

The Impact of Emotional Eating Behavior on Psychological Health in Patients with Bulimia Nervosa and Corresponding Intervention Approaches

Anzhaer Aihemaiti¹, Xinwei Chen¹, Renchuan Zhu¹

1.Xinjiang Teacher's College, Urumchi, Xinjiang, China, 830043.

Funding: General-Category Research Grants under the 2024 Institutional Research Program of Xinjiang Teacher's College: "Research on the Classified Intervention Model of Mental Health for College Students in Xinjiang" (Project Number: XJJY202436)

Abstract

The excessive eating behavior in patients with Binge Eating Disorder (BED) is influenced by physiological, psychological, and personality factors, with emotional eating serving as a core mechanism. Studies indicate that negative emotions significantly increase the risk of binge eating, while impaired inhibitory control and dysregulation of the neural reward system are underlying mechanisms. Emerging evidence suggests that gut microbiota may exacerbate this cycle by modulating mood and feeding behavior via the gut-brain axis. Interventions should integrate psychological strategies (e.g., mindfulness) and physiological modulation (e.g., microbiota-based therapies).

Keywords: Binge Eating Disorder, Negative Emotion, Mindfulness, Microbiota, Gut-Brain Axis.

Introduction

The American Psychiatric Association (APA) defines Binge Eating Disorder (BED) as recurrent episodes of binge eating accompanied by marked distress, during which individuals experience a sense of loss of control and consume large amounts of food. Unlike bulimia nervosa, individuals with BED do not engage in recurrent inappropriate compensatory behaviors to prevent weight gain, such as self-induced vomiting, misuse of laxatives, or excessive exercise [1]. Additional features of BED include eating much more rapidly than usual, eating until uncomfortably full, eating large amounts of food when not physically hungry, eating alone due to embarrassment about the quantity consumed, and feelings of self-disgust, depression, guilt, or significant distress after binge episodes. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5), the binge eating must occur, on average, at least once per week for three months. Cases where all diagnostic criteria are met except that the binge episodes occur less

frequently than once per week or for a duration of less than three months are classified under Other Specified Feeding or Eating Disorder (OSFED).

A World Health Organization (WHO) survey across 14 countries estimated the worldwide prevalence of BED to be approximately 1.4%, with the typical age of onset around 23 years [2]. In China, a study of over 2,000 adolescents revealed that about 0.7% met the diagnostic criteria for BED [3]. In Western countries such as those in Europe and the United States, BED is the most prevalent eating disorder, with a lifetime prevalence of nearly 3% in the general population [4]. Notably, BED is increasingly observed among younger adults, particularly young adult women, university students, and highly educated individuals [2]. Although binge eating episodes occur at similar frequencies in males and females, men are less likely to experience significant distress related to the behavior, and therefore less frequently meet the full diagnostic criteria for BED [5].

Emotion can influence eating behavior, and eating can, in turn, affect emotion [6]. According to emotion regulation theory, negative emotions increase the motivation to eat, and eating subsequently reduces negative affect [7]. Thus, the excessive eating behavior in individuals with BED may stem from emotional dysregulation [8]. Such emotion-driven unhealthy eating behaviors often contribute to a range of health problems and may predispose individuals to various diseases [9]. Furthermore, changes in modern dietary habits—such as increased consumption of coffee, high-fat, and high-sugar foods—coupled with sedentary lifestyles associated with work pressure, can disrupt the gut microbiota, which in turn influences emotion and cognition [10]. Therefore, it is essential to understand the relationship between eating behavior and emotion in patients with BED and to develop interventions targeting the maladaptive cycle of eating and emotion.

1. Current Research on Emotion and Binge Eating Behavior

In numerous experiments investigating the relationship between emotion and eating, corresponding emotions are first induced in participants. Subsequently, their responses are measured by having them view images of high-calorie and high-sugar foods or by placing them in real eating environments to observe their choices. Metrics such as food intake and attentional bias are commonly used as outcome indicators [11].

