Meditation, mindfulness and mental health

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To 'meditate' is to exercise the mind in contemplation or focus the mind on a subject in a concentrated, contemplative or religious manner.¹ Meditation and contemplative practices play a substantive role in many spiritual, religious and psychological traditions. In recent years there has been an upsurge of research interest in the effects of meditation on the brain and the possible use of meditation in the management of a range of physical and mental illnesses. There has also been a substantial increase in public interest in contemplative practice both as a method to manage psychological symptoms (such as anxiety and depression) and a way to maintain mental health.

Meditation and the brain

Meditative and contemplative practices involve several coordinated cognitive functions performed simultaneously, often over a prolonged period or on repeated occasions. There is increasing evidence that meditation has significant effects on the physiology of the brain; these effects include increased blood flow in the prefrontal cortex, inferior parietal lobes and inferior frontal lobes during meditation.² In addition, long-term meditators not only self-induce high-amplitude electroencephalographic gamma-band oscillations and phase-synchrony during meditation, but also have a higher ratio of gamma-band activity (25-42 hertz) to slow oscillatory activity (4-13 hertz) over medial frontoparietal electrodes when they are not meditating.³

These findings suggest that prolonged or long-term meditation may have sustained effects on the physiology of the brain – effects which persist even when the individual is no longer meditating. Meditation also has significant, sustained effects on individuals who are not long-term meditators but engage in short-term practice. Individuals who are not habitual meditators but attend an eight-week training programme in mindfulness meditation show significant increases in left-sided anterior activation and antibody titre rises to influenza vaccine eight weeks after training ends; the magnitude of the increase in left-sided anterior activation predicts the magnitude of the antibody titre rise to the vaccine.⁴

Any model integrating these and other research findings into a single, unified theory of how mediation affects the brain is hampered by the small numbers of subjects in existing studies, the diversity of physiological measures examined and

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general limitations on current understandings of brain structure and function. Nonetheless, Austin has attempted to provide an integrated model that combines neuroscientific findings with the psychological and experiential correlates of meditative practice, especially from the Zen (or Ch'an) tradition of Buddhism.⁵ While Austin's model is both insightful and provocative, there is clearly a need for more basic neuroscientific research and psychological investigation of the effects of meditation.

Meditation and mental health

Meditation and contemplative prayer are accorded substantial value in many spiritual and religious schools, especially those with strong monastic traditions. Roman Catholicism, for example, has a strong monastic tradition that incorporates elements of solitary living, individual prayer and prolonged, silent contemplation. While research into the effects of contemplative practice on the brain has tended to focus on long-term Buddhist meditators,³ there is evidence of similar effects in Roman Catholic practitioners of contemplative prayer, such as Franciscan nuns.²

The Buddhist tradition is fundamentally centred on the practice of meditation to produce calm (amatha) and meditation to produce insight (vipa yan). Buddhism also has a particularly intricate literature on the psychological correlates of contemplative practice: the Abhidharma or 'higher teaching' of Buddhism is essentially devoted to a systematic description of all possible states of mind and cognitive functions, many of which are presented in association with the levels of meditative attainment in which they are experienced. Clear understanding and personal experience of these mental states are essential prerequisites for spiritual advancement and the development of insight.

The reasons why various traditions value contemplative practice vary significantly: in Roman Catholicism contemplative prayer is directed at a specific God, often with the purpose of praise or intercession, while in Buddhism, meditation is not directed at any specific deity but aimed at producing individual enlightenment. In most spiritual traditions, however, contemplative prayer or meditation is seen as positive, progressive element within an individual's broader spiritual practice.

In terms of mental health, there is evidence that 'spiritual meditation' is superior to both 'secular meditation' and 'secular' relaxation techniques in reducing anxiety, improving mood, enhancing spiritual health and increasing tolerance of pain.⁷ This is consistent with the facts that individuals attending mental health services consistently identify spirituality as a significant factor in determining mental health, and spirituality is significantly correlated with higher global quality of life, hope and sense of community.⁸

Meditation and mental illness

There is a growing literature examining the possible role of meditative practices (eg. mindfulness) in the management of specific mental illnesses such as anxiety disorders, depression, alcohol misuse, substance misuse, post-traumatic stress disorder and psychosomatic disorders. Most such studies tend to be based on opportunistic samples, include small numbers of participants and have sharply limited generalisability outside the study settings.

