

Mónica Martínez-Cengotitabengoa^{1,2,3}
Ana González-Pinto^{1,2,3}

Nutritional supplements in depressive disorders

¹ Biomedical Research Centre in Mental Health Network (CIBERSAM) G10, Spain

² Psychiatry Department, BioAraba, Health Research Institute, Araba University Hospital, Vitoria, Spain

³ University of the Basque Country, Spain

There is increasing evidence about the role of nutrients in mental health. An adequate intake of nutrients contributes to better overall health and mental health in particular. Major depression is a severe mental illness with a high prevalence for which effective treatments exist but not in all cases the patient's remission is achieved. Therefore, it is increasingly aimed at optimizing the supply of nutrients necessary for adequate brain functioning as adjunctive therapy to antidepressant treatment in depressive disorders. In this article we review those nutrients that have been related to depression: Omega-3 fatty acids, B vitamins, s-adenosylmethionine, tryptophan, magnesium, zinc and probiotics.

Keywords: Nutritional supplements, Depression, Depressive disorder, Major depressive disorder

Actas Esp Psiquiatr 2017;45(Suppl. 1):8-15

Suplementos nutricionales en trastornos depresivos

Cada vez hay más evidencia que demuestra el papel de los nutrientes en la salud mental. Una adecuada alimentación contribuye a una mejor salud general y salud mental en particular. La depresión mayor es una enfermedad mental grave con una alta prevalencia para la que existen tratamientos eficaces pero no en todos los casos se consigue la remisión del paciente. Por ello, cada vez se apunta más hacia la optimización en la aportación de nutrientes necesarios para un adecuado funcionamiento cerebral como terapia coadyuvante al tratamiento antidepressivo. En este artículo revisamos aquellos nutrientes sobre los que se ha estudiado su implicación en dicha patología: ácidos grasos omega-3, vitaminas del grupo B, s-adenosilmetionina, triptófano, magnesio, zinc y probióticos.

Palabras clave: Suplementos nutricionales, Depresión, Trastorno depresivo, Trastorno depresivo mayor

Correspondence:

Mónica Martínez Cengotitabengoa

E-mail: monica.martinezcengotitabengoa@osakidetza.eus

Ana González-Pinto

E-mail: anamaria.gonzalez-pintoarillaga@osakidetza.eus

INTRODUCTION

The pharmacological approach to mental diseases has achieved a moderate decrease in the load of such diseases, but there is still much important room for improvement. Furthermore, the indicators point to an increase of such load worldwide in the coming years, that these data are generally undervalued¹ and that the prevalence is considered to be greater due to the increased life expectancy and to better detection of the cases. The WHO indicates that major depression will be the second cause of incapacity in the year 2020, following ischemic heart diseases.² Major depressive is a serious disease having a high prevalence, although this varies according to the study considered. It has been estimated to be 13-16% during the lifetime for women and 5-8% for men.³

Within the developed world and increasingly more in emerging economies, the inhabitants are more overfed and also at the same time more undernourished, not even reaching the minimum daily requirements of different essential nutrients for the good functioning of our brain and body in general.⁴ These deficiencies together with sleep alterations, alcohol consumption, tobacco, drugs and/or insufficient physical activity often lead to deficient health of the population.⁵ One closely related aspect is the globalization of the food industry that has radically varied the diet of many persons with great repercussion on their health.⁶

The mechanisms by which nutrition affects mental health are varied: a) the human brain has a high metabolic rate, so that it uses an elevated proportion of nutrients and energy, b) its adequate structure and functioning depend on the adequate supply of nutrients such as amino acids, fats, vitamins, minerals and other micronutrients c) eating habits modulate the functioning of the immune system which in turn affects the risk of depression, d) the antioxidant defense system that has been observed to be altered in mental diseases functions with the support of cofactors and phytochemicals that we eat and e) neurotrophic factors,

with their important role in plasticity and neuronal maintenance, are affected by the intake of nutrients. Thus, the scientific evidence seems to consider diet as an added factor as well as one that is key to the approach of mental diseases. That is why it is necessary to wake up to the reality that deficient nutrition and/or chemical unbalance can be contributing to the appearance and/or maintenance of many of the mental diseases.

Considering this viewpoint, we are going to explore depression somewhat more in depth from the approach of an emerging discipline such as Nutritional Psychiatry.⁵ In general, we need to extend our field of view and include depression among those diseases that include the presence of a poor diet among their possible etiological factors and whose symptoms we could attempt to improve with the use of an adequate diet and/or nutritional supplements.⁷ It is also known that patients with depression have a greater likelihood of having a food intake that is low in amount and of poor quality. However, the reverse relationship has also been demonstrated since in both cross-sectional and prospective studies, it has been seen that a diet having better quality is directly related with a lower risk and lower prevalence of depression,⁸ with an effect size that reveals clinical importance and not just a simple statistical significance.⁵

Up to now, treatments for depression (both pharmacological and psychotherapy) have been fairly efficient, although a subgroup of patients does not completely improve their symptoms and the functional remission is also not complete in a percentage of them. Thus, the nutrition approach in these patients would be a recommendable option.⁹ For example, the remission rates with the use of a single first line antidepressant are 30 to 40% and it has been observed that use of coadjuvant therapies improves remission rates of depression. Currently, there is scientific evidence that supports the use of certain nutritional supplements (nutraceuticals) as coadjuvant therapy for depression.¹⁰

In 2015, the "International Society for Nutritional Psychiatry Research" defined those nutrients as important for prevention or management of certain mental conditions, among them depression.¹⁰ Standing out among these nutrients are omega 3 fatty acids, group B vitamins, s-adenosylmethionine (SAME), tryptophan, magnesium, zinc and probiotics.