From an evolutionary perspective, negative emotions convey signals of caution and the need for careful processing [12]. This is because negative emotions indicate that something may be wrong in the environment, prompting individuals to engage in more deliberate and rational thinking [13]. However, in the context of eating behavior, negative emotions often lead to impulsive overeating or even binge eating without thorough reflection [14].

In a study by Sproesser et al. [15], participants were assigned to scenarios involving social exclusion, neutral interaction, or social inclusion. They then underwent a sham taste test in which their intake of ice cream was measured. The results showed that participants in the social exclusion condition experienced more negative emotions and consumed significantly more ice cream than those in the other two groups.

It is noteworthy that overvaluation of weight and shape—an independent risk factor—is associated with pathological behaviors such as dietary restraint and weight preoccupation even among obese individuals without BED, potentially amplifying emotional eating tendencies [16]. Another social psychological study demonstrated that negative emotions induced by life events significantly increased the consumption of available chocolates and grapes [11]. A meta-analysis on the effects of positive and negative emotions on eating behavior also confirmed a causal relationship between negative emotions and increased food intake [17]. Collectively, these findings suggest that emotional eating is a core behavioral manifestation in patients with binge eating disorder [18].

2. The Relationship Between Emotion and Binge Eating Behavior and Its Underlying Mechanisms

As a clinical eating disorder, Binge Eating Disorder (BED) is closely associated with emotional states [19]. Some researchers suggest that individuals with BED engage in maladaptive eating behaviors as a means of regulating acute negative emotions [19]. However, such negative adaptive emotion regulation strategies—including excessive food intake—can lead to further systemic eating disturbances [20].

The perception of “deliciousness” varies among individuals. Fried foods, widely regarded as highly palatable across cultures, often evoke strong desires and impulses. These are typically modulated by robust inhibitory control mechanisms [21]. Thus, dysregulated eating may also stem from impaired inhibitory control [22][23]. According to self-control theory, individuals experiencing negative emotions are more prone to binge eating because such emotions disrupt long-term self-monitoring and positive goals (e.g., maintaining a healthy weight or promoting longevity), shifting behavior toward immediate gratification and short-term hedonic pursuits [24]. The transdiagnostic theory further posits that negative emotions weaken the capacity to restrict food intake, and binge eating is maintained through the alleviation of these negative emotional states [25].

A study using a food-related anti-saccade task to assess inhibitory control, conflict processing, and self-monitoring in BED patients (where food stimuli were randomly presented on either side with instructions to avoid looking toward them) found that individuals with BED performed

significantly worse on initial saccades compared to controls. Moreover, they exhibited stronger attentional bias toward food—particularly under negative emotional conditions—than toward non-food stimuli. These results suggest that negative emotion may be a key factor impairing inhibitory control in BED [26]. Neurobiological studies have also shown that cognitive conflicts (e.g., self-ideal discrepancy) and dichotomous thinking regarding weight (“fat/thin” extreme cognition) further undermine inhibitory control in BED patients [16].

Similar patterns are observed in bulimia nervosa (BN), where inhibitory control is directly influenced by emotion. An event-related potential (ERP) study compared BN patients under negative vs. neutral mood states while viewing high- and low-calorie food images. Subjective ratings of pleasure and appetite were also collected. The results indicated that BN patients in a negative mood reported stronger desires to eat and showed reduced P300 amplitudes in response to high-calorie foods, suggesting that negative emotion diminishes available cognitive resources and enhances eating motivation [27].

However, some researchers argue that excessive dietary restraint may heighten reactivity to food cues and other stimuli—including stress and negative emotions [28]. High cognitive restraint is common and plays a significant role even in childhood obesity [28][29].

Maladaptive eating behaviors in BED can also be interpreted through addiction-related theories, as both share overlapping regulatory mechanisms—such as attributing high reward value to palatable food cues [30]. Evidence indicates that highly palatable foods can induce dependency similar to substances of abuse. While drugs directly activate reward pathways via pharmacological actions, palatable foods operate through rapid sensory input, slower post-ingestive processes (e.g., elevated blood glucose), and gut-derived signaling feedback [18]. Such foods activate brain reward systems, triggering opioid and dopamine release and limbic signaling. Gut dysbiosis (e.g., reduced Akkermansia, increased Firmicutes) influences vagal nerve signaling via metabolites (e.g., SCFAs, KYNA), leading to hyperactivation of the nucleus accumbens (NAc) dopamine system and driving cravings for high-reward foods [31]. This establishes a powerful reinforcement loop for obtaining palatable foods [32].

