

Orthomolecular Treatment For Schizophrenia: A Review (Part One)

Raymond J. Pataracchia, B.Sc., N.D.¹

Introduction

Various segments of the schizophrenic population fall into subgroups of distinct biochemical imbalance. We often see subgroups of essential fatty acid deficiency, inadequate nutrition, dysglycemia, food intolerance, digestive compromise, malabsorption, under-methylation, vitamin B₃ deficiency, vitamin C deficiency, heavy metal toxicity, B₆ deficiency, zinc deficiency, brain hypothyroidism, and hypoadrenia. Complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) have a key role in the treatment of schizophrenia. The goal of optimal complementary treatment is to correct the biochemical imbalance. In schizophrenia, we can assess cases with lab tests and target our treatment accordingly. CAM treatment involves the use of nutritional supplements, nutraceuticals, amino acids, and botanicals. Dietary changes are also implemented in treatment. In Part One of this review we will cover the research on essential fatty acid deficiency, inadequate nutrition, dysglycemia, food intolerance, digestive compromise, malabsorption, under-methylation, vitamin B₃ deficiency, and vitamin C deficiency.

The Essential Fatty Acid (EFA) Deficient Schizophrenic

Chronic schizophrenics have increased phospholipid neuron membrane break down (oxidative stress) which concentrates in the frontal cortex and other brain areas.^{1,2} Pro-inflammatory cytokine involvement in development may set the stage for oxidative stress from early development onward.^{3,4} Omega 3 fats have

a neuroprotective and anti-inflammatory role. Sixty percent of the dry weight of the brain is fat. EFAs, including omega-3 and omega-6, are good fats, not saturated with hydrogen, and, unfortunately, not readily provided in the North American diet. Investigators note an integral need for omega-3 supplementation for schizophrenia, mood, and behavior disorders.^{3,5} EFAs are important components of nerve cell walls and they are involved in neurotransmitter electrical activity and post-receptor phospholipid mediated signal transduction.

Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) is an omega-3 fat that is slightly more unsaturated than omega-6 fat. Brain membrane structure is compromised in chronic schizophrenia and EPA has demonstrated some potential in keeping brain neuron degeneration at bay and in reducing psychotic symptoms.⁶⁻¹² Omega-3 EFAs may eventually gain notice as “a safe and efficacious treatment for psychiatric disorders in pregnancy and in breast feeding [moms]”.^{6,13} Fish have high amounts of omega-3s and high EPA supplements are derived from fish. Many EPA fish oil products contain antagonistic fats and the more pure the EPA supplement, the more useful it is for schizophrenics.⁷

A balanced essential fatty acid profile may also be mediated by vitamin B₃ but more research is needed to identify the role of B₃ on the EFA profile of schizophrenics.¹⁴

The Schizophrenic with Inadequate Nutrition

Neurotransmitter production is dependant on amino acid protein building blocks (phenylalanine, tyrosine, tryptophan,

1. Naturopathic Medical Research Clinic, 20 Eglinton Ave. East, Suite #441, Toronto, ON, Canada, M4P 1A9

etc.) supplied from the diet. The catecholamines dopamine, norepinephrine, and epinephrine are derived from phenylalanine and tyrosine. Catecholamines are involved in executive functions and motivation. Serotonin, the 'feel good' neurotransmitter, is derived from the amino acid tryptophan. Protein nutriture is very important for schizophrenia and for general mental well-being. I have seen many schizophrenics respond when they start increasing their protein intake with each meal. A diet that has 40% protein, 40% carbohydrate, and 20% fat is ideal for most schizophrenics.

Many schizophrenics do not eat three meals a day and their diet is invariably carbohydrate dominant. Carbohydrate dominant North American diets release glucose to the bloodstream quickly. Most schizophrenics require a dietary change that incorporates complex carbohydrates. They also do well to avoid high glycemic load foods including junk food, white sugar, white rice, and white bread. If they have a poor appetite, this can lead to inadequate nutriture. Poor appetite may be associated with zinc or iron loss.