OMEGA-3 FATTY ACIDS

Omega-3 fatty acids (ω -3) are essential components of the cell membranes, the most representative ones being eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) and docosahexaenoic acid (DHA). DHA is the most abundant ω -3 in the brain since it

accounts for 10-20% of all the fatty acids of its composition. The ω -3, characterized for having a double bond in position 3 of its molecule, has been shown to have certain antiinflammatory activity, on the contrary to the ω -6 that are precursors of proinflammatory eicosanoids, such as prostaglandins and thromboxanes. It has been found that adequate nutritional support of ω -3 favors the cell membranes fluidity, which influences the correct functioning of the neurotransmission.¹¹ In fact, it has been verified that societies with elevated consumption of ω -3 have a lower incidence and prevalence of depression.¹²

DHA is associated with the stability of the neuronal membrane and with the functioning of the dopaminergic and serotonergic neurotransmission, which would connect it with its possible role in depressive symptoms. On the contrary, EPA has great importance in balancing neuronal and immune functioning since it antagonizes the arachidonic acid of the membrane and reduces prostaglandin E_2 synthesis (PGE_2).¹¹ This antagonism of PGE_2 leads to the reduction of the synthesis of the P-Glycoprotein that is involved in the resistance to antidepressant treatment, an antidepressive action mechanism that EPA shares with the amitriptyline, for example. Another possible action mechanism of ω -3 in depression is the regulation of the calcium flow through the calcium channels, which also stabilizes and provides fluidity to the cell membranes.¹³

Both EPA and DHA must be supplied to the individual externally through diet or nutritional supplements although, in general, the intake of ω -3 in the Western societies has drastically decreased in the last century, while the intake of ω -6 has increased, this increasing the ω -6/ ω -3 ratio, resulting in a proinflammatory condition. Evidence indicates that a supplement with ω -3 could be an antidepressant treatment option¹⁴ perhaps because of its capacity to offset the effect of the eicosanoids derived from a high intake of ω -6 and inhibit the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines, resulting in a decrease of the release of cortisol by the adrenal gland, affecting as well as the mood changes associated with the cortisol levels.¹³

In fact, an abnormal composition of fatty acids in the cell membranes has been found in patients with major depression, postpartum depression, bipolar disorder or anxiety disorders and the intake of polyunsaturated fats is increasingly considered as a physiological determinant of an optimum mental health.¹⁵ There is a Cochrane review on the use of ω -3 for the treatment of depression in adults. It summarizes that those studies that evaluate the effect of the ω -3 compared to the placebo show a mild to moderate benefit of ω -3 in the improvement of the depressive symptoms measured through the 17-item HDRS scale (difference of means: -0.32, CI 95%: -0.12,-0.52).¹⁶ Rates of remission and response, quality of life and drop-out rates

were similar in both groups. When they were compared against antidepressant drugs, the differences were not significant,^{12,16} so that their efficacy would be comparable. The review also concluded that the scientific evidence reviewed had a low and very low quality, so that more studies on this with better methodological quality are needed.

The not very strong results described up to date may be due to the different combinations and doses of ω -3 used up to date. In the work published in 2013, the efficacy of DHA versus EPA and placebo in the treatment of depression as adjuvant therapy was compared and the authors described a greater reduction in the score on the HDRS-17 items scale in the patients who took EPA.¹⁷

GROUP B VITAMINS

The evidence suggests that folate deficiency is causally related with the depressive symptoms since said molecules play an important role in the methylation processes and in the synthesis of neurotransmitter in the CNS. Furthermore, depressed patients with low levels of folates have a lower likelihood of responding to antidepressant treatment, greater likelihood of relapse¹⁸ and worse cognitive performance.¹⁹ On the contrary, an adequate intake of folates has been shown to be a protector against the development of depressive symptoms.²⁰

There are currently three commercial folate formulations available for their possible concomitant use with antidepressant therapy: 1) folic acid, 2) folinic acid, 3) L-methylfolate. Both folic acid and folinic acid need the methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) that converts them into L-methylfolate that is the active form capable of crossing the blood-brain barrier (BBB)²¹ and capable of activating the enzyme that synthesizes dopamine, norepinephrine and serotonin.¹⁹ The three presentations available are well tolerated and have shown mild to moderate efficacy as adjuvants to the antidepressant treatment, benefiting both patients with low levels of folates and those with normal levels from them.