Anxiety disorders are the most commonly studied disorders in this context, with a moderate number of studies examining the effects of mindfulness meditation, meditation-based stress reduction and transcendental meditation. A Cochrane Collaboration review, however, has highlighted a marked paucity of high quality, randomised controlled trials of meditation therapy for anxiety disorders, with only two studies qualifying for inclusion in the review. In addition, the authors noted that drop-out rates appeared to be high; adverse effects of meditation had not been reported; and further study was needed before conclusions could be drawn.

There are even fewer randomised controlled trials of meditation for other disorders, further highlighting the need for systematic investigation of the effects of meditation for specific mental illnesses. In addition, despite a long-standing association between certain forms of meditation (eg. Zen) and certain forms of psychotherapy (eg. psychoanalysis), 10,11 there remains a similar need for further systematic considerations of the precise role of meditation in the analytic context. In the meantime, there are scattered reports, of varying levels of rigour, suggesting the usefulness of specific meditative practices in specific groups of patients: mindfulness meditation, for example, may help alleviate depressive symptoms in women with fibromyalgia. 12 There is also a Cochrane Collaboration review underway examining the possible benefits of meditation therapies for attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), as suggested by small studies of the use of yoga and meditation strategies in children with ADHD.13

At present, however, there is insufficient evidence to support the systematic use of meditation therapy for any specific mental illness. This situation may change in future years in response to further study of the neuroscience of meditation, more randomised controlled trials and systematic reviews (especially in relation to anxiety disorders), continued emphasis on spirituality amongst mental health service users and sustained public interest in forms of psychological therapy that focus on mental wellness rather than illness. In particular, recent years have seen social policy-makers increasingly focus on happiness as a societal goal and this trend is likely to deepen interest in psychological therapies that appear to advance this goal while remaining acceptable to the public. On this basis, meditation, with its lengthy history in myriad cultures, is likely to attract increasing attention in the years to come.

Declaration of Interest: None.

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(postural), dyskinesia, Grand mal convulsion, syncope, oculogyration, palpitations, sinus arrhythmia, hypotension, ischaemia, muscle rigidity, amenorrhoea, breast discharge, erectile dysfunction, galactorrhoea, gynaecomastia, irregular menstruation, oedema. Extrapyramidal Symptoms (EPS): No difference observed between placebo and the 3 mg and 6 mg doses of INVEGA. Dose-relatedness for EPS was seen with higher INVEGA doses (9 mg and 12 mg). Laboratory Tests: Serum Prolactin: median increases observed in 67% of subjects in clinical trials with INVEGA; however potentially prolactin-related adverse events were reported in 2% subjects overall. Weight gain: clinical trials revealed similar incidence of weight gain for INVEGA 3 mg and 6 mg compared with placebo; higher incidence of weight gain for INVEGA 9 mg and 12 mg. Class effects: QT prolongation, ventricular arrhythmias, sudden unexplained death, cardiac arrest and Torsade de pointes may occur with antipsychotics. Refer to SmPC for other side effects. PREGNANCY: INVEGA should not be used during pregnancy. LACTATION: INVEGA should not be used while breastfeeding. INTERACTIONS: Caution prescribing INVEGA with medicines that prolong QT interval e.g. class IA and class III antiarrhythmics, some antihistaminics, some other antipsychotics, some antimalarials. Potential for INVEGA to affect other medicines: Not expected to cause clinically important pharmacokinetic interactions with medicines metabolized by cytochrome P-450 isozymes. Use with caution in conjunction with: centrally acting medicines e.g. anxiolytics, antipsychotics, hypnotics, opiates, or alcohol; medicines known to lower seizure threshold i.e. phenothiazines, butyrophenones, tricyclics, SSRIs, tramadol, mefloquine etc; medicines capable of inducing orthostatic hypotension (an additive effect may be observed when INVEGA is co-administered); levodopa and other dopamine agonists (paliperidone may antagonize their effect- use the lowest effective dose of each treatment if this combination must be prescribed

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