Fat nutriture is important in schizophrenia. Cold water fish with teeth have a fat profile suitable for schizophrenics. Salmon, tuna, mackerel, herring, cod, and trout provide the highest omega-3 profile. Other high EFA sources include scallops, shrimp, flaxseeds, walnuts, winter squash, and kidney beans.

Inadequate nutriture can also occur with gastrointestinal compromise, malabsorption, and low thyroid function.

The Dysglycemic Schizophrenic

The brain's demand for glucose is so immense that about 20% of the total blood volume circulates to the brain, an organ that represents only 2% of body weight. The brain demands a substantial amount of glucose to maintain its high metabolic rate. Gluco-sensing neurons regulate glucose availability in the brain as a fail-safe

mechanism to ensure homeostasis of brain glucose levels.¹⁵

In schizophrenia, it seems likely that glucose transporters are compromised with consequent intraneuronal glucose deficits.¹⁵ McDermott and de Silva mention that this hypoglycemic state has the potential to cause "acute symptoms of misperceptions, misinterpretations, anxiety and irritability—the usual features of prodromal and first onset schizophrenia." Epidemiological investigations show us that schizophrenics are at increased risk for dysglycemia.¹⁷ Psychiatric meds also have some potential to induce hyperglycemic or insulin resistant states and this can be addressed, at least in part, with a nutritional adjunct.¹⁸

The hypoglycemic state involves a sharp rise of simple sugars in the blood followed by a sharp decline which robs the neurons of their main energy source; the sharper the decline, the greater the effect on brain cells. Typical hypoglycemic symptoms include irritability, poor memory, late afternoon blues, poor concentration, tiredness, cold hands, muscle cramping, and 'feeling better when arguing'.

Schizophrenics with hyperglycemia, much like diabetics, present with hypoglycemic mental symptoms because the glucose doesn't get into brain neurons. Brain neurons starved for energy behave differently and mental function declines.^{19,20} It is not clear if dysglycemia has a causative role in schizophrenia but it can be deemed an aggravating factor.

It is said that hypoglycemia is 100% treatable in compliant patients. This emphasizes the need to address diet. The dysglycemic schizophrenic requires three solid meals (of 40% protein) a day and sometimes additional protein-containing snacks. Many schizophrenics need to be educated on complex versus fast carbohydrates and the avoidance of junk food and sugar. When schizophrenics increase their protein intake, they release glucose to the

brain at a steady rate and sugar cravings lessen. Chromium and zinc are useful for sugar balance and botanical medicine is useful in advanced hypoglycemia.

The Food Intolerant Schizophrenic

Schizophrenics, just like the general population, have the potential to exhibit mild or severe food intolerance symptoms.²¹⁻²⁵ The digestive tract reacts to food allergens by eliciting an immune response. Undigested food by-products can be toxic (e.g. opioid peptide exorphins), pass through the gut wall, enter the bloodstream, and reach the brain with subsequent brain function compromise.^{23,26-28} I have several clients who have an increased severity and frequency of hallucinations, delusions, depression, anxiety, irritability, and insomnia when they eat an intolerant food. We see schizophrenics that experience a wide range of food related physical symptoms such as headaches, skin eruptions, palpitations, weakness, painful digestion, constipation, diarrhea, and arthralgia. In schizophrenia, gluten, dairy, and eggs are commonly not tolerated.^{22,23,29} Other common food intolerances include tree nuts, citrus, fish, legumes and crustaceans. It is helpful to survey patient responses with a seven-day diet diary. Often schizophrenics are tired, weak, irritated, and moody after eating intolerant foods. Typically they either hate the intolerant food or crave it and this may be due to the toxic effects of opioid exorphin peptides. It is not uncommon to see patients that have fasted in the past and report that they feel better. This is a good indication that they have a food intolerance. An elimination diet followed by provocation is helpful to assess cases clinically. Elaborate lab testing may not need to be implemented but IgG Elisa testing can be quite useful to assess food intolerances that are less obvious.^{21,30} IgG responses are provoked when there is a delayed response. IgG tests report the

severity of the delayed reaction and also provide a rotation diet schedule. Many investigators have noted improvements with dietary restriction of food intolerants. In our clinic, a small but significant portion of schizophrenics experience profound improvements after removing intolerant foods. Some researchers estimate 10% of schizophrenics having severe food intolerances.³¹ More research is needed to understand the pathophysiology, epidemiology, and clinical presentation of the food sensitive subset of schizophrenics.³²

