate level of physical exercise (Buchinger, 1950, 1952, 1953, 1959a, b).

Medical fasting is well established and has been shown to be safe. Rare side effects include irritability, headache, fatigue, nausea and stomachache. Contra-indications (Bol'shova and Malinov'ska, 2008; Henry and Gumbiner, 1991; Le Bourg, 2005) are eating disorders, a body-mass index below 20 or above 40,

kidney or liver disease, gastric ulcer, severe comorbidities, including cancer, immunosuppressive premedication (except corticosteroids), alcoholism, psychosis, pregnancy, lactation, unexplained weight loss, and medication with diuretics (in order to avoid hyponatremia).

The reported patient adherence rate is known among chronic pain disorders. Periods of prolonged fasting (> 8 days) seem to be better tolerated than periods of intermittent fasting, where the sensation of hunger is more poorly tolerated during the days of food restriction. Similarly, periods of prolonged fasting seem easier to set up than caloric restriction in daily life (Bol'shova and Malinov'ska, 2008; Buchinger, 1959b; Busse Grawitz, 1952).

Intermittent fasting and caloric restriction increase life expectancy of all animal species in which they have been tested (Bartke et al., 2007; Barzilay and Bartke, 2009; Cox and Mattison, 2009; Everitt and Le Couteur, 2007; Gillette-Guyonnet and Vellas, 2008; Masoro, 2007, 2009; Omodei and Fontana, 2011; Segall, 1977; Skulachev, 2011; Trepanowski et al., 2011; Willcox et al., 2007). They have also recently demonstrated in humans an efficacy in the prevention of degenerative diseases (such as Alzheimer's or Parkinson's) (Jadiviya et al., 2011; Love, 2005; Mattson, 2003; McCarty, 2001; Patel et al., 2005; Srivastava and Haigis, 2011) of cardiovascular disease (Ahmadi et al., 2011; Cefalu et al., 1997; Cefalu et al., 2004; Cruzen and Colman, 2009; Gerstenblith, 2006; Mattson and Wan, 2005; Shinmura, 2011; Williams et al., 2002), diabetes (Hammer et al., 2008; Henry et al., 1985; Nagulesparan et al., 1981; Polonov et al., 1982; Skripchenko et al., 2002; Ugochukwu and Figgers, 2007; Wycherley et al., 2008) and cancer (Buschemeyer et al., 2010; Elias et al., 2007; Kritchevsky, 1993, 2001; Manjgaladze et al., 1993; Michels and Ekbohm, 2004; Sell, 2003; Steinbach et al., 1994; Thompson and McTiernan, 2011) and in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis, chronic pain syndromes and migraine (Michalsen, 2010; Michalsen et al., 2006; Michalsen et al., 2003b; Michalsen et al., 2002). All studies found that the modified fast is safe and is not associated with a feeling of hunger that may potentially lead patients to discontinue treatment (Michalsen et al., 2005).

A significant proportion of patients in psychiatry have a lack of response to drugs, so therapeutic fasting may be a treatment of interest in addition to or in place of psychotropic medication. Moreover, therapeutic fasting has a low cost and is easier to carry out than other treatments for drug-resistant patients, such as electroconvulsive therapy, for example.

### 1.4. Objectives

As we found no review on therapeutic fasting and its effectiveness in mood improvement, this study aims to explore the biological mechanisms activated during fasting that could have an effect on brain function with particular focus on mood (we do not discuss here the mechanisms regulating eating behavior) and to provide a review of data suggesting the efficacy of therapeutic fasting on mood.

## 2. Method

### 2.1. Process

The Medline, Web of Science, and Psycinfo databases were searched from their inception until October 2012 according to the PRISMA criteria (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analysis). English, German and French language restrictions were applied. As the words “mood” or “depression” were too restrictive, we checked all data on fasting's effects and selected relevant articles. Duplicates were eliminated. Reference lists of identified original and review papers were hand-searched to locate additional articles. Additional items were added after examining the referenced articles (Fig. 1).

