

Is the Ketogenic Diet an Effective and Safe Approach to Type 2 Diabetes Management and Weight Loss?

Deep Dutta,¹ Soumitra Ghosh,² Sanjay Kalra,³ Indira Maisnam⁴ and Meha Sharma⁵

1. Department of Endocrinology, Center for Endocrinology Diabetes Arthritis & Rheumatism (CEDAR) Superspecialty Clinics, New Delhi, India; 2. Department of Medicine, Institute of Post Graduate Medical Education & Research (IPGMER), Kolkata, India; 3. Department of Endocrinology, Bharti Hospital, Karmal, India; 4. Department of Endocrinology, RG Kar Medical College, Kolkata, India; 5. Department of Rheumatology, CEDAR Superspecialty Clinics, New Delhi, India

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.17925/USE.2020.16.1.15>

The use of ketogenic diets (KDs) for the management of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and in weight-loss programs is long established, but high-quality data supporting them are limited and they remain controversial. In recent years there has been a trend towards individual, patient-centered medical nutrition therapy in which KD regimens have been adapted to the specific needs of individuals. Every patient with type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) or T2DM should have a dietary regimen that is specific to their needs in addition to their continuing medications, and KD may have an important role in this aspect of disease management. KD regimens consist of low carbohydrate intake (<5%) with high fat (70–75%) and moderate protein (20–25%). The low carbohydrate content assists with weight loss and glycemic control while the relatively high protein content can increase satiety and thus assist adherence to the diet, reduce food intake, and decrease weight. These factors are beneficial in individuals with reduced insulin secretion or reduced response to insulin. In KDs, the oxidation of fat mass in the body is desirable but leads to ketone body generation and potentially to ketosis. This and raised levels of free fatty acids, can cause negative cardiovascular, renal, bone mineral, liver, and other effects, which discourage some physicians from recommending this diet for their patients. The KD, however, has reported positive neurological effects and is used in the treatment of epilepsy and some other neurological conditions in addition to weight-loss and diabetes regimens. It is clear that more studies are needed to provide better evidence in support or against a KD in diabetes therapy. Until this is available, KD use is likely to remain a matter of opinion and its true potential value, particularly in T2DM management, may not be realized.

Keywords

Diabetes diet, insulin lifestyle modification, ketogenic diet, medical nutrition therapy, type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM), type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)

Disclosures: Deep Dutta, Soumitra Ghosh, Sanjay Kalra, Indira Maisnam and Meha Sharma have no financial or non-financial relationships or activities to declare in relation to this article.

Acknowledgements: Medical writing assistance was provided by Katrina Mountfort and James Gilbert of Touch Medical Media, and supported by Touch Medical Media.

Review Process: Double-blind peer review.

Compliance with Ethics: This article involves a review of the literature and did not involve any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

Authorship: All named authors meet the criteria of the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors for authorship for this manuscript, take responsibility for the integrity of the work as a whole and have given final approval for the version to be published.

Access: This article is freely accessible at touchENDOCRINOLOGY.com © Touch Medical Media 2020.

Received: September 9, 2019

Accepted: October 21, 2019

Published Online: March 5, 2020

Citation: *US Endocrinology*. 2020;16(1):15–22

Corresponding Author: Deep Dutta, Department of Endocrinology, CEDAR Superspecialty Clinics, Sector 13 Dwarka, New Delhi, India 110 078. E: deepdutta2000@yahoo.com

Support: No funding was received in the publication of this article.

The diabetes pandemic affects millions of individuals throughout the world; the prevalence, especially of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), is increasing and shows no signs of abating. According to the International Diabetes Federation, the number of adults living with diabetes (both type 1 diabetes mellitus [T1DM] and T2DM) is projected to increase from 425 million in 2017 to 629 million in 2045, with the greatest increase occurring in T2DM.¹ To meet this challenge, various therapeutic modalities are being developed. While most current research concentrates on the new pharmaceutical agents, including improved insulin formulations, more efficient methods of insulin administration and other drugs to improve and maintain glycemic control, there have also been efforts to establish and provide guidelines on the best dietary regimens for optimal disease management.²

Epidemiological trends reveal a sustained rise in the prevalence of diabetes (especially T2DM) and obesity.³ It is not clear whether this increase is associated with a rise in the average consumption of both total carbohydrate and/or refined carbohydrates or whether other dietary changes, such as fat intake, are also involved. Countries such as the USA and some Asian nations with the highest prevalence of T2DM have predominantly rice-eating or wheat-eating populations,^{4,5} but other countries with lower T2DM rates e.g., Russia and Eastern Europe also have wheat or rice as the staple food.⁶ In an ecologic correlation study in the USA, increased intake of refined carbohydrates was shown to parallel the prevalence of T2DM; corn syrup was positively associated ($p=0.08$), fiber was negatively associated ($p<0.01$) and there was no association with fat ($p=0.084$) or protein intake ($p=0.79$).⁷ In a cross-sectional population study in China, however, intakes of carbohydrate in adults decreased from 62.8% to 58.3% and fat intake increased from 23.5% to 31.5% of total energy between 1991–2011.⁸ However, this was accompanied by an increase in the prevalence of T2DM from 0.67% in 1980 to 10.90% in 2013.⁹