The Schizophrenic with Digestive Compromise and Malabsorption

I constantly see gastrointestinal problems in schizophrenia including constipation, spastic obstipation, bloating, cramping, abdominal discomfort, IBS, and GERD. Compromised gastrointestinal function leads to malabsorption of nutrients. These patients often require higher doses of nutrients and medications. Lack of stomach acid can reduce intrinsic factor and diminish B₁₂ utilization which is essential for methylation and neurotransmitter formation. Poor bowel transit locks in toxins and they build-up, tax the immune system, and reduce the absorptive surface area. Poor bowel transit may be due to lack of peristalsis, low thyroid function, or magnesium deficiency. Adequate water intake is about two liters per day for the average adult. This is essential to keep toxins moving out and bowel contents hydrated. CAM treatment for digestive dysfunction and low thyroid function helps to alleviate digestive symptomology and also reduces the need for high nutrient dosing. Intact gastrointestinal health is a prerequisite for improved outcome in schizophrenia.

The Under-Methylated Schizophrenic

Schizophrenic researchers are well aware that certain brain tracts are overstimulated while others are understimulated (hypofrontality). If we can methyl-

ate efficiently, we have the machinery to form neurotransmitters in areas of the brain that are understimulated and neurotransmitter deficient. In our clinic, we see a good portion of schizophrenics with methylation compromise as indicated by elevated fasting homocysteine levels. Elevated homocysteine levels and methylation compromise are common in schizophrenia.³³⁻⁴¹ Elevated homocysteine levels have also been correlated with an increased severity of extrapyramidal symptoms.⁴²

Nutritional treatment with B₁₂, folic acid, and other methylators can restore methylation status. In schizophrenia, investigators have found methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) genetic polymorphisms that disrupt folic acid pathways.^{43,44} These schizophrenics have a greater need for folic acid supplementation.⁴² Investigators suspect a causal link between elevated homocysteine and the MTHFR genetic polymorphism.⁴⁵ Many schizophrenics have adequate dietary intake of B₁₂ and folate yet their homocysteine levels are high.⁴⁶ These studies support the hypothesis that schizophrenic pathogenesis may be inherent.

Some evidence suggests that high circulating levels of homocysteine increase the level of homocysteic acid and cysteine sulphinic acid, both of which are NMDA receptor agonists that contribute to neuronal excitotoxicity.⁴⁷ It is not known if neuronal degeneration in chronic schizophrenia is due to elevated homocysteine levels. It is also unclear if NMDA-induced excitotoxicity plays a causative role in schizophrenia. More research on methylation in schizophrenia is required to fully understand the pathophysiological mechanisms.

The Vitamin B₃ and C Deficient Schizophrenic

Schizophrenics are poor at filtering the influx of sensory information and this

causes perceptual dysfunction (hallucinations, illusions). Overstimulated brain pathways have excess neurotransmitter and symptoms are, in part, caused by neurotransmitter overstimulation of the prefrontal cortex. Many neurotransmitter pathways are involved; some overstimulated, others understimulated. In a schizophrenic brain, vitamin B₃ and C (ascorbate) together have the potential to intervene and limit the production and oxidation of excess catecholamines in the brain.