Opioid release serves as a defense mechanism against stress and negative emotions [33]. It promotes intake of palatable foods, which in turn sustains opioid release [18]. Thus, eating becomes an effective coping strategy for negative emotions, forming a neurobiologically anchored adaptive addiction [34].

Animal studies support that negative emotional experiences heighten the sensitivity of reward circuits to physical stimuli [32]. For instance, distress impairs prefrontal behavioral control while increasing sensitivity to threat and reward cues [35]. Negative emotions (e.g., social defeat) modulate glucocorticoid release, which sensitizes the brain’s reward system to food and drugs, amplifying appetitive responses [36].

3. Intervention Approaches

Mindfulness is defined as a self-regulatory practice involving the conscious and sustained attention to present-moment internal or external experiences, characterized by an open, accepting, and non-judgmental attitude [37]. A growing body of research indicates that mindfulness plays a significant role in eating disorders [38]. A meta-analysis on mindfulness and eating disorders found a negative correlation between mindfulness levels and disordered eating behaviors [39].

Mindfulness Meditation Training (MMT) exerts beneficial effects on a range of outcomes through mechanisms including attentional regulation, emotion regulation (encompassing reappraisal, exposure, extinction, and reconsolidation), and enhanced executive functions such as inhibitory control [40]. Significant improvements have been observed in individuals with emotional binge eating following mindfulness-based interventions [41][42][43]. Clinical studies confirm that mindful eating, as an 8-week short-term intervention, can reduce the frequency of binge episodes (from 7 to 3 times per week), lower BMI, and improve emotional eating by enhancing satiety signaling and regulation [44]. However, long-term multidisciplinary support is essential to prevent weight regain, as mindfulness is closely linked to emotion regulation, and many patients with eating disorders lack adaptive emotional regulation skills [45]. Empirical evidence indicates that experiential avoidance mediates the relationship between negative emotions and emotional eating [46]. Mindfulness-based therapies can improve emotion regulation by reducing emotion-related avoidance [39].

Mindfulness training mitigates repetitive negative thinking and emotions associated with eating disorders [47]. Such repetitive negative thoughts include excessive focus on the present, past, or future [48]. Specifically, mindfulness training encourages sustained attention to present-moment experiences, thereby preventing over-engagement with internal thoughts [47]. Mindfulness interventions guide individuals to eat in response to physiological hunger and satiety cues rather than external or emotional triggers [39]. A notable advantage of mindfulness training is the maintenance of intervention effects for a considerable period after the program ends [49]. For example, participants in a combined mindfulness and cognitive behavioral therapy program showed a significant reduction in binge eating symptoms three months post-intervention [50].

The gut is the primary organ for digestion and absorption of nutrients. The communication between the gastrointestinal tract and brain functions such as cognition and emotion occurs via the brain-gut axis—a bidirectional signaling system [51]. Depression, an affective disorder, is characterized by core symptoms including predominant negative affect, diminished interest or pleasure, and reduced volitional behavior [52]. Depression, which represents a state of persistent negative emotion, has been associated with gut microbial dysbiosis [52]. For instance, one study found that alterations in gut microbiota due to magnesium-deficient diets may contribute to

depressive behaviors [51]. Both animal and clinical studies also indicate that anxiety is linked to commensal microbiota, and pathogenic infections can induce anxiety-like behaviors [53]. Chinna Meyyappan [54] conducted a review of 28 clinical studies involving psychiatric disorders and found that transplanting healthy microbiota into patients with mental disorders led to a reduction in depressive and anxiety symptoms, whereas transferring microbiota from patients with mental disorders to healthy subjects resulted in the transmission of depressive and anxiety symptoms. Exposure to stress alters the host's normal microbiota, triggering inflammatory responses, impairing nutrient absorption, and disrupting neurotransmitter metabolism, ultimately leading to neurological dysfunction and the emergence of depressive symptoms [55][56]. A case study during a 105-day closed-environment mission in Lunar Palace 1, which monitored three Chinese astronauts, demonstrated that specific microbial species differentially influenced positive and negative emotions [57].