Recent research strongly refutes any link between dietary cholesterol and cardiovascular health.¹⁰ This could indicate that high-carbohydrate diets should be avoided to limit the incidence of metabolic syndrome. In addition, it is doubtful whether a low-fat diet will help improve long-term cardiovascular outcomes.^{11,12} Despite dietary changes, the increased incidence of T2DM can be attributed, at least

Table 1: Rationale for carbohydrate restriction as a first-line therapy in diabetes^{3,22,106-9}

Parameter	Carbohydrate-related rationale	Corollary
Definition	Diabetes is a disease of carbohydrate intolerance	Diabetes is not defined by fat intolerance
Epidemiology	Carbohydrate consumption trends correlate with increases in the incidence of diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and metabolic syndrome	High fat intake does not correlate with cardiovascular outcomes
Pathophysiology	Carbohydrate intake is associated with fat deposition in the liver and pancreas	Fat deposition is a downstream effect of high carbohydrate intake
Clinical evidence	Low-carbohydrate diets help in comprehensive management of diabetes	High-carbohydrate diets (but not high-fat diet) are associated with higher plasma saturated fatty acid
Pharmacology	Low-carbohydrate diets reduce requirement of glucose-lowering drugs	People on high-carbohydrate diets need higher doses of glucose-lowering drugs
Protein intake	Low-carbohydrate diets may facilitate adequate protein intake, improving satiety	Low protein intake is a common feature of many diets
Sustainability	Low-carbohydrate diets can reduce hunger, encouraging long-term adherence	Calorie-restricted diets increase hunger and adversely impact adherence
Side effects	Potential side effects of low-carbohydrate diets are less severe than those of glucose-lowering drugs	High-carbohydrate diets which increase dose requirement of drug therapy indirectly increase risk of drug-related adverse events

in part, to increased body weight and adiposity resulting from reduced physical activity rather than changes in macronutrient intake.¹³

Diabetes (T1DM and T2DM) is a syndrome characterized by carbohydrate intolerance, irrespective of the contribution of various other pathophysiological factors affecting its etiology (which are described as the ‘ominous octet’ or ‘dirty dozen’).^{14,15} It is logical, therefore, that the treatment of diabetes should include some degree of carbohydrate restriction.³ The rationale behind this approach is given in *Table 1*.

Even if other therapeutic modalities are added to the management plan, a low-carbohydrate diet is still regarded, by some physicians, as an essential part of effective diabetes control. This is the approach that was followed by pioneer physicians, who did not have recourse to insulin and oral glucose-lowering drugs in their arsenal.¹⁶ Although diabetes is not defined by fat intolerance, lipid disorders are strongly associated with T2DM, and most studies suggest that high-fat diets are associated with increased insulin resistance.¹⁷ Fat is a highly calorie-dense food and consumption of liberal amounts may not be helpful in achieving euglycemia. One long-standing and notable method to reduce carbohydrate intake in diabetes and obesity is the ketogenic diet (KD). Here we consider the arguments both for and against the short- and long-term use of a KD, particularly in T2DM.