Vitamin B₃ is one of the few methyl acceptors in the body. As a methyl acceptor, B₃ can limit, in a regulated fashion, neurotransmitter production.⁴⁹ When under stress, B₃ can also limit adrenal gland conversion of noradrenaline to adrenaline. Peripherally, this acts as a fail-safe mechanism to prevent excessive adrenaline production and consequent readily autooxidizable catecholamine end-products.⁴⁹

A catecholamine rich cerebral environment is prone to oxidation and oxidized metabolites are neurotoxic and hallucinogenic to humans.⁵⁰⁻⁵³ Oxidized catecholamines and toxic indoles may contribute to synaptic deletion.⁵⁴ In the healthy brain, oxidized catecholamines convert back to a stable form (neuromelanin), a process that has the effect of 'neutralizing' or 'storing' unwanted toxins.^{53,54} Smythies proposes that neuromelanin neutralization is compromised in schizophrenia and it may play a causative role.^{52,53} Both vitamin B₃ and C (ascorbate) have the potential to reduce oxidized catecholamine intermediates.⁵⁵ In the adrenal gland, vitamin C is found in high concentrations to keep oxidation at bay.⁴⁹

As a separate mechanism of action, B₃ and ascorbate are physiologically antagonistic to copper. They can help to limit dopamine overproduction which overstimulates the prefrontal cortex and disturbs executive functions. Excess cop-

per is very common in schizophrenia and copper is a cofactor in dopamine production. When dopamine pathways are overstimulated, serotonin (the opposing 'feel good' master neurotransmitter system) can become downregulated. This may in part account for some of the negative symptoms of schizophrenia.

Vitamin B₃ (NAD) can be found in several supplemental forms; as niacin, niacinamide, inositol hexaniacinate, and NADH. NADH is the reduced form and it is more active than NAD. NADH is dosed in the mg range. The other forms of B₃ can be dosed in the gram range. Niacin and inositol hexaniacinate are dosed safely in the gram range in the treatment of intermittent claudication, hypercholesterolemia, and Raynaud's. Sufficient doses of B₃ for schizophrenia are also in the gram range. Niacinamide and inositol hexaniacinate are flush-free. Pure niacin causes flushing due to the release of peripheral histamine stores. When dosed in the gram range, pure niacin causes a head down flushing response during day 1 and 2 of dosing. This subsides with subsequent gram range dosings. The inositol hexaniacinate form of B₃ is well tolerated and has a great safety profile. Numerous investigators report the use of inositol hexaniacinate in the 4 gram daily range without a single adverse reaction.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸ Inositol hexaniacinate and pure niacin also promote brain blood flow which can be important in schizophrenic hypofrontality. Vitamin B₃ has an interesting side-effect of longevity. The Mayo Clinic found significant reductions in mortality in subjects with high baseline cholesterol who used niacin alone.^{59,60}

The B₃ deficient state is typified in the disease pellagra, the rarely seen vitamin B₃-dependent disease state. Classic symptoms of pellagra include psychosis, hallucinations, depression, anxiety, confusion, memory loss, anorexia, and fatigue.^{61,62} Pellagrins and schizophrenics

respond well to B₃.

The positive results of B₃ treatment have been noted in six double-blind trials on schizophrenic cohorts and an optimal dosing strategy is indicated.⁶³⁻⁸⁰

Vitamin B₃ and C are anti-stress vitamins. Practitioners who treat schizophrenics with vitamin B₃ and C continue to report positive responses.^{63,81-83}