It must be kept in mind that in some patients, deficiency of L-methylfolate is due to a genetic deficiency that prevents the correct synthesis of MTHFR so that the external supply of folates should be directly in form of L-methylfolate.²¹

It has been observed that patients having low folate levels in blood have a mean longer time for improvement of the depression than the normofolateemic (3.5 versus 5 weeks; $p < 0.001$). The relapse rates are also associated with low folate levels in blood (42.9% in low folate levels versus 3.2 in normal folate levels.²²

A greater increase in the blood levels of folates during antidepressive treatment significantly correlates with a greater decrease in the Hamilton depression scale score. Furthermore, a greater concentration of folate in blood is observed after the treatment in responding than in non-responding patients.^{23,24}

Folates below 13.6 nmol/liter of blood are considered low levels. Folate deficiency increases the levels of homocysteine (Hcys) and decreases SAME, which implies a reduction of the methylation capacity, which finally alters neurotransmitter synthesis.²⁵ Furthermore, this deficit alters the synthesis of a cofactor, as BH₄, which in turn activates the tryptophan hydroxylase and tyrosinase hydroxylase enzymes, necessary for the synthesis of 3 very important monoamines in mood regulation, as are serotonin, dopamine and norepinephrine.¹⁸

It has also been described that the high levels of Hcys are significantly related with the presence of depressive symptoms.²⁶⁻²⁸

In regards to intervention trials with:

- Folic acid or folinic acid. The duration of the trials carried out at present varies from 6 to 52 weeks. None of the studies includes patients with low levels of folates in blood. In general, it has been observed that the dose-dependent response and the patients have null or low incidence of adverse effects.
- L-methylfolate. In the studies L-methylfolate was used in periods between 4 weeks and 6 months, both a potentiation therapy and monotherapy. Significant adverse events did not appear in any case. In general, the results were favorable for L-methylfolate in both monotherapy and adjuvant therapy compared to placebo in terms of higher response to treatment and lower response time.¹⁹ L-methylfolate seems to significantly decrease depressive symptoms, even in patients resistant to SSRI and in those with more serious symptoms at baseline.²⁹

The advantages of the use of L-methylfolate versus folic or folinic acid are that:

- It has a seven times greater bioavailability
- It obtains a level in CSF that is three times greater than the levels in blood due to its capacity to cross over the BBB.
- It reduces in a more effective way the levels of Hcys.
- It does not mask the anemia due to lack of vitamin B12
- It has a lower likelihood of causes a decrease in the "Natural Killer" cells

- It has a lower likelihood of causing the cancerogenic cells to proliferate in the colon, which has been described in supplements with folic acid.²¹

The daily dose of L-methylfolate recommended as an antidepressant therapy supplement is 15 mg. The use of this strategy has shown results similar to other potentiation strategies such as the use of lithium or antipsychotics and is well tolerated by the patients.

It must be kept in mind that a supplement with folic acid can mask a vitamin B12 deficiency so that special care must be taken in patients with anemia.

S-ADENOSYL METHIONINE

L-methylfolate and S-Adenosyl methionine (SAME) are found to be involved in a common metabolic pathway that is the *methylation cycle or carbon-1*. In fact, L-methylfolate is an intermediate molecule in the conversion of folic acid to SAME, a molecule that finally serves as a donor of methyl groups required in different processes (methylation of DNA, of phospholipids, of RNA, synthesis of neurotransmitters, etc.) essential for cell metabolism. Specifically, the L-methylfolate bonds to Hcys to form methionine that is metabolized to SAME. It has been verified that patients with depression have low levels of SAME in the CSF.

In addition to those described in the previous paragraph, another hypothesis that could explain the possible antidepressant effect of the folates and SAME is based on that fact that through the methylation of the plasma phospholipids, SAME can alter the neuronal membrane fluidity, which would affect the functionality of certain membrane proteins, including the monoamine receptors and transporters.³⁰

At present, the use of SAME has been evaluated both by parenteral pathway at a dose of 150-400 mg/day, as by oral pathway at a dose of 1600 mg/day, with studies that are not inferior compared to 150 mg of imipramine.³¹

There is a study in which it has been seen that SAME administered as adjuvant to escitalopram compared with placebo shows greater antidepressant efficacy but only in the case of male patients.³² There are no conclusive studies comparing SAME with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI) antidepressants that are the antidepressants used most at present.

In regards to the tolerability and safety of SAME it is well-tolerated in general but cases of increase of anxiety symptoms and possible masking of manic and hypomanic symptoms in patients with bipolar depression have been described.³³

A Cochrane review on the use of SAME in depressed adults found that its effect is not greater than the placebo and concludes that given the absence of high quality evidence at present, firm conclusions based on said evidence cannot be obtained. Thus, the review recommends that the use of SAME in depression should be investigated further, including antidepressant comparators of all the available pharmacological groups.³⁴ Furthermore, it recommends paying special attention to the possible induction of mania.

TRYPTOPHAN

Tryptophan and tyrosine are two important amino acids for mood and emotional regulation since they are precursors of serotonin (tryptophan) and dopamine, epinephrine and norepinephrine (tyrosine), respectively. The main difference between them is that tryptophan is essential and should be supplied externally while tyrosine can be synthesized in the body from phenylalanine.³⁵

According to the monoamine hypothesis of depression, a depletion of these amino acids could lead to insufficient synthesis of neurotransmitters and with this to a depressive mood state.³⁶

The daily intake of tryptophan recommended by the WHO is 4 mg/kg. Furthermore, it is important to know that entry of tryptophan into the brain depends on the amount of free tryptophan in blood and on the concentration of other amino acids that compete with tryptophan for the transporter that they use for passage of the BBB. The enzyme that catalyzes the passage of tryptophan to 5-hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) (tryptophan hydroxylase) can be inhibited by different factors such as stress, insulin resistance, vitamin B6 deficiency or magnesium deficit.³⁷ After, the 5-HTP is decarbonized to form serotonin (or 5-hydroxytryptophan or 5-HT) that once released into the synaptic cleft will affect brain functioning and the behaviors associated with the serotonergic system.