Evolving strategies

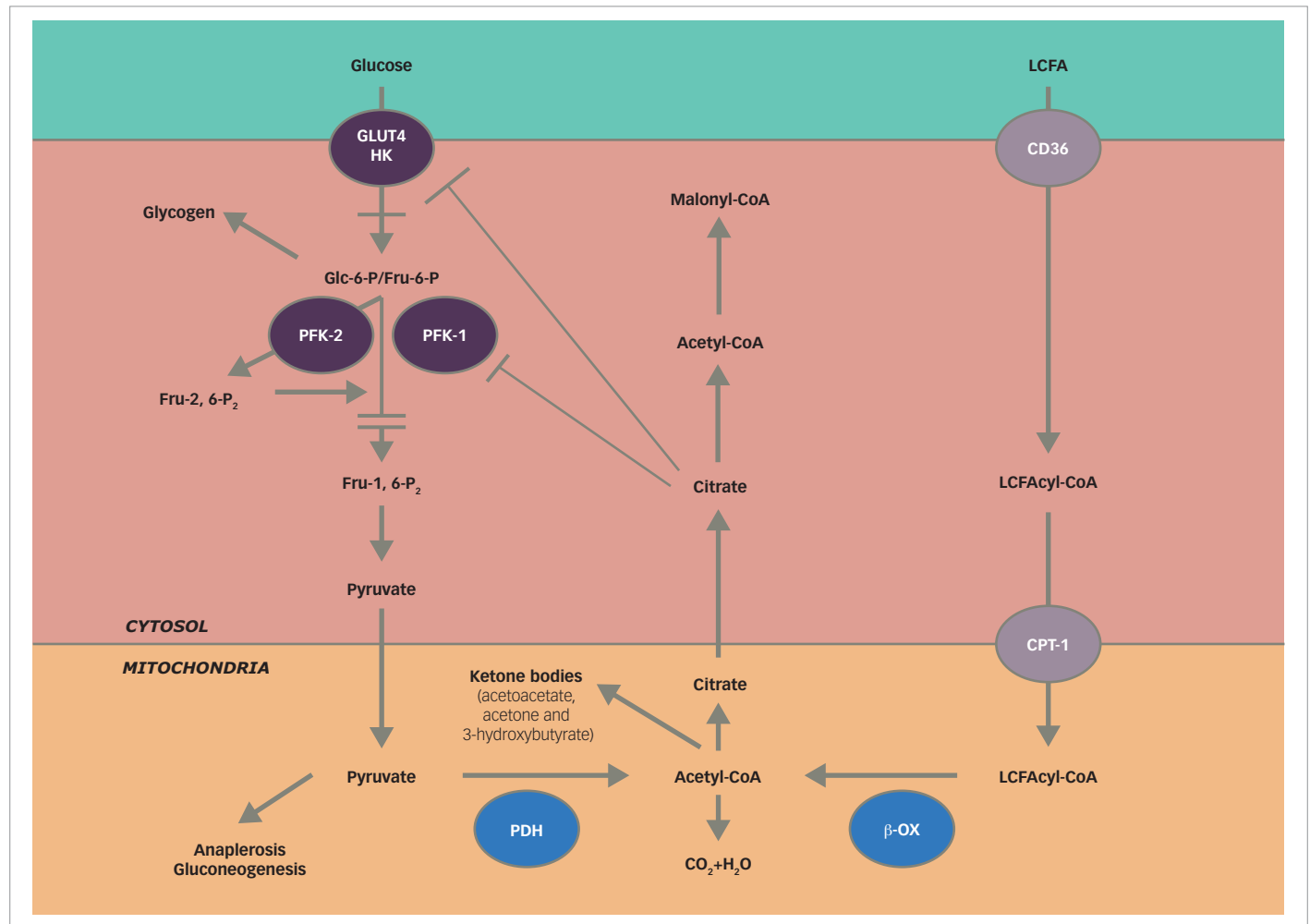
Despite the length of time that restricted carbohydrates have been used as treatment, there is no agreed optimal diet for individuals with either T1DM or T2DM. Over the last century, trends in dietary management have changed dramatically. In the pre-insulin era during early years of the 20th century, diet and lifestyle modification were the first-line therapy for this condition as they were the only treatments available.¹⁸ Since then, the treatment situation has advanced markedly, but there has also been a gradual erosion in the importance of medical nutrition therapy. In addition to this, there has been a much-reduced focus on diet restriction and decreased awareness of this approach in clinical practice.^{19,20} However, such approaches are

still considered important; current guidelines recommend metformin, along with lifestyle modification, as first-line treatment for T2DM.²¹

Another major change in medical nutrition therapy is the realization that an individualized, patient-centered diet plan is needed for every person with diabetes.²² This concept is similar to the model that is currently followed while establishing a pharmacological glucose-lowering prescription for each patient. Modern guidance from the USA and India clearly state that there is no universal or mandatory rule to be followed with regards to macronutrient distribution in a diabetes-friendly diet. This is in contrast to earlier guidelines, which recommended rigid proportions of carbohydrates and fat in ‘diabetic’ diets. In parallel with this, a large number of diets have emerged in both lay and scientific literature. The Atkins diet,²³ Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet,²⁴ da Vinci diet,²⁵ Gandhi diet,²⁶ the glycemic index diet,²⁷⁻³¹ Mediterranean diet³² and the Paleo diet³³ are some examples of restricted and unrestricted diets which have been promoted for both general health and diabetes care.³⁴

Recent evidence-based nutrition guidelines for the prevention and management of diabetes from Diabetes UK specify that there should be an individualized approach to diet that considers personal and cultural preferences.^{35,36} The guidelines also emphasize increased consumption of vegetables, fruit, wholegrains, fish, nuts and pulses, whilst reducing red and processed meat, refined carbohydrates and sugar-sweetened beverages. The American Diabetes Association makes similar recommendations in terms of self-care and lifestyle management, including low carbohydrate diets to reduce glycemia and body weight in some patient groups.³⁷ The Diabetes Canada Clinical Practice Guidelines Expert Committee recommends that people with diabetes should receive expert nutrition counselling to reduce glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) and improve glycemic control, which includes carbohydrate restriction.³⁸ The Diabetes and Nutrition Study Group of the European Association for the Study of Diabetes recommend a similar approach with an increased intake of dietary fiber as a source of carbohydrate.³⁹ Diabetes Australia makes comparable recommendations with regard to carbohydrate reduction and advises

Figure 1: Interaction of glucose and fatty-acid oxidation and the generation of ketone bodies



T bars between citrate and GLUT4 HK and PFK-1 represent inhibition. Lines across arrows represent inhibition (single line between GLUT4 HK and Glc-6-P/Fru-6-P) or blockage (double line with gap between Glc-6-P/Fru-6-P and Fru-1, 6-P₂).