References

1. Fendri C, Mechri A, Khiari G, et al: Oxidative stress involvement in schizophrenia pathophysiology: a review. *Encephale*, 2006 Mar-Apr; 32(2 Pt 1): 244-252. (Abstract only)
2. Gattaz WF, Schmitt A, Maras A: Increased platelet phospholipase A2 activity in schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res*, 1995 Jul; 16(1): 1-6.
3. Song C, Zhao S: Omega-3 fatty acid eicosapentaenoic acid. A new treatment for psychiatric and neurodegenerative diseases: a review of clinical investigations. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs*, 2007 Oct; 16(10): 1627-1638.
4. Das UN: Can perinatal supplementation of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids prevents schizophrenia in adult life? *Med Sci Monit*, 2004 Dec; 10(12): HY33-HY37.
5. Greenwood CE, Young SN: Dietary fat intake and the brain: a developing frontier in biological psychiatry. *J Psychiatry Neurosci*. 2001 May; 26(3): 182-184.
6. Freeman MP: Omega-3 fatty acids in psychiatry: a review. *Ann Clin Psychiatry*, 2000 Sep; 12(3): 159-165.
7. Horrobin DF: Treatment of schizophrenia with eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA). 2000 Apr. *Nutritional Medicine Today* 29th Annual Conference. Vancouver, BC.
8. Bennett CN, Horrobin DF: Gene targets related to phospholipid and fatty acid metabolism in schizophrenia and other psychiatric disorders: an update. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids*, 2000 Jul-Aug; 63(1-2): 47-59.
9. Richardson AJ, Easton T, Puri BK: Red cell and plasma fatty acid changes accompanying symptom remission in a patient with schizophrenia treated with eicosapentaenoic acid. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol*, 2000 May; 10(3): 189-193.
10. Puri BK, Richardson AJ, Horrobin DF, et al: Eicosapentaenoic acid treatment in schizophrenia associated with symptom remission, normalisation of blood fatty acids, reduced neuronal membrane phospholipid turnover and structural brain changes. *Int J Clin Pract*,