The shortage of tryptophan to initiate this pathway may be due to an insufficient intake or activation of the IDO enzyme (indolamine-2,3-dioxygenase) that degrades tryptophan to kynurenine. This enzyme can be activated by certain proinflammatory cytokines or by treatment with corticosteroids. In effect, it has been verified that treatment with cytokines is often accompanied by depressive symptoms.³⁸

In general, patients with depression have tryptophan deficits in relationship to healthy subjects,^{39,40} although other authors have found normal levels in depressed patients.⁴¹ The evidence points to the existence of lower levels of tryptophan in blood of patients with melancholic or psychotic depression than those who do not have this type

of depression, suggesting different endophenotypes of the disease.

There are authors who state that the proportion of tryptophan compared to other amino acids that compete for the same transporter, which would be a good predictor of the response to treatment with tryptophan, is more important than the blood concentration of tryptophan.⁴²

In regards to intervention studies with tryptophan in depression, we could state that in a review of 111 works in this regards, only two of them met the quality criteria required to be included. These were: a) be randomized, b) include patients with unipolar depression or dysthymia, c) compare preparations of tryptophan or 5-HTP versus the placebo and d) that the clinical results were evaluated by scales.⁴³ In both studies, the preparations of tryptophan or 5-HTP showed superiority to the placebo in the relief of depressive symptoms, although the level of evidence is low.

Although a favorable profile of side effects has been shown, it is important to keep in mind the possibility that a serotonergic syndrome can be precipitated in the patient if the tryptophen (or 5-HTP) is administered together with other serotonergic agonists such as the SSRI. It seems that if the dose of tryptophan does not exceed 50 mg/kg there is no risk of said syndrome in the concomitant administration with SSRI.³⁷

MAGNESIUM

Magnesium is a mineral that acts as a cofactor in multiple enzyme reactions so that it is involved in the correct functioning of the cardiovascular, endocrine, osteoarticular, nervous systems, among others. On the level of the nervous system, magnesium affects different biochemical processes and the correct fluidity of the neuronal membrane. In fact, magnesium deficiency gives rise to multiple psychiatric and neuromuscular manifestations such as agitation, tetany, seizures, headache, anxiety, insomnia, tiredness, depression, etc.⁴⁴ Experimentally, it has been seen that magnesium deficiency causes behaviors consistent with depression and an inverse relationship has been seen between magnesium intake in the diet and depressive symptoms.⁴⁵

A magnesium deficit can be due to an inadequate intake but also to poor intestinal absorption or to an excess of loss through the kidneys. It has even been postulated that the passage of large amounts of magnesium (together with other micronutrients) from the mother's blood to the fetus could contribute to the development of post-partum depression.⁴⁶ Furthermore, sustained depletion of magnesium is associated with activation of inflammatory processes which worsens the depressive symptoms.^{47,48}

A significant decrease in magnesium blood levels has been demonstrated in patients with depression, which correlates with the intensity of the clinical symptoms measured with the Hamilton Rating scale for depression.⁴⁹ Similar results are obtained when analyzing the levels of magnesium in cerebrospinal fluid.⁵⁰ It is believed that the depressive states that frequently occur in alcoholic patients are due to the increase of urinary excretion and deficient intestinal absorption of magnesium caused by the ethanol.⁵¹

In regards to the antidepressive effect of the use of magnesium supplements, it seems that said mineral modulates the NMDA receptor activity of glutamate.⁵² Indeed, given the limitations of the monoaminergic hypothesis of depression and the low rates of remission with conventional antidepressants, the glutamatergic hypothesis has been gaining strength in recent years.^{53,54} In addition, it has been seen that magnesium interacts with the hypothalamic-pituitary adrenal (HPA) axis, whose function is generally altered in depressed patients.⁵⁵

In addition, lack of magnesium makes it possible for the calcium and sodium ions to move into the postsynaptic neuron and for the potassium ions to move out, which causes a larger amounts of reactive species of oxidative and nitrosative stress to be produced with the consequent neuronal damage.⁴⁴

Favorable results in animal models of depression⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸ gave rise to the study of the clinical applicability of magnesium in the treatment of depression. However, the reality is that few and not very promising quality studies have been performed with magnesium in depression. There is a randomized study in pregnant women that did not find that supplementation with magnesium or zinc decreases anxious-depressive symptoms after giving birth.⁵⁹

The daily recommended intake of magnesium is 300 mg but if this is associated with antidepressants, it would be somewhat less since it seems that part of the effect of the antidepressive drugs is that it causes an increase of plasma levels of magnesium.

ZINC

Zinc is one of the most abundant trace elements in the body and is essential in multiple metabolic processes since it acts as a cofactor of up to 300 enzymes,⁶⁰ many of them having an important role in the brain functioning.⁶¹ In regards to mental health, it has been seen that the zinc deficiency increases the levels of lipid peroxidation, affects cell survival⁶² and in general, influences brain homeostasis, leading to alterations in behavior, in learning processes and in depressive states.⁶³ Significantly lower blood levels of zinc have been found in depressed patients than in healthy

controls⁶⁴ which in turn correlate with the severity of the disease,⁶⁵ a fact also observed in patients with perinatal depression.⁶⁶

In fact, the benefit of supplementation with zinc to antidepressant treatment in animal models has been demonstrated.⁶⁷ However, although there are some positive studies with zinc supplements in patients with depression,⁶⁸ the evidence is still poor.