β -OX = beta oxidation; CD36 = cluster of differentiation 36 (also known as platelet glycoprotein 4, fatty acid translocase); CPT-1 = carnitine palmitoyl transferase-1; Fru-1, 6-P₂ = fructose-1, 6-bisphosphate; Fru-2, 6-P₂ = fructose-2, 6-bisphosphate; Fru-6-P = fructose-6-phosphate; Glc-6-P/Fru-6-P = glucose-6-phosphate/fructose-6-phosphate; GLUT4 HK = glucose transporter-4 hexokinase; LCFA = long chain fatty acids; LCFAcyl-CoA = long-chain fatty acyl-coenzyme-A; PDH = pyruvate dehydrogenase; PFK-1 = 6-phosphofructo-1-kinase; PFK-2 = 6-phosphofructo-2-kinase.

Source: Adapted from Hue and Taegtmeyer, 2009.¹¹⁰

that carbohydrate intake is spread into even amounts throughout the day, with a preference for foods with low glycemic index, which are more slowly ingested and are less likely to make blood sugar levels spike.⁴⁰ Using the KD in diabetes, therefore, is consistent with some guidelines to use low-carbohydrate diets to achieve weight loss and glycemic control, but it must be monitored and tailored to the individual patient.

The ketogenic diet

The KD has been in use for more than 100 years and has become established as a modality for the treatment of refractory seizures in children, as the associated systemic ketosis raises seizure threshold.⁴¹ It is also promoted for the management of T2DM,⁴² and the last decade has seen an increase in the use of this diet in adults with obesity or diabetes.⁴³ The weight-loss benefits of KD have been documented in several short-term studies.^{44,45} With the exponential increase in the burden of obesity globally, the KD has also become popular, in certain sections of society, as a short-term weight-loss option.⁴¹

KD regimens for weight loss are extreme forms of a low-carbohydrate diet, where carbohydrates constitute <5% of the daily calorie intake. Protein content is adequate (20–25%), with fats constituting nearly 70–75%.⁴⁶ The United Nations recommendations state that, in adults, the total fat intake should constitute 15–35% of energy needs, with total saturated fatty acids constituting 10% and polyunsaturated fatty acids 6–11% of energy needs.⁴⁷ The KD regimen clearly exceeds these guidelines in terms of fat intake. In the virtual absence of carbohydrates, the body is forced to switch to beta-oxidation of fatty acids, which leads to a net loss in the fat mass of the body.^{44,48} This beta-oxidation leads to inhibited glucose utilization and the generation of ketone bodies that are known to have an anorectic effect and increase satiety, leading to a further negative calorie balance, which potentiates weight loss (Figure 1). It should be noted that the KDs discussed here are intended for weight loss and are calorie-restricted. Some types of KDs used in children with epilepsy, however, are intended to provide adequate calorie requirements and do not induce weight loss.^{49–51} The metabolism of lipids whilst on a KD also

Table 2: Putative advantages and disadvantages of the ketogenic diet

Advantages	Disadvantages
Limits or eliminates carbohydrate intake to reduce weight and retard development of type 2 diabetes	Long-term evidence supporting the KD is limited
Promotes metabolism of fats to reduce weight	Initial weight loss can be short term and quickly reversible largely due to water loss
May improve cognitive function	At the start it can cause memory loss, headaches, slower cognition, and general 'brain fog'
Can reduce migraine attacks	Transition to KD may cause weakness, tiredness, feeling lightheaded and lethargy—referred to as 'ketoflu'
May improve symptoms of some neurological conditions such as epilepsy, Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease	In patients with mental health issues, symptoms may be felt more acutely
May improve outcomes after traumatic brain injury	KD decreases intake of fruit and vegetables restricting intake of nutrients, vitamins and fiber
May slow progression of some cancers	Increase risk of consuming saturated fats
May increase female fertility	Hazardous for people with eating disorders
	Increases risk of kidney stones
	Increases risk of keto acidosis
	May cause digestive distress, bad breath, reduced physical performance

KD = ketogenic diet.
Source: Information derived from American Fitness Professionals & Associates.¹¹¹

results in increased free fatty acids in circulation and this can have negative effects on the cardiovascular system.⁵²⁻⁵

A global increase in calorie intake over recent decades has been a driving force behind the obesity pandemic. From 1970 to the 2000s, the average American increased their daily calorie intake by 240 kcal, contributing to diabetes.⁵⁶ Weight loss in any individual with obesity is primarily the result of reduced calorie intake. Consequently, all weight-loss diets, including KD, work by reducing net calorie intake. The KD, however, is an extreme form of diet that comes with its own set of challenges.