- 2000 Jan-Feb; 54(1): 57-63.
11. Horrobin DF: The membrane phospholipid hypothesis as a biochemical basis for the neurodevelopmental concept of schizophrenia. *Schizophr Res*, 1998 Apr10; 30(3): 193-208.
 12. Puri BK, Easton T, Richardson AJ: Normalisation of positive and negative symptoms of schizophrenia following dietary supplementation with essential fatty acids: A case study. *Biol Psychiat*, 1997; 42: 189S.
 13. Koletzko B, Agostoni C, Carlson SE, et al: Long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LC-PUFA) and perinatal development. *Acta Paediatr*, 2001 Apr; 90(4): 460-464.
 14. Smesny S, Rosburg T, Riemann S, et al: Impaired niacin sensitivity in acute first-episode but not in multi-episode schizophrenia. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids*, 2005 Jun; 72(6): 393-402.
 15. Rao J, Oz G, Seaquist ER: Regulation of cerebral glucose metabolism. *Minerva Endocrinol*, 2006 Jun; 31(2): 149-158.
 16. McDermott E, de Silva P: Impaired neuronal glucose uptake in pathogenesis of schizophrenia - can GLUT 1 and GLUT 3 deficits explain imaging, post-mortem and pharmacological findings? *Med Hypotheses*, 2005; 65(6): 1076-1081.
 17. Voruganti LP, Punthakee Z, Van Lieshout RJ, MacCrimmon D, et al: Dysglycemia in a community sample of people treated for schizophrenia: the Diabetes in Schizophrenia in Central-South Ontario (DiSCO) study. *Schizophr Res*, 2007 Nov; 96(1-3): 215-222.
 18. Bergman RN, Ader M: Atypical antipsychotics and glucose homeostasis. *J Clin Psychiatry*, 2005 Apr; 66(4): 504-514.
 19. Cox D, Gonder-Frederick L, McCall A, et al: The effects of glucose fluctuation on cognitive function and QOL: the functional costs of hypoglycaemia and hyperglycaemia among adults with type 1 or type 2 diabetes. *Int J Clin Pract Suppl*, 2002 Jul; 129: 20-26.
 20. Mitrakou A, Ryan C, Veneman T, et al: Hierarchy of glycemic thresholds for counter regulatory hormone secretion, symptoms, and cerebral dysfunction. *Am J Physiol*, 1991 Jan; 260(1 Pt 1): E67-E74.
 21. Hardman G, Hart G: Dietary advice based on food-specific IgG results. *Nutrition & Food Science*, 2007; 37(1): 16-23.
 22. Jackson JA, Neathery S, Kirby R: Hidden Food Sensitivities: A Common Cause of Many Illnesses. *J Orthomol Med*, 2007; 22(1): 27-30.
 23. Cade R et al: Autism and Schizophrenia: Intestinal Disorders. *Nutritional Neuroscience*, 2000 Mar. (Abstract only)
 24. Crowe SE, Perdue MH: Gastrointestinal food hypersensitivity: basic mechanisms of pathophysiology. *Gastroenterology*, 1992 Sep; 103(3): 1075-1095.
 25. Hall K: Allergy of the nervous system: a review. *Annals of Allergy*, 1976 Jan; 36(1): 49-64.
 26. Takahashi M, Fukunaga H, Kaneto H, et al: Behavioral and pharmacological studies on gluten exorphin A5, a newly isolated bioactive food protein fragment, in mice. *Jpn J Pharmacol*, 2000 Nov; 84(3): 259-265.
 27. Dohan FC: Genetic hypothesis of idiopathic schizophrenia: its exorphin connection. *Schizophr Bull*, 1988; 14(4): 489-494.
 28. King DS: Psychological and behavioral effects of food and chemical exposure in sensitive individuals. *Nutr Health*, 1984; 3(3): 137-151.
 29. Ross-Smith P, Jenner FA: Diet (gluten) and schizophrenia. *J Hum Nutr*, 1980 Apr; 34(2): 107-112.
 30. Atkinson W, Sheldon TA, Shaath N, et al: Food elimination based on IgG antibodies in irritable bowel syndrome: a randomised controlled trial. *Gut*, 2004 Oct; 53(10): 1459-1464.
 31. Edelman E. *Natural Healing for Schizophrenia: A Compendium of Nutritional Methods*. Eugene, OR. Borage Books. 1996.
 32. Kalaydjian AE, Eaton W, Cascella N, et al: The gluten connection: the association between schizophrenia and celiac disease. *Acta Psychiatr Scand*, 2006 Feb; 113(2): 82-90.
 33. Haidemenos A, Kontis D, Gazi A, et al: Plasma homocysteine, folate and B12 in chronic schizophrenia. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*, 2007 Aug15; 31(6): 1289-1296.
 34. Herrmann W, Obeid R: Review: Biomarkers of folate and vitamin B(12) status in cerebrospinal fluid. *Clin Chem Lab Med*, 2007; 45(12): 1614-1620.
 35. Herrmann W, Lorenzl S, Obeid R: Review of the role of hyperhomocysteinemia and B-vitamin deficiency in neurological and psychiatric disorders--current evidence and preliminary recommendations. *Fortschr Neurol Psychiatr*, 2007 Sep; 75(9): 515-527. (Abstract only)
 36. Zammit S, Lewis S, Gunnell D, et al: Schizophrenia and neural tube defects: comparisons from an epidemiological perspective. *Schizophr Bull*, 2007 Jul; 33(4): 853-858.
 37. Regland B: Schizophrenia and single-carbon metabolism. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*, 2005 Sep; 29(7): 1124-1132.
 38. Neeman G, Blanaru M, Bloch B, et al: Relation of plasma glycine, serine, and homocysteine levels to schizophrenia symptoms and medication type. *Am J Psychiatry*, 2005 Sep; 162(9):

Orthomolecular Treatment For Schizophrenia: A Review (Part 1)