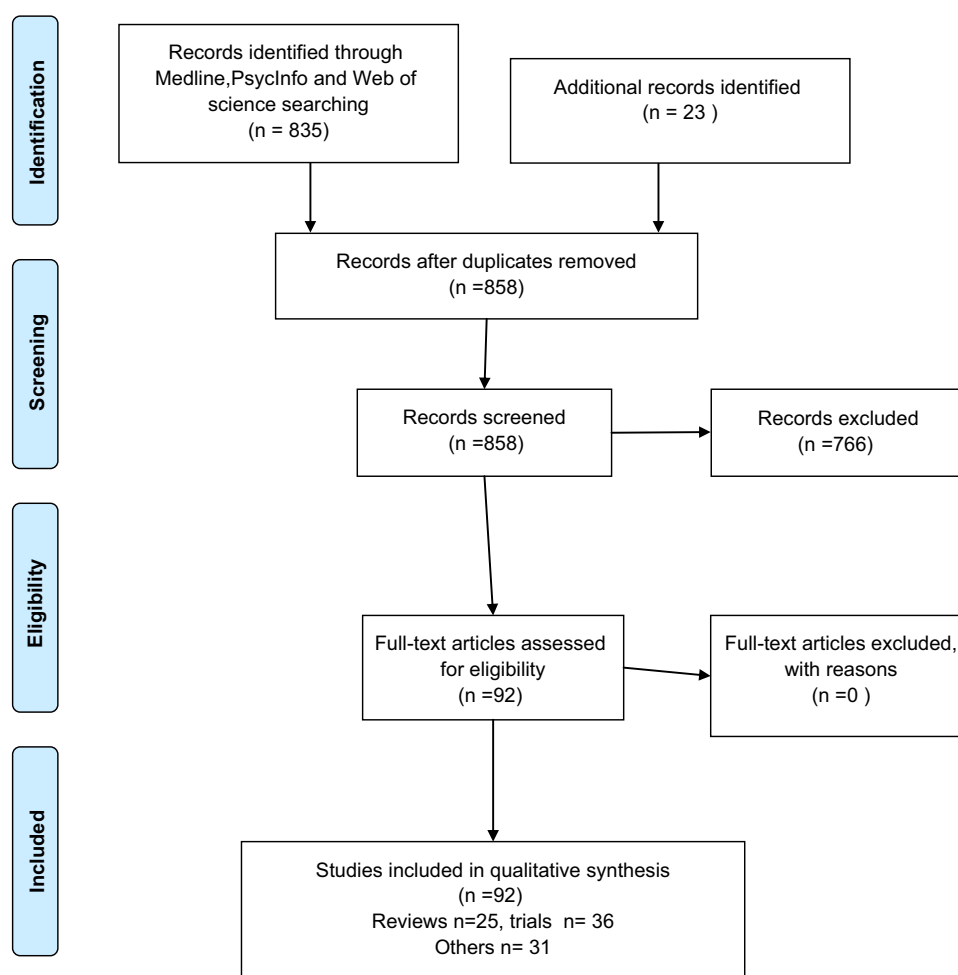


Fig. 1. PRISMA flow diagram.

## 2.2. Eligibility criteria

Two authors (G.F and A.M) independently selected full-text articles after checking abstracts, with limitation to clinical trials, observational studies, reviews and meta-analyses. Disagreements were resolved by consensus.

## 3. Results

Ninety-two articles were included in the qualitative synthesis.

### 3.1. The Neurobiology of mood improvement during fasting.

Prolonged fasting (> 8 days) is a strong physiological stimulus equivalent to a biological stress that activates the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA, said “stress axis”) (Brecchia et al., 2006; Fekete et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2008; Park et al., 2004; Shahab et al., 1997; Steiner et al., 2003). The biological mechanisms of this activation are unclear and could include the reduced availability of cerebral glucose, reduced insulin and leptin levels, or the sensation of hunger (Brecchia et al., 2006; Fekete et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2008; Park et al., 2004; Shahab et al., 1997; Steiner et al., 2003). Change in leptin levels has been identified as a strong signal of biological adaptation of the organism to starvation, and has been associated with mood disorders (Tichomirowa et al., 2005). Modified fasting in humans is accompanied during the early phase (2–7 days) by an increase in urinary and plasma norepinephrine, epinephrine, dopamine and cortisol levels and decreased plasma levels of thyroid

hormones T3 and T4 (Michalsen et al., 2003b; Palmblad et al., 1977). Normalization of blood pressure could be explained by an increase in diuresis and natriuresis.