The relationship between zinc deficiency and depression is not totally known but there are several hypotheses in this regard. The first one involves the immune system since we know that zinc is necessary for hormonal regulation and of the cellular immune response, both involved in the physiopathology of depression,⁶³ since it is known that the activation of inflammatory processes is associated to depressive symptoms.^{48,69} In the second place, it has been seen that zinc deficiency activates the HPA (hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal) axis which in turn affects the mood state. The possible antidepressive effect of zinc (as with magnesium) would also be mediated by the activation on the NMDA receptor,⁷⁰ since significant alterations have been observed in the interaction between zinc and the NMDA receptor in post-mortem samples of suicide victims.⁷¹

The study conducted by Ranjbar et al., found that the use of 25 mg/day of zinc as therapy coadjuvant to treatment with SSRI significantly decreases the score on the BDRS scale at 12 weeks.⁷² Said study only included 38 patients randomized to two groups and was not duly replicated. As occurs in the case of magnesium, the scientific evidence is still not conclusive in relationship with the antidepressive efficacy of zinc as a coadjuvant therapy.

PROBIOTICS

One factor clearly influenced by nutrition that has been significantly related with depression is gut microbiota, which has encouraged the use of probiotics in the promotion of mental health (the so-called psychobiotics).⁷³⁻⁷⁵ An unhealthy diet has been observed to be related with altered microflora, greater gut permeability, low level systemic inflammation and alteration of BBB.⁷⁶ The important role played by intestinal flora in the bidirectional communication between the gut and brain has been described⁷⁷ and the scientific community is increasingly convinced that our gut plays an important role in our mental health.⁷⁸ In 2016, a metaanalysis was published that summarized the evidence of the relationship between probiotics and depression. Said work included 5 randomized clinical trials with a control group, one of which included non-depressed individuals.⁷⁹ The studies were heterogeneous in regards to the probiotic strains evaluated (*Lactobacillus Casei*, *Lactobacillus Aci-*

dophilus, *Lactobacillus Rhamnosus*, *Lactobacillus Bulgarius*, *Lactobacillus Brevis*, *Lactobacillus Helveticus*, *Lactobacillus Salivarius*, *Lactobacillus Pentosus*, *Lactococcus Lactis*, *Bifidobacterium Breve*, *Bifidobacterium longum*, *Bifidobacterium bifidum*, *Bifidobacterium Lactis*, *Bifidobacterium infantis* and *Streptococcus Thermophilus*), dose and duration of the intervention and type of scale used to measure the depressive symptoms. The metaanalysis found that the use of probiotics reduced the risk of depression in healthy subjects (difference of means=-0.30, p=0.005) and the depressive symptoms in depressed subjects (difference of means=-0.73, p=0.03) but only in the under 60 year old age group.

CONCLUSIONS

The evidence available at present supports the recommendation of some of the nutritional supplements for the prevention of depressive symptoms in healthy subjects, treatment in monotherapy of mild depressive symptoms and associated to antidepressants in major depressive disorder. The greatest experience is with ω -3 fatty acids. However, the level of evidence is scarce and thus both preclinical and clinical studies need to be performed that go deeper into the study of how nutritional supplements interact with the antidepressive medication.

On the other hand, it would be recommendable to perform prior blood work on the patient to evaluate possible deficiencies in the micronutrients to be supplemented.

In a future time, it would be interesting to perform studies that identify biomarkers of clinical results for the use of nutritional supplements in depression.

In regards to the use of probiotics, more studies are needed that support their efficacy and that make it possible to determine the adequate composition of species and strains in the supplement to be used, and the time that treatment with probiotics should be maintained. It would be advisable for said studies to keep in mind the diet of the patients since this noticeably affects the composition and diversity of the gut flora.

REFERENCES

1. Vigo D, Thornicroft G, Atun R. Estimating the true global burden of mental illness. *Lancet Psychiatry*. 2016 Feb;3(2):171-8.
2. Lecrubier Y. The burden of depression and anxiety in general medicine. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2001;62(Suppl 8):4-9-11.
3. Haro JM, Palacín C, Vilagut G, Martínez M, Bernal M, Luque I, et al. Prevalence of mental disorders and associated factors: results from the ESEMeD-Spain study. *Med Clin (Barc)*. 2006 Apr 1;126(12):445-51.
4. Rosenbloom JI, Kaluski DN, Berry EM. A global nutritional index. *Food Nutr Bull*. 2008 Dec;29(4):266-77.