- 1738-1740.
39. Regland B, Germgård T, Gottfries CG, et al: Homozygous thermolabile methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase in schizophrenia-like psychosis. *J Neural Transm*, 1997; 104(8-9): 931-941.
 40. Regland B, Johansson BV, Gottfries CG: Homocysteinemia and schizophrenia as a case of methylation deficiency. *J Neural Transm Gen Sect*, 1994; 98(2): 143-152.
 41. Freeman JM, Finkelstein JD, Mudd SH: Folate-responsive homocystinuria and "schizophrenia". A defect in methylation due to deficient 5,10-methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase activity. *N Engl J Med*. 1975 Mar6; 292(10): 491-496.
 42. Goff DC, Bottiglieri T, Arning E, et al: Folate, homocysteine, and negative symptoms in schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry*, 2004 Sep; 161(9): 1705-1708.
 43. Gilbody S, Lewis S, Lightfoot T: Methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) genetic polymorphisms and psychiatric disorders: a HuGE review. *Am J Epidemiol*, 2007 Jan1; 165(1): 1-13.
 44. Roffman JL, Weiss AP, Purcell S, et al: Contribution of Methylenetetrahydrofolate Reductase (MTHFR) Polymorphisms to Negative Symptoms in Schizophrenia. *Biol Psychiatry*, 2008 Jan1; 63(1): 42-48.
 45. Casas JP, Bautista LE, Smeeth L, et al: Homocysteine and stroke: evidence on a causal link from mendelian randomisation. *Lancet*, 2005 Jan15-21; 365(9455): 224-232.
 46. Regland B, Johansson BV, Grenfeldt B, et al: Homocysteinemia is a common feature of schizophrenia. *J Neural Transm Gen Sect*, 1995; 100(2): 165-169.
 47. Parnetti L, Bottiglieri T, Lowenthal D: Role of homocysteine in age-related vascular and non-vascular diseases. *Aging (Milan, Italy)*, 1997 Aug; 9(4): 241-257.
 48. Zaremba S, Hogue-Angeletti R: NADH: (acceptor) oxidoreductase from bovine adrenal medulla chromaffin granules. *Arch Biochem Biophys*, 1982 Dec; 219(2): 297-305.
 49. Wakefield LM, Cass AE, Radda GK: Functional coupling between enzymes of the chromaffin granule membrane. *J Biol Chem*, 1986 Jul25; 261(21): 9739-9745.
 50. Paris I, Cardenas S, Lozano J, et al: Aminochrome as a preclinical experimental model to study degeneration of dopaminergic neurons in Parkinson's disease. *Neurotox Res*, 2007 Sep; 12(2): 125-134.
 51. Graumann R, Paris I, Martinez-Alvarado P, et al: Oxidation of dopamine to aminochrome as a mechanism for neurodegeneration of dopaminergic systems in Parkinson's disease. Possible neuroprotective role of DT-diaphorase. *Pol J Pharmacol*, 2002 Nov-Dec; 54(6): 573-579.
 52. Smythies JR: Oxidative reactions and schizophrenia: a review-discussion. *Schizophr Res*, 1997 Apr11; 24(3): 357-364.
 53. Smythies J: On the function of neuromelanin. *Proc Biol Sci*, 1996 Apr22; 263(1369): 487-489.
 54. Smythies J: Redox aspects of signaling by catecholamines and their metabolites. *Antioxid Redox Signal*, 2000 Fall; 2(3): 575-583.
 55. Siraki AG, O'Brien PJ: Prooxidant activity of free radicals derived from phenol-containing neurotransmitters. *Toxicology*, 2002 Aug1; 177(1): 81-90.
 56. Sunderland GT, Belch JJ, Sturrock RD, et al: A double blind randomized placebo controlled trial of Hexopal in primary Raynaud's disease. *Clin Rheumatol*, 1988 Mar; 7(1): 46-49.
 57. Ring EFJ, Porto LO, Bacon PA: Quantitative thermal imaging to assess inositol nicotinate treatment for Raynaud's syndrome. *J Int Med Res*, 1981; 9: 393-400.
 58. Holti G: An experimentally controlled evaluation of the effect of inositol nicotinate upon the digital blood flow in patients with Raynaud's phenomenon. *J Int Med Res*, 1979; 7: 473-483.
 59. Berge KG, Canner PL: Coronary drug project: experience with niacin. Coronary Drug Project Research Group. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*, 1991; 40(Suppl1): S49-S51.
 60. Pauling L: *How to Live Longer and Feel Better*. New York, NY. Freeman & Co. 1986.
 61. Pitche PT: *Service de dermatologie*. Sante, 2005 Jul-Sep; 15(3): 205-208. (Abstract only)
 62. Hoffer A: Vitamin B₃ Dependency: Chronic Pellagra. *Townsend Letter for Doctors & Patients*, 2000 Oct; 207: 66-73.
 63. Hoffer A: *Orthomolecular Treatment For Schizophrenia: Megavitamin Supplements and Nutritional Strategies for Healing and Recovery*. Los Angeles, CA. Keats Publishing, 1999.
 64. Hoffer A: Orthomolecular treatment for schizophrenia. *Natural Med J*, 1999 Mar; 2(3): 12-13.
 65. Hoffer A: *Vitamin B-3 and Schizophrenia: Discovery, Recovery, Controversy*. Kingston, ON, Canada. Quarry Press, 1998.
 66. Hoffer A: Correspondence: Follow-up reports on chronic schizophrenic patients. *J Orthomol Med*, 1994; 121-123.
 67. Hoffer A: *Chronic Schizophrenia Patients Treated Ten Years Or More*. *J Orthomol Med*, 1994; 9(1): 7-37.