These findings suggest that microbiota-based dietary interventions may aid in the treatment of psychiatric disorders, including binge eating disorder (BED) [58]. Restoring microbial balance can mitigate negative emotions via the gut-brain axis [58][59]. Targeting the "microbiota-gut-brain axis" represents an emerging therapeutic strategy: probiotics (e.g., *Bifidobacteria*) can modulate serotonin (5-HT) synthesis, improving mood and impulse control [31]; supplementation with kynurenic acid (KYNA) or restoration of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii* may suppress binge eating behavior [31]; fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT), already preliminarily effective in anorexia nervosa, holds potential for BED treatment [31].

A randomized controlled trial from Australia demonstrated that improving diet quality could effectively treat major depressive disorder. The results showed that the dietary intervention group (following a Mediterranean-style healthy diet) exhibited significantly greater reductions in depression scores over 12 weeks compared to the control group [52]. An earlier multinational survey found an inverse correlation between global fish consumption and the prevalence of depression [60]. Another study suggested that unsaturated fatty acids in fish oil may reduce the incidence of depression by increasing *Bifidobacterium* levels in the gut, thereby influencing the central nervous system via the gut-brain axis [61].

In a 2-month randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study, 39 patients with chronic fatigue syndrome were randomly assigned to receive either *Lactobacillus casei* or a placebo daily. Fecal samples were analyzed before and after the intervention, and the Beck Depression Inventory and Beck Anxiety Inventory were used to assess depressive and anxiety symptoms. The results indicated that the group receiving *Lactobacillus casei* showed a significant reduction in anxiety symptoms compared to the placebo group [62]. Benton et al. [63] proposed that consuming probiotic-fermented yogurt could improve mood in individuals with low mood.

Current pharmacological treatments for major depression in Europe and other regions often target the monoaminergic system, including serotonin (5-HT) [64]. *Bifidobacterium longum*, a

beneficial gut microbiota species, has been shown to increase plasma tryptophan levels, thereby influencing serotonin synthesis [55]. Collectively, these findings indicate that interventions through healthy diets or probiotic supplementation can help reduce anxiety, depression, and other negative emotions.

4. Conclusion

For patients with Binge Eating Disorder (BED), emotion and eating form a bidirectional, cyclical system. Therefore, interventions targeting dietary patterns or mindfulness training may help individuals maintain both physical and psychological health. Specifically, a Mediterranean-style healthy diet can reduce tendencies toward overeating by improving physical health, thereby supporting psychological well-being. Conversely, regulating negative emotions or cultivating positive emotions contributes to psychological health, which in turn promotes physical health.

Future research should aim to develop more detailed dietary intervention protocols and more systematic and comprehensive mindfulness-based paradigms—integrating mindful eating, microbiota modulation, and cognitive restructuring (e.g., reducing dichotomous thinking about body weight). Notably, there is a significant lack of psychotherapeutic research on BED in children and adolescents, underscoring the urgent need to develop non-weight-focused intervention strategies [65]. Such efforts will help advance and refine the understanding of the relationship between binge eating disorder and emotional regulation.