5. Logan AC, Jacka FN. Nutritional psychiatry research: an emerging discipline and its intersection with global urbanization, environmental challenges and the evolutionary mismatch. *J Physiol Anthropol.* 2014 Jul 24;33:22.
6. El-Chichakli B, von Braun J, Lang C, Barben D, Philp J. Policy: Five cornerstones of a global bioeconomy. *Nature.* 2016 14; 535(7611):221–3.
7. Sarris J, Logan AC, Akbaraly TN, Amminger GP, Balanzá-Martínez V, Freeman MP, et al. Nutritional medicine as mainstream in psychiatry. *Lancet Psychiatry.* 2015 Mar;2(3):271–4.
8. Jacka FN, Cherbuin N, Anstey KJ, Butterworth P. Does reverse causality explain the relationship between diet and depression? *J Affect Disord.* 2015 Apr 1;175:248–50.
9. Opie RS, Itsiopoulos C, Parletta N, Sanchez-Villegas A, Akbaraly TN, Ruusunen A, et al. Dietary recommendations for the prevention of depression. *Nutr Neurosci.* 2017 Apr;20(3):161–71.
10. Sarris J, Logan AC, Akbaraly TN, Paul Amminger G, Balanzá-Martínez V, Freeman MP, et al. International Society for Nutritional Psychiatry Research consensus position statement: nutritional medicine in modern psychiatry. *World Psychiatry.* 2015 Oct;14(3):370–1.
11. Bloch MH, Hannestad J. Omega-3 fatty acids for the treatment of depression: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Mol Psychiatry.* 2012 Dec;17(12):1272–82.
12. Lin P-Y, Huang S-Y, Su K-P. A meta-analytic review of polyunsaturated fatty acid compositions in patients with depression. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2010 Jul 15;68(2):140–7.
13. Mischoulon D, Freeman MP. Omega-3 fatty acids in psychiatry. *Psychiatr Clin North Am.* 2013 Mar;36(1):15–23.
14. Deacon G, Kettle C, Hayes D, Dennis C, Tucci J. Omega 3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and the treatment of depression. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr.* 2017 Jan 2;57(1):212–23.
15. Sublette ME, Ellis SP, Geant AL, Mann JJ. Meta-analysis of the effects of eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) in clinical trials in depression. *J Clin Psychiatry.* 2011 Dec;72(12):1577–84.
16. Appleton KM, Sallis HM, Perry R, Ness AR, Churchill R. Omega-3 fatty acids for depression in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2015 Nov 5;(11):CD004692.
17. Mozaffari-Khosravi H, Yassini-Ardakani M, Karamati M, Shariati-Bafghi S-E. Eicosapentaenoic acid versus docosahexaenoic acid in mild-to-moderate depression: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol.* 2013 Jul; 23(7):636–44.
18. Papakostas GI, Shelton RC, Zajecka JM, Etamad B, Rickels K, Clain A, et al. L-methylfolate as adjunctive therapy for SSRI-resistant major depression: results of two randomized, double-blind, parallel-sequential trials. *Am J Psychiatry.* 2012 Dec;169(12):1267–74.
19. Fava M, Mischoulon D. Folate in depression: efficacy, safety, differences in formulations, and clinical issues. *J Clin Psychiatry.* 2009;70(Suppl 5):12–7.
20. Zhao G, Ford ES, Li C, Greenlund KJ, Croft JB, Balluz LS. Use of folic acid and vitamin supplementation among adults with depression and anxiety: a cross-sectional, population-based survey. *Nutr J.* 2011 Sep 30;10:102.
21. Owen RT. Folate augmentation of antidepressant response. *Drugs Today (Barc).* 2013 Dec;49(12):791–8.
22. Papakostas GI, Petersen T, Mischoulon D, Green CH, Nierenberg AA, Bottiglieri T, et al. Serum folate, vitamin B12, and homocysteine in major depressive disorder, Part 2: predictors of relapse during the continuation phase of pharmacotherapy. *J Clin Psychiatry.* 2004 Aug;65(8):1096–8.
23. Wesson VA, Levitt AJ, Joffe RT. Change in folate status with antidepressant treatment. *Psychiatry Res.* 1994 Sep;53(3):313–22.
24. Levitt AJ, Wesson VA, Joffe RT. Impact of suppression of thyroxine on folate status during acute antidepressant therapy. *Psychiatry Res.* 1998 Jun 15;79(2):123–9.