68. Hoffer A: Orthomolecular Medicine. In eds. Maksic ZB, Eckert-Maksic M. *Molecules in Natural Science and Medicine, An Encomium for Linus Pauling*. Chichester, England. Ellis Horwood Ltd. 1991.
69. Hoffer A: *Orthomolecular Medicine for Physicians*. New Canaan, CT. Keats Publishing, 1989.
70. Hoffer A: *Common Questions on Schizophrenia and Their Answers*. New Canaan, CT. Keats Publishing, 1987: 129-146.
71. Hoffer A: The Adrenochrome Hypothesis of Schizophrenia Revisited. *Orthomol Psychiat*, 1981; 10(2): 98-118.
72. Hoffer A, Osmond H: Schizophrenia: Another Long Term Follow-up in Canada. *Orthomol Psychiat*, 1980; 9(2): 107-115.
73. Hoffer A, Osmond H: *In Reply to the American Psychiatric Association Task Force Report On Megavitamins and Orthomolecular Therapy in Psychiatry*. Burnaby, BC. Canadian Schizophrenia Foundation. 1976.
74. Hoffer A: Natural history and treatment of thirteen pairs of identical twins, schizophrenic and schizophrenic-spectrum conditions. *Orthomol Psychiat*, 1976 May; 5: 101-122.
75. Hoffer A: Mechanism of action of nicotinic acid and nicotinamide in the treatment of schizophrenia. In eds. Hawkins DR, Pauling L. *Orthomolecular Psychiatry*. San Francisco. W.H. Freeman and Co. 1973.
76. Hoffer A: Treatment of schizophrenia with a therapeutic program based upon nicotinic acid as the main variable. In eds. Walaas O. *Molecular Basis of Some Aspects of Mental Activity*, vol II. New York. Academic Press. 1967.
77. Hoffer A: Five California schizophrenics. *J Schizophren*, 1967 Jan; 1: 209-220.
78. Hoffer A, Osmond H: *How to Live With Schizophrenia*. New York, NY. University Books. 1966. (Also published by Johnson, London, 1966.) Revised edition, New York: Citadel Press, 1992. New edition, fall 1997.
79. Hoffer A, Osmond H: *The Chemical Basis of Clinical Psychiatry*. Springfield, IL. C.C. Thomas. 1960.
80. Hoffer A, Osmond H, Callbeck MJ, et al: Treatment of schizophrenia with nicotinic acid and nicotinamide. *J Clin Exper Psychopathol & Quart Rev Psychiat Neurol*, 1957 Jun; 18(2): 131-158.
81. Dardanelli L, Del Pilar Garcia AM: Successful Recoveries with Orthomolecular Treatment. *J Orthomol Med*. 2001; 16(1): 52-58.
82. Wenzel K-G: Orthomolecular Treatment for Mental Health: The Roles of Hypoglycemia, Pyrroluria and Histamine Disturbances. 2000 Apr. *Nutritional Medicine Today 29th Annual Conference*. Vancouver, BC.
83. Walsh WJ: *Biochemical Treatment of Mental Illness and Behavior Disorders*. Naperville, IL. Health Research Institute. (Minnesota Brain Bio Association). 1997 Nov17.