References

- [1] American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders: DSM-5. American Psychiatric Publishing; 2013. doi:10.1176/appi.books.9780890425596
- [2] Kessler RC, Berglund PA, Chiu WT, et al. The Prevalence and Correlates of Binge Eating Disorder in the World Health Organization World Mental Health Surveys. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2013;73(9):904-914. doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2012.11.020
- [3] Chen H, Jackson T. Prevalence and Sociodemographic Correlates of Eating Disorder Endorsements among Adolescents and Young Adults from China. *Eur Eat Disord Rev*. 2008;16(5):375-385. doi:10.1002/erv.837
- [4] Hudson JL, Hiripi E, Pope HG Jr, Kessler RC. The Prevalence and Correlates of Eating Disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2007;61(3):348-358. doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2006.03.040

- [5] Lewinsohn PM, Seeley JR, Moerk KC, Striegel-Moore RH. Gender Differences in Eating Disorder Symptoms in Young Adults. *Int J Eat Disord.* 2002;32(4):426-440. doi:10.1002/eat.10103
- [6] Czepczor-Bernat K, Brytek-Matera A. The Impact of Food-Related Behaviours and Emotional Functioning on Body Mass Index in an Adult Sample. *Eat Weight Disord.* 2021;26(1):323-329. doi:10.1007/s40519-020-00853-3
- [7] Macht M, Simons G. Emotional Eating. In: Nyklíček I, Vingerhoets A, Zeelenberg M, eds. *Emotion Regulation and Well-Being.* Springer; 2011:281-295. doi:10.1007/978-1-4419-6953-8_17
- [8] Racine SE, Wildes JE. Emotion Dysregulation and Symptoms of Anorexia Nervosa: The Unique Roles of Lack of Emotional Awareness and Impulse Control Difficulties When Upset. *Int J Eat Disord.* 2013;46(7):713-720. doi:10.1002/eat.22145
- [9] Prefit AB, Cîndea DM, Szentagotai-Tătar A. Emotion Regulation across Eating Pathology: A Meta-Analysis. *Appetite.* 2019;143:104438. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2019.104438
- [10] Konturek SJ, Konturek PC, Pawlik T, Brzozowski T. Brain-Gut Axis and Its Role in the Control of Food Intake. *J Physiol Pharmacol.* 2004;55(1 Pt 2):137-154.
- [11] Aguiar-Bloemer AC, Diez-Garcia RW. Influence of Emotions Evoked by Life Events on Food Choice. *Eat Weight Disord.* 2018;23(1):45-53. doi:10.1007/s40519-017-0468-8
- [12] Clore GL, Wyer RS Jr, Dienes B, Gasper K, Gohm C, Isbell L. Affective Feelings as Feedback: Some Cognitive Consequences. In: Martin LL, Clore GL, eds. *Theories of Mood and Cognition: A User's Guidebook.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers; 2001:27-62.
- [13] Holland RW, de Vries M, Hermesen B, van Knippenberg A. Mood and the Attitude-Behavior Link: The Happy Act on Impulse, the Sad Think Twice. *Soc Psychol Personal Sci.* 2012;3(3):356-364. doi:10.1177/1948550611421635
- [14] Williams-Kerver GA, Crowther JH. Emotion Differentiation and Disordered Eating Behaviors: The Role of Appearance Schemas. *Eat Behav.* 2020;37:101369. doi:10.1016/j.eatbeh.2020.101369
- [15] Sproesser G, Schupp HT, Renner B. The Bright Side of Stress-Induced Eating: Eating More When Stressed but Less When Pleased. *Psychol Sci.* 2014;25(1):58-65. doi:10.1177/0956797613494849
- [16] Escandón-Nagel N, Però-Cebollero M, Grau A, Soriano J, Feixas G. Overvaluation of weight and shape in obesity: a comparative study between people with and without binge eating disorder. *Front Psychol.* 2024;15:1414455.