The serotonin system is strongly involved in diet regulation (Haleem, 1993; Noach, 1994). Studies on rats have reported an increase in the availability of brain tryptophan and serotonin during fasting (Ishida et al., 1997; Knott et al., 1973) that could explain a significant improvement of migraine symptoms clinically observed among humans (Busse Grawitz, 1952).

In a controlled exploratory study of 55 subjects with chronic pain, 8-day fasting (300 kcal/day) showed a significant mood improvement after 5 days independently of weight loss, decreased leptin level or increase of plasmatic cortisol (Michalsen et al., 2006). Another uncontrolled study reported an improvement in subjective sleep quality, mood and concentration after 8 days of modified fasting (Michalsen et al., 2003a). Polysomnographic recordings reported a significant decrease in periodic limb movements and nocturnal awakenings, and a non-significant increase in REM sleep. Improved mood may thus be achieved through improved sleep.

Another mechanism behind mood improvement during fasting could be the release of endogenous endorphins, found in humans after 5–10 days of fasting with no correlations with weight loss. One study reported an increase by 5 levels of endogenous opiate production in rats during the first 24 h of fasting and second during the first 48 h (Molina et al., 1995).

The cerebral glucose decrease could promote neurogenesis, synthesis of neurotrophic factors, receptors for neurotransmitters

and chaperone proteins (Araya et al., 2008; Fontan-Lozano et al., 2008; Stanek et al., 2008). For example, intermittent fasting causes an increase in BDNF (brain-derived neurotrophic factor) that is involved in the regulation of serotonin metabolism, synaptic plasticity, improved cognitive function, and increasing the brain's ability to resist aging (Araya et al., 2008; Chung et al., 2002; Fontan-Lozano et al., 2008; Stanek et al., 2008).

Finally, the production of ketone bodies could be involved in improving mood, decreasing pain sensation, and promoting neuro-neuronal protection against hypoglycemia and different types of brain damage (Brown, 2007; Maalouf et al., 2009; White et al., 2007) possibly through anticonvulsant properties (Gasior et al., 2007; Hasebe et al., 2010; Likhodii et al., 2003; Zarnowska et al., 2009). Further studies are needed to determine the role of ketone bodies in the neurobiological effects of fasting.

In summary, catecholamines and gluco-corticoids are massively released in the first phase of fasting (the first 7 days). In order to protect itself from the potentially deleterious effects of these hormones, the brain's cellular mechanisms of stress resistance are activated. Mood improvement that occurs during these first few days of fasting, could be a direct consequence of this activation (Lavin et al., 2011).

### 3.2. Clinical efficacy of therapeutic fasting on depressive symptoms

Clinicians have found that fasting was frequently accompanied by increased vigilance and mood improvement, a subjective feeling of well-being, and sometimes a feeling of euphoria (Busse Grawitz, 1952; Roky et al., 2000; Michalsen et al., 2002, 2006, 2009; Michalsen, 2010; Chtourou et al., 2011). Some observations report an improved mood during phase II (between day 2 and day 7) (Table 1).

Studies examining the association of fasting and mood can be divided into two groups: the first group concerns experimental studies focusing on subjects with chronic inflammatory diseases (including rheumatoid arthritis and bowel disorders), using therapeutic fasting as previously defined (i.e., 300–500 kcal/day).

These studies used a visual analog scale to assess daily mood. In a prospective uncontrolled trial, the effects of modified fasting (250 kcal/day) for 2 weeks in 52 in patients with chronic pain and metabolic syndrome were reported (Michalsen et al., 2002). Over 80% of fasters showed a rapid decrease in depression and anxiety scores with an average weight loss of 6.6 kg and a normalization of blood pressure. Mood improvement after 8 days of fasting (350 kcal/d) have been shown to depend on the GNB3 C825T polymorphism (Michalsen et al., 2009).

The other group of studies are observational studies on the effects of Ramadan on mood, i.e., partial fasting for 1 month per year. Interestingly, Farooq et al. (2010) reported improved scores for depression and mania in bipolar patients treated with lithium during Ramadan, without significant changes in lithium blood-levels. The recent study of Teng et al. (2011) found no difference in depressive scores between their groups, but their fasting protocol was different and both groups received caloric restriction for 3 months before the Muslim fasting, and baseline depressive scores were very low. Moreover, these results in a Malaysian population cannot be extrapolated to Western countries.

All these studies were conducted without antidepressant drugs.