The KD has provided benefits in various neurological and endocrine conditions, however, its benefits have not been utilized fully by the diabetes care community.⁴¹ This may be due, in part, to the negative connotation of the word 'ketogenic', which can be interpreted as a life-threatening 'pathologic' approach. Many advantages of low-carbohydrate diets (<130 g carbohydrate/day) in diabetes have been reported but their use remains controversial.^{57,58} The relative advantages of the KD (with <50 g carbohydrate/day) are also controversial but are less widely reported; they are summarized in *Table 2*.⁵⁹⁻⁶⁷ Eliminating or severely restricting entire food groups in a diet can have negative consequences in numerous body systems including physical and cognitive functions. Systematic reviews

Table 3: Positive and negative effects of different types of diet

Diet type	Effects
High-protein diet	High-protein diet ⁶⁵ results in small decreases in weight, BMI, waist circumference, systolic and diastolic blood pressures, triglycerides, and fasting insulin. Slight reduction in total cholesterol, but no change in LDL cholesterol and reduction in HDL cholesterol. Increased protein can result in more rapid satiety and consequent weight loss, but the effect is limited
Low-fat diet	Low-fat diet ^{59,67} decreases weight but not as effectively as low-carbohydrate diets. A study of 49,000 women found almost no effect on the incidence of some cancers, heart disease or weight. ⁶¹ Reducing fat can result in nutrient and vitamin deficiencies since fat is needed for absorption. Replacing saturated with polyunsaturated fat is believed to reduce coronary heart disease events ⁶²
Low-carbohydrate diet	Low-carbohydrate diets ^{63,64} generally, result in rapid weight loss (due to water and fat loss), but the effects can be short-term. Effective in glycemic control in the management of type 2 diabetes. ⁶⁶ Produces slight reductions triglycerides and increases in HDL cholesterol, but can also increase LDL cholesterol. Conditions including acne, cancer, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, polycystic ovary syndrome, and Alzheimer's disease may improve with ketogenic diets. Mood and cognitive function may improve on low-carbohydrate diets. ⁶⁰ Reported negative cardiovascular, renal and lipid effects are unclear and need further investigation ⁶⁴

BMI = body mass index; HDL = high-density lipoprotein; LDL = low-density lipoprotein.

of multiple studies show that reducing carbohydrates is a more effective means of achieving weight loss than reducing fat or increasing protein (*Table 3*).^{64,66}

There are several variations of the KD regimen. One example is the cyclical KD in which a KD low-carbohydrate/high-fat protocol is received for 5–6 days each week followed by 1–2 days of higher carbohydrate consumption.⁶⁸ It is believed this aids muscle gain and athletic performance whilst decreasing ketogenic side effects, increasing fiber consumption and making adherence easier. Another example is the targeted KD in which the KD regimen is used but additional carbohydrate is consumed before or during exercise to help maintain blood sugar levels and enhance performance.⁶⁹ A further example is the high-protein KD in which protein intake is greater than with standard KD regimens. This, in combination with low-carbohydrate intake has been shown to reduce hunger and food intake compared with a high-protein/medium-carbohydrate diet.⁷⁰

Clinical and pharmacological evidence of the ketogenic diet

There is only limited evidence that suggests the KD helps in the management of T2DM, by reducing (or even obviating) the need for insulin and other glucose-lowering drugs. By limiting the carbohydrate burden, it is possible to reduce the load on an already overburdened insulin-based metabolism and

reverse insulin resistance.³ In some individuals with T1DM, a low-carbohydrate diet has been shown to reduce insulin dose requirement and improve glycemic control.⁴³ Some individuals with T2DM also experience significant improvement in insulin sensitivity and 24-hour glycemic profiles,^{71,72} although some individuals do not show this effect. Most studies that have investigated this, however, have been small and of short duration.⁷¹

Higher consumption of carbohydrates requires an increased dose of glucose-lowering drugs, including insulin. This, in turn, increases the risk of hypoglycemia, glycemic variability and medication-related errors. Rigorously conducted scientific trials on low-fat diets show uniformly disappointing results for glucose control and weight loss.⁷² Hence, there is a need to evaluate KDs in an unbiased manner.

Despite the rationale of restricting carbohydrates in T2DM, there have been few high-quality studies that have supported the restriction of carbohydrates in patient diets. One example included 363 overweight individuals (102 with T2DM) in which participants chose either a low-calorie diet or a low-carbohydrate KD. Both diets had a beneficial effect on body weight, body mass index (BMI), changes in waist circumference, blood glucose level, HbA1c, total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, triglycerides, uric acid, urea and creatinine. However, the low-carbohydrate KD produced more significant improvements in these parameters than a low-calorie diet.⁷³ In another trial of 46 patients with T2DM within a larger trial population (n=146), a low-calorie diet produced similar BMI reductions to a low-fat diet (p=0.7). However, the low-calorie diet produced greater reductions in HbA1c than a low-fat diet (p=0.045) and a greater reduction in anti-glycemic medication usage (p=0.01).⁷⁴ A further study of 49 participants with obesity and T2DM showed that patients randomized to low-carbohydrate KD showed greater reduction in HbA1c (p=0.03), body weight (p=0.008), and HDL cholesterol (p<0.001) compared with patients receiving a low-glycemic, reduced calorie diet.⁷⁵ In addition, diabetes medications were reduced or eliminated in 95.2% of low-carbohydrate KD versus 62.0% of low-glycemic index diet participants (p<0.01). The use of low-carbohydrate diets in T1DM has been studied to a lesser extent; positive evidence to support it comes largely from small trials, observational studies and case reports.⁷⁶