25. Morris DW, Trivedi MH, Rush AJ. Folate and unipolar depression. *J Altern Complement Med N Y N.* 2008 Apr;14(3):277–85.
26. Bjelland I, Tell GS, Vollset SE, Refsum H, Ueland PM. Folate, vitamin B12, homocysteine, and the MTHFR 677C->T polymorphism in anxiety and depression: the Hordaland Homocysteine Study. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 2003 Jun;60(6):618–26.
27. Tiemeier H, van Tuijl HR, Hofman A, Meijer J, Kiliaan AJ, Breteler MMB. Vitamin B12, folate, and homocysteine in depression: the Rotterdam Study. *Am J Psychiatry.* 2002 Dec;159(12):2099–101.
28. Bottiglieri T, Laundy M, Crellin R, Toone BK, Carney MW, Reynolds EH. Homocysteine, folate, methylation, and monoamine metabolism in depression. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry.* 2000 Aug;69(2):228–32.
29. Shelton RC, Sloan Manning J, Barrentine LW, Tipa EV. Assessing Effects of L-Methylfolate in Depression Management: Results of a Real-World Patient Experience Trial. *Prim Care Companion CNS Disord.* 2013;15(4).
30. Papakostas GI, Cassiello CF, Iovieno N. Foliates and S-adenosylmethionine for major depressive disorder. *Can J Psychiatry.* 2012 Jul;57(7):406–13.
31. Delle Chiaie R, Pancheri P, Scapicchio P. Efficacy and tolerability of oral and intramuscular S-adenosyl-L-methionine 1,4-butanedisulfonate (SAME) in the treatment of major depression: comparison with imipramine in 2 multicenter studies. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2002 Nov;76(5):1172S–6S.
32. Sarris J, Price LH, Carpenter LL, Tyrka AR, Ng CH, Papakostas GI, et al. Is S-Adenosyl Methionine (SAME) for Depression Only Effective in Males? A Re-Analysis of Data from a Randomized Clinical Trial. *Pharmacopsychiatry.* 2015 Jul;48(4–5):141–4.
33. Carney MW, Chary TK, Bottiglieri T, Reynolds EH. The switch mechanism and the bipolar/unipolar dichotomy. *Br J Psychiatry J Ment Sci.* 1989 Jan;154:48–51.
34. Galizia I, Oldani L, Macritchie K, Amari E, Dougall D, Jones TN, et al. S-adenosyl methionine (SAME) for depression in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2016 Oct 10;10:CD011286.
35. Parker G, Brotchie H. Mood effects of the amino acids tryptophan and tyrosine: "Food for Thought" III. *Acta Psychiatr Scand.* 2011 Dec;124(6):417–26.
36. Meyers S. Use of neurotransmitter precursors for treatment of depression. *Altern Med Rev J Clin Ther.* 2000 Feb;5(1):64–71.
37. Turner EH, Loftis JM, Blackwell AD. Serotonin a la carte: supplementation with the serotonin precursor 5-hydroxytryptophan. *Pharmacol Ther.* 2006 Mar;109(3):325–38.
38. Hoyo-Becerra C, Schlaak JF, Hermann DM. Insights from interferon- α -related depression for the pathogenesis of depression associated with inflammation. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2014 Nov;42:222–31.
39. Maes M, De Ruyter M, Hobin P, Suy E. Relationship between the dexamethasone suppression test and the L-tryptophan/competing amino acids ratio in depression. *Psychiatry Res.* 1987 Aug;21(4):323–35.
40. Cowen PJ, Parry-Billings M, Newsholme EA. Decreased plasma tryptophan levels in major depression. *J Affect Disord.* 1989 Feb; 16(1):27–31.
41. Møller SE, Kirk L, Honoré P. Free and total plasma tryptophan in endogenous depression. *J Affect Disord.* 1979 Mar;1(1):69–76.
42. Møller SE, Kirk L, Honoré P. Relationship between plasma ratio of tryptophan to competing amino acids and the response to L-tryptophan treatment in endogenously depressed patients. *J Affect Disord.* 1980 Mar;2(1):47–59.
43. Shaw K, Turner J, Del Mar C. Tryptophan and 5-hydroxytryptophan for depression. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2002;(1):CD003198.
44. Serefko A, Szopa A, Wlaź P, Nowak G, Radziwoń-Zaleska M,