### 4. Limits and perspectives

Randomized controlled clinical trials studying the effectiveness of fasting on major depression have yet to be carried out. The heterogeneity of available studies, regarding samples, fasting process, and assessment of mood cannot form the basis for a meta-analysis, and it is not possible to date to conclude that fasting significantly improves mood, even if clinical findings are encouraging. We limited this review to published studies written in English French and German, so we may have missed studies in other languages or unpublished data.

Clinical observations report an improvement in mood between day 2 and day 7, but it is still unclear whether this improvement is maintained over time. This treatment may remain an effective

**Table 1**

Clinical studies evaluating mood in populations under fasting condition. BDI: Beck Depression Inventory. HDRS: Hamilton Depression Rating Scale. HADS: Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale. YMRS: Young Mania Rating Scale. CES-D: Center for Epidemiological Studies–Depression Scale. QOL: quality of life. CR: caloric restriction. MF: Muslim fasting. BSI Brief Symptom Inventory. VAS: Visual Analog Scale.

Study	Fasting protocol	Study design and population	Mood evaluation	Major findings
Teng et al. (2011)	3-month clinical trial on CR (reduction of 300–500 kcal/day) combined with 2 days/week of MF.	Randomized controlled trial Healthy individuals, N=25	BDI-II, QOL, Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index, Perceived Stress Scale	Significant energy increase in QOL questionnaire ( $p < 0.05$ ). No significant changes in depression and stress level, but baseline levels were very low. No change in sleep quality.
Farooq et al. (2010)	MF during Ramadan	Open-labelled bipolar affective disorder, N=62	HDRS, YMRS	Significant decrease in HDRS and YMRS during Ramadan ( $F=34.12$ , $p < 0.01$ , for HDRS and $F=15.6$ , $p < 0.001$ for YMRS)
Michalsen et al. (2009)	8-day modified medical fasting treatment (total energy intake < 350 kcal/day)	Controlled healthy subjects, N=108	Daily ratings of mood (VAS)	Significant mood improvement ( $p=0.036$ )
Tavvakoli et al. (2008)	MF during Ramadan	Controlled trial with irritable bowel syndrome, N=60	HADS, QOL	Decrease of anxiety score (from 12.7 (6.0) to 9.8 (4.4) after fasting ( $p=0.026$ ))
Lepage et al. (2008)	CR based on patient's self-declaration	Observational study female with CR vs. non-CR, N=486	CES-D, BSI	Significant group differences on the BSI, $F(3, 289)=4.84$ , $p < 0.005$ , while results for the CES-D neared significance, $F(3, 309)=3.03$ , $p=0.03$ .
Kanazawa and Fukudo (2006)	Complete fasting during 10 days	Controlled trial Irritable-bowel syndrome, N=58	Clinical interview	Fasting significantly improved anorexia ( $p=0.02$ ) and anxiety ( $p < 0.001$ ), and interference with life in general ( $p < 0.001$ ).
Michalsen et al. (2006)	8-day modified fast (300 kcal/day)	Controlled trial chronic pain syndromes, N=36	Daily ratings of mood (VAS)	Mood ratings increased significantly in the late phase of fasting ( $p < 0.01$ ) but were not related to weight-loss, leptin-depletion or cortisol increase.
Willcox (2007)	Complete fasting during 10 days	Observation study depression, N=36	Clinical interview	Reported remission rate of 86%



treatment in the initiation phase of antidepressant treatment, that is generally not effective until the third week.

We were unable, by examining the literature, to determine the reason why psychosis has been placed among the contra-indications of therapeutic fasting. This may be due to the patient's inability to express consent or to comply with the treatment program. We did not find any neurobiological justification, except for a disturbance of dopamine metabolism, but no delusion increase during fasting periods has been reported to our knowledge.

## 5. Conclusion

Therapeutic fasting has been a safe practice in the medical community for a century, and in some religions for millennia. Research on therapeutic fasting is similar in some aspects to date to research on anti-inflammatory drugs in psychiatric disorders 10 years ago. At the time, only observations on populations of patients with chronic diseases (cancer, Crohn's disease, psoriasis in this case) reported an improvement in mood in patients treated with anti-inflammatory drugs. Today many studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of anti-inflammatory drugs in psychiatric disorders. Our goal in this article was to increase psychiatrists' awareness of the potential positive effects of adjunctive fasting therapy on mood.

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