- [17] Cardi V, Esposito M, Clarke A, Schifano S, Treasure J. The Impact of Induced Positive Mood on Symptomatic Behaviour in Eating Disorders. An Experimental, AB/BA Crossover Design Testing a Multimodal Presentation during a Test-Meal. *Appetite*. 2015;87:192-198. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2014.12.224
- [18] Spoor STP, Bekker MHJ, van Strien T, van Heck GL. Relations between Negative Affect, Coping, and Emotional Eating. *Appetite*. 2007;48(3):368-376. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2006.10.005
- [19] Brockmeyer T, Skunde M, Wu M, et al. Difficulties in Emotion Regulation across the Spectrum of Eating Disorders. *Compr Psychiatry*. 2014;55(3):565-571. doi:10.1016/j.comppsy.2013.12.001
- [20] Racine SE, Wildes JE. Emotion Dysregulation and Symptoms of Anorexia Nervosa: The Unique Roles of Lack of Emotional Awareness and Impulse Control Difficulties When Upset. *Int J Eat Disord*. 2013;46(7):713-720. doi:10.1002/eat.22145
- [21] Guerrieri R, Nederkoorn C, Schrooten M, Martijn C, Jansen A. Inducing Impulsivity Leads High and Low Restrained Eaters into Overeating, Whereas Current Dieters Stick to Their Diet. *Appetite*. 2009;53(1):93-100. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2009.05.013
- [22] Danner UN, Sternheim L, Evers C. The Importance of Distinguishing between the Different Eating Disorders (Sub)types When Assessing Emotion Regulation Strategies. *Psychiatry Res*. 2014;215(3):727-732. doi:10.1016/j.psychres.2014.01.005
- [23] Evers C, Dingemans A, Junghans AF, Boevé A. Feeling Bad or Feeling Good, Does Emotion Affect Your Consumption of Food? A Meta-Analysis of the Experimental Evidence. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*. 2018;92:195-208. doi:10.1016/j.neubiorev.2018.05.028
- [24] Seidel M, King JA, Ritschel F, et al. The Real-Life Costs of Emotion Regulation in Anorexia Nervosa: A Combined Ecological Momentary Assessment and fMRI Study. *Transl Psychiatry*. 2018;8(1):28. doi:10.1038/s41398-017-0004-7
- [25] Fairburn CG, Cooper Z, Shafran R. Cognitive Behaviour Therapy for Eating Disorders: A "Transdiagnostic" Theory and Treatment. *Behav Res Ther*. 2003;41(5):509-528. doi:10.1016/S0005-7967(02)00088-8
- [26] Leehr EJ, Schag K, Dresler T, et al. Food Specific Inhibitory Control under Negative Mood in Binge-Eating Disorder: Evidence from a Multimethod Approach. *Int J Eat Disord*. 2018;51(2):112-123. doi:10.1002/eat.22818
- [27] Lutz APC, Dierolf A, van Dyck Z, et al. Mood-Induced Changes in the Cortical Processing of Food Images in Bulimia Nervosa. *Addict Behav*. 2021;113:106712. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2020.106712

- [28] Wallis DJ, Hetherington MM. Stress and Eating: The Effects of Ego-Threat and Cognitive Demand on Food Intake in Restrained and Emotional Eaters. *Appetite*. 2004;43(1):39-46. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2004.02.001
- [29] Oliver G, Wardle J, Gibson EL. Stress and Food Choice: A Laboratory Study. *Psychosom Med*. 2000;62(6):853-865. doi:10.1097/00006842-200011000-00016
- [30] Loxton NJ, Tipman RJ. Reward Sensitivity and Food Addiction in Women. *Appetite*. 2017;115:28-35. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2016.10.022
- [31] Guo W, Xiong W. From gut microbiota to brain: implications on binge eating disorders. *Gut Microbes*. 2024;16(1):2357177.
- [32] Kelley AE, Bakshi VP, Fleming S, Holahan MR. A Pharmacological Analysis of the Substrates Underlying Conditioned Feeding Induced by Repeated Opioid Stimulation of the Nucleus Accumbens. *Neuropsychopharmacology*. 2000;23(4):455-467.
- [33] Drolet G, Dumont EC, Gosselin I, Kinkead R, Laforest S, Trottier JF. Role of Endogenous Opioid System in the Regulation of the Stress Response. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*. 2001;25(4):729-741. doi:10.1016/S0278-5846(01)00161-0
- [34] Volkow ND, Wise RA. How Can Drug Addiction Help Us Understand Obesity? *Nat Neurosci*. 2005;8(5):555-560. doi:10.1038/nn1452
- [35] Arnsten AFT, Raskind MA, Taylor FB, Connor DF. The Effects of Stress Exposure on Prefrontal Cortex: Translating Basic Research into Successful Treatments for Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder. *Neurobiol Stress*. 2015;1:89-99. doi:10.1016/j.ynstr.2014.10.002
- [36] Adam T, Epel E. Stress, Eating and the Reward System. *Physiol Behav*. 2007;91(4):449-458. doi:10.1016/j.physbeh.2007.04.011
- [37] Bishop SR, Lau M, Shapiro S, et al. Mindfulness: A Proposed Operational Definition. *Clin Psychol Sci Pract*. 2004;11(3):230-241. doi:10.1093/clipsy.bph077
- [38] Sagui-Henson SJ, Radin RM, Jhaveri K, et al. Negative Mood and Food Craving Strength among Women with Overweight: Implications for Targeting Mechanisms Using a Mindful Eating Intervention. *Mindfulness*. 2021;12(12):2997-3010. doi:10.1007/s12671-021-01760-z
- [39] Sala M, Brosio LC, Levinson CA. Repetitive Negative Thinking Predicts Eating Disorder Behaviors: A Pilot Ecological Momentary Assessment Study in a Treatment Seeking Eating Disorder Sample. *Behav Res Ther*. 2019;112:12-17. doi:10.1016/j.brat.2018.11.005
- [40] Gallant SN. Mindfulness Meditation Practice and Executive Functioning: Breaking down the Benefit. *Conscious Cogn*. 2016;40:116-130. doi:10.1016/j.concog.2016.01.005