Protein intake

Protein intake varies widely around the world, and in some regions, this can create difficulties with low-carbohydrate diets. Most South Asian diets, for example, are low in protein. Apart from causing protein malnutrition and suboptimal muscle strength, these diets are characterized by high carbohydrate content. This stimulates insulin release, leading to hunger, thus stimulating more carbohydrate consumption, creating a vicious cycle. Changing to high-protein meals has the potential to break this cycle by increasing satiety,⁷⁷ reducing hunger, and achieving a balanced approach towards nutrition.

Once initiated, a high-protein diet can result in a 'virtuous cycle' of maintaining a normal metabolism, in which stresses on pancreatic islet cells are reduced.⁷⁸ Lower dietary carbohydrate intake leads to lesser secretion of insulin,³ which reduces the need for counter regulatory hormones, including glucagon. This allows normalization of endogenous hepatic glucose output. Though the KD is not necessarily hypocaloric,

it leads to weight loss, as excessive fat deposits are mobilized for fuel. The high protein intake has a muscle-sparing effect and prevents these important tissues from being utilized for energy.

Adherence to the ketogenic diet and sustainability

There is conflicting evidence regarding the adherence to KD, and its sustainability.³ Whilst there have been poor adherence rates in some long-term randomized controlled trials, adherence is equally poor for many other lifestyle modification therapies and pharmacological weight-loss interventions.⁷⁹ In fact, due to its high protein content, the KD offers higher satiety. This can help the individual restrict calories and meal frequency or quantity and can provide more sustained satisfaction from food. The converse is noted with some calorie-restricted or fat-restricted diets, which are associated with hunger and cravings, leading to high rates of weight rebound and dropout.

The sustainability of a KD is strongly influenced by the individual's social environment; this includes encouragement from family, peers, healthcare professionals and wider society. The modern world has developed a culinary, social and pecuniary environment that substantially favors carbohydrate intake over protein, making adherence to KD and other diets more difficult. Carbohydrates are widely available, relatively easy to cook and cost little to procure. Protein-dense foods, on the other hand, are mainly limited to animal sources, are generally less available and are more expensive. Creating vegetarian or vegan KD is possible but can be challenging.⁴¹ In some cultures, foods suitable for a KD requires culinary expertise and social knowledge to cook (e.g., halal meat), and are expensive. Some commentators including a few healthcare professionals have contributed to the perception of 'ketogenic' as being 'pathogenic', and discourage adherence to this diet. Once a KD-friendly culinary and psychosocial environment is created, biomedical adherence to KD would be easier to achieve.

Ketogenic diet and diabetes

In interventional studies of KD, people receiving this diet tend to be more motivated, and have a better compliance with the study diet plan, resulting in better outcomes in the study group. This explains the 1.3% reduction in HbA1c following 1-year use of a KD in one of the publicized non-randomized studies.⁸⁰ The results from well-conducted, blinded, randomized controlled trials are more tempered. In fact, a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials comparing the KD with low-fat diets reported no difference in weight loss and glycemic control in people living with T2DM.⁸¹ It must be realized that it is primarily weight loss due to calorie restriction that is responsible for better glycemic control in T2DM. In certain overweight to obese patients with T2DM, the extent of weight loss is associated with an increasing likelihood of diabetes reversal.⁸² However, evidence is lacking for any additional benefits from KD, apart from that arising from calorie restriction and weight loss.

Ketogenic diet and weight-loss outcomes

The KD approach has shown some efficacy in weight-loss programs. In a meta-analysis involving 13 different studies using varied diet plans, each having >1 year of follow-up, KD was associated with a slightly greater statistically significant weight loss when compared with other diet plans focused on low calorie, low fat, but predominantly high-carbohydrate diet.⁸⁰ However, in absolute numbers this translated into <1 kg of extra weight loss, which though statistically significant, is of limited clinical significance.⁵⁶

Another meta-analysis comprising 32 controlled feeding studies, found that energy expenditure and fat loss were greater with low-fat diets compared with KD.⁸³