- Skalski M, et al. Magnesium in depression. *Pharmacol Rep PR*. 2013;65(3):547–54.
45. Jacka FN, Overland S, Stewart R, Tell GS, Bjelland I, Mykletun A. Association between magnesium intake and depression and anxiety in community-dwelling adults: the Hordaland Health Study. *Aust N Z J Psychiatry*. 2009 Jan;43(1):45–52.
46. Eby GA, Eby KL. Rapid recovery from major depression using magnesium treatment. *Med Hypotheses*. 2006;67(2):362–70.
47. Weglicki WB. Hypomagnesemia and inflammation: clinical and basic aspects. *Annu Rev Nutr*. 2012 Aug 21;32:55–71.
48. Martínez-Cengotitabengoa M, Carrascón L, O'Brien JT, Díaz-Gutiérrez M-J, Bermúdez-Ampudia C, Sanada K, et al. Peripheral Inflammatory Parameters in Late-Life Depression: A Systematic Review. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2016 Dec 2;17(12).
49. Nechifor M. Magnesium in major depression. *Magnes Res*. 2009 Sep;22(3):163S–166S.
50. Banki CM, Vojnik M, Papp Z, Balla KZ, Arató M. Cerebrospinal fluid magnesium and calcium related to amine metabolites, diagnosis, and suicide attempts. *Biol Psychiatry*. 1985 Feb;20(2):163–71.
51. Nakamura MM, Overall JE, Hollister LE, Radcliffe E. Factors affecting outcome of depressive symptoms in alcoholics. *Alcohol Clin Exp Res*. 1983;7(2):188–93.
52. Razmjou S, Litteljohn D, Rudyk C, Syed S, Clarke M, Pentz R, et al. The interactive effects of ketamine and magnesium upon depressive-like pathology. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat*. 2016; 12:2049–56.
53. Wang J, Jing L, Toledo-Salas J-C, Xu L. Rapid-onset antidepressant efficacy of glutamatergic system modulators: the neural plasticity hypothesis of depression. *Neurosci Bull*. 2015 Feb;31(1):75–86.
54. Murck H. Ketamine, magnesium and major depression—from pharmacology to pathophysiology and back. *J Psychiatr Res*. 2013 Jul;47(7):955–65.
55. Sartori SB, Whittle N, Hetzenauer A, Singewald N. Magnesium deficiency induces anxiety and HPA axis dysregulation: modulation by therapeutic drug treatment. *Neuropharmacology*. 2012 Jan;62(1):304–12.
56. Cardoso CC, Lobato KR, Binfaré RW, Ferreira PK, Rosa AO, Santos ARS, et al. Evidence for the involvement of the monoaminergic system in the antidepressant-like effect of magnesium. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*. 2009 Mar 17;33(2):235–42.
57. Decollogne S, Tomas A, Lecerf C, Adamowicz E, Seman M. NMDA receptor complex blockade by oral administration of magnesium: comparison with MK-801. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*. 1997 Sep;58(1):261–8.
58. Fromm L, Heath DL, Vink R, Nimmo AJ. Magnesium attenuates post-traumatic depression/anxiety following diffuse traumatic brain injury in rats. *J Am Coll Nutr*. 2004 Oct;23(5):529S–533S.
59. Fard FE, Mirghafourvand M, Mohammad-Alizadeh Charandabi S, Farshbaf-Khalili A, Javadzadeh Y, Asgharian H. Effects of zinc and magnesium supplements on postpartum depression and anxiety: A randomized controlled clinical trial. *Women Health*. 2016 Sep 12;1–14.
60. Rink L, Gabriel P. Zinc and the immune system. *Proc Nutr Soc*. 2000 Nov;59(4):541–52.
61. Frederickson CJ, Koh J-Y, Bush AI. The neurobiology of zinc in health and disease. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2005 Jun;6(6):449–62.
62. Stefanidou M, Maravelias C, Dona A, Spiliopoulou C. Zinc: a multipurpose trace element. *Arch Toxicol*. 2006 Jan;80(1):1–9.
63. Chasapis CT, Loutsidou AC, Spiliopoulou CA, Stefanidou ME. Zinc and human health: an update. *Arch Toxicol*. 2012 Apr;86(4):521–34.
64. Szewczyk B, Poleszak E, Sowa-Kućma M, Siwek M, Dudek D, Ryszevska-Pokrańiewicz B, et al. Antidepressant activity of zinc and magnesium in view of the current hypotheses of antidepressant action. *Pharmacol Rep PR*. 2008 Oct;60(5):588–9.
65. Maes M, D'Haese PC, Scharpé S, D'Hondt P, Cosyns P, De Broe ME. Hypozincemia in depression. *J Affect Disord*. 1994 Jun;31(2):135–40.
66. Wójcik J, Dudek D, Schlegel-Zawadzka M, Grabowska M, Marcinek A, Florek E, et al. Antepartum/postpartum depressive symptoms and serum zinc and magnesium levels. *Pharmacol Rep PR*. 2006 Aug;58(4):571–6.
67. Whittle N, Lubec G, Singewald N. Zinc deficiency induces enhanced depression-like behaviour and altered limbic activation reversed by antidepressant treatment in mice. *Amino Acids*. 2009 Jan;36(1):147–58.
68. Nowak G, Siwek M, Dudek D, Zieba A, Pilc A. Effect of zinc supplementation on antidepressant therapy in unipolar depression: a preliminary placebo-controlled study. *Pol J Pharmacol*. 2003 Dec;55(6):1143–7.
69. Anisman H, Merali Z, Poulter MO, Hayley S. Cytokines as a precipitant of depressive illness: animal and human studies. *Curr Pharm Des*. 2005;11(8):963–72.
70. Pittenger C, Sanacora G, Krystal JH. The NMDA receptor as a therapeutic target in major depressive disorder. *CNS Neurol Disord Drug Targets*. 2007 Apr;6(2):101–15.
71. Nowak G, Szewczyk B, Sadlik K, Piekoszewski W, Trela F, Florek E, et al. Reduced potency of zinc to interact with NMDA receptors in hippocampal tissue of suicide victims. *Pol J Pharmacol*. 2003 Jun;55(3):455–9.
72. Ranjbar E, Kasaei MS, Mohammad-Shirazi M, Nasrollahzadeh J, Rashidkhani B, Shams J, et al. Effects of zinc supplementation in patients with major depression: a randomized clinical trial. *Iran J Psychiatry*. 2013 Jun;8(2):73–9.
73. Dinan TG, Stanton C, Cryan JF. Psychobiotics: a novel class of psychotropic. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2013 Nov 15;74(10):720–6.
74. Manook A, Hiergeist A, Rupprecht R, Baghai TC. Gut microbiome and major depressive disorder: The other side of ourselves. *Nervenarzt*. 2016 Nov;87(11):1227–40.
75. Sarkar A, Lehto SM, Harty S, Dinan TG, Cryan JF, Burnet PJW. Psychobiotics and the Manipulation of Bacteria-Gut-Brain Signals. *Trends Neurosci*. 2016 Nov;39(11):763–81.
76. Slyepchenko A, Maes M, Jacka FN, Köhler CA, Barichello T, McIntyre RS, et al. Gut Microbiota, Bacterial Translocation, and Interactions with Diet: Pathophysiological Links between Major Depressive Disorder and Non-Communicable Medical Comorbidities. *Psychother Psychosom*. 2017;86(1):31–46.
77. Dinan TG, Cryan JF. The Microbiome-Gut-Brain Axis in Health and Disease. *Gastroenterol Clin North Am*. 2017 Mar;46(1):77–89.
78. Schmidt C. Mental health: thinking from the gut. *Nature*. 2015 Feb 26;518(7540):S12–15.
79. Huang R, Wang K, Hu J. Effect of Probiotics on Depression: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *Nutrients*. 2016 Aug 6;8(8).