- [41] Barnhart WR, Braden AL, Dial L. Understanding the Relationship between Negative Emotional Eating and Binge Eating: The Moderating Effects of Acting with Awareness and Non-Reactive Mindfulness. *J Clin Psychol*. 2021;77(8):1954-1972. doi:10.1002/jclp.23123
- [42] Juarascio A, Shaw J, Forman E, et al. Acceptance and Commitment Therapy as a Novel Treatment for Eating Disorders: An Initial Test of Efficacy and Mediation. *Behav Modif*. 2013;37(4):459-489. doi:10.1177/0145445513478633
- [43] Ruffault A, Carette C, Lurbe I, et al. Randomized Controlled Trial of a 12-Month Computerized Mindfulness-Based Intervention for Obese Patients with Binge Eating Disorder: The MindOb Study Protocol. *Contemp Clin Trials*. 2016;49:126-133. doi:10.1016/j.cct.2016.06.012
- [44] Minari TP, Araujo-Filho GM, Tacito LHB, et al. Effects of mindful eating in patients with obesity and binge eating disorder. *Nutrients*.
- [45] Oldershaw A, Lavender T, Sallis H, Stahl D, Schmidt U. Emotion Generation and Regulation in Anorexia Nervosa: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Self-Report Data. *Clin Psychol Rev*. 2015;39:83-95. doi:10.1016/j.cpr.2015.04.005
- [46] Litwin R, Goldbacher EM, Cardaciotto L, Gambrel LE. Negative Emotions and Emotional Eating: The Mediating Role of Experiential Avoidance. *Eat Weight Disord*. 2017;22(1):97-104. doi:10.1007/s40519-016-0301-9
- [47] Sala M, Ram SS, Vanzhula IA, Levinson CA. Mindfulness and Eating Disorder Psychopathology: A Meta-Analysis. *Int J Eat Disord*. 2020;53(6):834-851. doi:10.1002/eat.23247
- [48] Ehrling T, Watkins ER. Repetitive Negative Thinking as a Transdiagnostic Process. *Int J Cogn Ther*. 2008;1(3):192-205. doi:10.1521/ijct.2008.1.3.192
- [49] Kristeller JL, Wolever RQ, Sheets V. Mindfulness-Based Eating Awareness Training (MB-EAT) for Binge Eating: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *Mindfulness*. 2014;5(3):282-297. doi:10.1007/s12671-012-0179-1
- [50] Woolhouse H, Knowles A, Craft N. Adding Mindfulness to CBT Programs for Binge Eating: A Mixed-Methods Evaluation. *Eat Disord*. 2012;20(4):321-339. doi:10.1080/10640266.2012.691791
- [51] Jenkins T, Neveu J, Peuhkuri K, Bercik P. Influence of tryptophan and serotonin on mood and cognition with a possible role of the gut-brain axis. *Nutrients*. 2016;8(1):56. doi:10.3390/nu8010056
- [52] Dinan TG, et al. Feeding Melancholic Microbes: MyNewGut Recommendations on Diet and