Side effects of the ketogenic diet and impact on body systems

Every intervention in medicine can be associated with adverse effects, and dietary therapies, such as KD, are no exception. A high-protein diet may be associated with metabolic side effects such as variation in uric acid and lipid levels. Transient side effects such as 'ketoflu', experienced during the phase of keto-adaptation or keto-version, are self-limiting, and can be managed by adequate fluid and electrolyte supplementation.⁸⁴ These side effects are minor, however, when compared with the possible adverse effects of pharmacotherapeutic agents, and the potential damage that uncontrolled diabetes and obesity can cause.³ With low-calorie diets, there is no evidence of long-term deleterious effects or adverse cardiovascular outcomes. Reports of sudden death or the arrhythmogenic potential of such diets date to a period when basic precautions, such as hydration and mineral/vitamin supplementation, were not followed.⁸⁵ The long-term impact of a KD on cognitive and mental function is also not certain but some studies have found cognitive benefits in various patient groups including those with epilepsy, dementia and obesity.⁸⁶⁻⁹ It is critical that a KD is conducted only under strict medical supervision, and must not be promoted as a self-administered treatment. An understanding of the indications, contraindications, possible benefits, risks and harms, as well as caveats for safe use, are required to safely practice KD.

Cardiovascular system

The most common cause of death in people with diabetes and obesity is cardiovascular events. The initial enthusiasm regarding the beneficial impact of KD on cardiovascular risk factors has lately been questioned. The literature suggests that LDL cholesterol and apo-B-containing lipoprotein levels may fail to improve, or even significantly increase in people on a KD, in spite of weight loss.⁹⁰ The mild increase in HDL cholesterol with KD may be of little significance, as historically all treatments associated with increases in HDL cholesterol did not translate into reduced cardiovascular events. Selenium deficiency, impaired myocardial function and QT prolongation are believed to be responsible for the sudden cardiac deaths reported in children on a KD for seizures.⁹¹ Cardiovascular safety of the KD is a major issue, which remains unaddressed. In addition, there is a concerning trend of increased all-cause mortality noted from a large number of observational studies involving low-carbohydrate diets.⁹²

Renal function

The KD has been associated with an increased occurrence of renal stones.⁹³ This is a well-established phenomenon in children receiving a KD that was first reported in 1972.⁹⁴ Kidney stones are believed to occur in 1 in 20 children on a KD.⁹³ However, some reports have suggested that the occurrence of kidney stones is as high as 25% in children on KD over 6 years.⁴⁹ Hypercalciuria associated with KD is believed to have some role in this increased occurrence.⁹⁵ Hypercalciuria is a consequence of increased bone demineralization, which results from acidosis associated with KD, and this activates the osteoclasts and inhibits the osteoblasts.⁹⁵ Hypocitraturia associated with KD also promotes renal stone formation.⁹⁶ This is because citrate solubilizes free calcium in the urine; with decreased citrate in urine, more free calcium is available for stone formation.⁹⁶ The

general acidosis associated with KD leads to more acidic urine in which uric acid is less soluble, more readily forms crystals and can act as a nidus for calcium stone formation.^{93,96} Fluid restriction, especially in children on a KD, is also a risk factor for renal stones.⁹³ Alkalinization of the urine using oral potassium citrate has been found to be beneficial in reducing renal stone formation in people on KD. Potassium citrate solubilizes calcium, thus decreasing the concentration of free calcium available to crystallize, and also increases urine pH, leading to decreased renal stone formation.⁹³ Monitoring of the urine calcium to creatinine ratio may be a predictor of risk for renal stones in people on KD, although this has not been validated in studies as an effective screening tool.

Bone mineral health

Hahn et al. first reported the adverse effect of the KD on bone health in 1979.⁹⁷ The KD is associated with increased bone mineral loss and decreased bone mineral density (BMD). The chronic ketoacidosis associated with KD results in increased demand on bone minerals for the buffering capacity.⁹³ Acidosis is also associated with decreased renal conversion of the inactive 25-hydroxyvitamin-D to the active 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin-D, which is needed for increased absorption of calcium from the gut and decreased calcium loss in urine.⁹³ Decreased BMD on a KD has been documented as early as up to 15 months of use of KD.⁹⁸ Simm et al. reported that patients treated on a KD demonstrated an average decrease in BMD of 0.16 standard deviation (relative to age-matched referent children) for every year they remained on the diet.⁹⁹ The 2009 International KD Study Group consensus-based guidelines recommended periodic dual energy X-ray absorptiometry screening for assessment of bone health in patients on KD.^{51,99}

The liver and the hematopoietic system

Long-term use of the KD has been reported to be associated with liver parenchymal injury, transaminitis, fatty liver disease, and gall stones.¹⁰⁰ Both diarrhea as well as constipation have been reported with the KD. The occurrence of protein-losing enteropathy, hypoalbuminemia, and pancreatitis have also been reported from children on a KD.¹⁰⁰ Severe anemia, bicytopenia, and neutropenia due to micronutrient deficiencies in children on a KD, have also been reported.¹⁰¹ In addition, selenium and copper deficiency are especially common in people on a KD.¹⁰¹

Mouse model studies show that, despite a short-term KD regimen appearing to make animals healthier than those receiving an obesogenic high-fat diet, there was greater hepatic insulin resistance with KD compared with a high-fat diet.¹⁰² Glucose intolerance in these animals was correlated with increased lipid oxidation which causes the transmission of signals that limit the effect of insulin to decrease endogenous glucose production.