Mood. Clin Nutr. 2019;38(5):1995-2001. doi:10.1016/j.clnu.2018.11.010

- [53] Messaoudi M, Violle N, Bisson JF, Desor D, Javelot H, Rougeot C. Beneficial Psychological Effects of a Probiotic Formulation (*Lactobacillus helveticus* R0052 and *Bifidobacterium longum* R0175) in Healthy Human Volunteers. Gut Microbes. 2011;2(4):256-261. doi:10.4161/gmic.2.4.16108
- [54] Chinna Meyyappan A, Forth E, Wallace CJK, Milev R. Effect of Fecal Microbiota Transplant on Symptoms of Psychiatric Disorders: A Systematic Review. BMC Psychiatry. 2020;20(1):299. doi:10.1186/s12888-020-02654-5
- [55] Desbonnet L, Garrett L, Clarke G, Bienenstock J, Dinan TG. The Probiotic *Bifidobacteria infantis*: An Assessment of Potential Antidepressant Properties in the Rat. J Psychiatr Res. 2008;43(2):164-174. doi:10.1016/j.jpsychires.2008.03.009
- [56] Logan AC, Katzman M. Major Depressive Disorder: Probiotics May Be an Adjuvant Therapy. Med Hypotheses. 2005;64(3):533-538. doi:10.1016/j.mehy.2004.08.019
- [57] Li L, Su Q, Xie B, et al. Gut Microbes in Correlation with Mood: Case Study in a Closed Experimental Human Life Support System. Neurogastroenterol Motil. 2016;28(8):1233-1240. doi:10.1111/nmo.12822
- [58] Burokas A, Arboleya S, Moloney RD, et al. Targeting the Microbiota-Gut-Brain Axis: Prebiotics Have Anxiolytic and Antidepressant-Like Effects and Reverse the Impact of Chronic Stress in Mice. Biol Psychiatry. 2017;82(7):472-487. doi:10.1016/j.biopsych.2016.12.031
- [59] Chao L, Liu C, Sutthawongwadee S, et al. Effects of Probiotics on Depressive or Anxiety Variables in Healthy Participants under Stress Conditions or with a Depressive or Anxiety Diagnosis: A Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. Front Neurol. 2020;11:421. doi:10.3389/fneur.2020.00421
- [60] Hibbeln JR. Fish Consumption and Major Depression. Lancet. 1998;351(9110):1213. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(05)79168-6
- [61] Costantini L, Molinari R, Farinon B, Merendino N. Impact of Omega-3 Fatty Acids on the Gut Microbiota. Int J Mol Sci. 2017;18(12):2645. doi:10.3390/ijms18122645
- [62] Rao AV, Bested AC, Beaulne TM, et al. A Randomized, Double-Blind, Placebo-Controlled Pilot Study of a Probiotic in Emotional Symptoms of Chronic Fatigue Syndrome. Gut Pathog. 2009;1:6. doi:10.1186/1757-4749-1-6
- [63] Benton D, Williams C, Brown A. Impact of Consuming a Milk Drink Containing a Probiotic on Mood and Cognition. Eur J Clin Nutr. 2006;61(3):355-361. doi:10.1038/sj.ejcn.1602546
- [64] Sharma H, Santra S, Dutta A. Triple Reuptake Inhibitors as Potential Next-Generation

Antidepressants: A New Hope? *Future Med Chem.* 2015;7(17):2385-2405.
doi:10.4155/fmc.15.134

- [65] Brothwood PL, Baudinet J. Interventions for improving psychological symptoms in binge eating disorder (BED) and loss of control (LOC) eating in childhood and adolescence: a systematic scoping review. *J Eat Disord.* 2025;13(1):1-19.