Discussion and conclusion

The use of KD as part of the basic management of diabetes remains controversial and has supporters and critics with widely differing views.⁴⁸ Given the epidemiology and pathophysiology of the disease, proponents argue that the KD is a logical measure which is supported by the results of pharmacological studies and clinical trials. Data from these investigations suggest that high-protein diets are associated with greater satiety, better adherence and sustainability, and lesser side effects.^{48,103,104} Some infer from these findings that the KD has a valuable role in the long-term management of at least some subtypes of T2DM. However, critics argue that KD is not superior to other forms of low-calorie diets

with regards to weight loss, glycemic control, and reversal of diabetes. It is an extreme form of diet that is virtually devoid of carbohydrates and risks various adverse events and multiple systemic problems with long-term use. They point out that it is primarily the persistent calorie restriction along with physical activity that is responsible for weight loss, and there are multiple different and safer ways of achieving it than using KD. Even intermittent fasting has been found to be effective for weight loss and diabetes control.¹⁰⁵ Critics therefore, conclude that in view of the effects, especially cardiovascular outcomes, routine use of KD cannot be recommended.

Overall, diet is an important but possibly underestimated aspect of diabetes. There is a need for objective, large-scale studies that would compare the risks and benefits of diets, particularly the KD, in diabetes and weight-loss regimens. To achieve this may require a medico-social environment that is conducive to the unbiased study and use of carbohydrate-restricted, normal-to-high protein diets. Such studies must include adequate control groups and be adequately powered to provide sufficiently strong evidence. These initiatives would be critical in guiding the improved management of a burgeoning population of diabetic and obese individuals worldwide. □

- Ogurtsova K, da Rocha Fernandes JD, Huang Y, et al. IDF Diabetes Atlas: Global estimates for the prevalence of diabetes for 2015 and 2040. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract.* 2017;128:40–50.
- Kalra S, Das AK, Raghupathy P, et al. Current indicators of nutritional care in children with type 1 diabetes in India: do we need a national nutritional guideline? *Indian J Endocrinol Metab.* 2017;21:670–8.
- Feinman RD, Pogozelski WK, Astrup A, et al. Dietary carbohydrate restriction as the first approach in diabetes management: critical review and evidence base. *Nutrition.* 2015;31:1–13.
- Aune D, Keum N, Giovannucci E, et al. Whole grain consumption and risk of cardiovascular disease, cancer, and all cause and cause specific mortality: systematic review and dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies. *BMJ.* 2016;353:i2716.
- Mohan V, Unnikrishnan R, Shobana S, et al. Are excess carbohydrates the main link to diabetes & its complications in Asians? *Indian J Med Res.* 2018;148:531–8.
- Bikbov MM, Fayzrahmanov RR, Kazakbaeva GM, et al. Prevalence, awareness and control of diabetes in Russia: The Ural Eye and Medical Study on adults aged 40+ years. *PLoS One.* 2019;14:e0215636.
- Gross LS, Li L, Ford ES, et al. Increased consumption of refined carbohydrates and the epidemic of type 2 diabetes in the United States: an ecologic assessment. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2004;79:774–9.
- Su C, Zhao J, Wu Y, et al. Temporal trends in dietary macronutrient intakes among adults in rural China from 1991 to 2011: findings from the CHNS. *Nutrients.* 2017;9:227.
- Wang L, Gao P, Zhang M, et al. Prevalence and ethnic pattern of diabetes and prediabetes in China in 2013. *JAMA.* 2017;317:2515–23.
- Berger S, Raman G, Vishwanathan R, et al. Dietary cholesterol and cardiovascular disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2015;102:276–94.
- Fleming RM. The effect of high-, moderate-, and low-fat diets on weight loss and cardiovascular disease risk factors. *Prev Cardiol.* 2002;5:110–8.
- Howard BV, Van Horn L, Hsia J, et al. Low-fat dietary pattern and risk of cardiovascular disease: the Women's Health Initiative Randomized Controlled Dietary Modification Trial. *JAMA.* 2006;295:655–66.
- Malik VS, Hu FB. Obesity Prevention. In: Prabhakaran D, Anand S, Gaziano TA, et al. editors. *Cardiovascular, Respiratory, and Related Disorders.* 3rd edition. Washington (DC): The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank; 2017 Nov 17. Chapter 7. Available at: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK525156/ (accessed October 31, 2019).
- Defronzo RA. From the triumvirate to the ominous octet: a new paradigm for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes.* 2009;58:773–95.
- Kalra S, Chawla R, Madhu SV. The dirty dozen of diabetes. *Indian J Endocrinol Metab.* 2013;17:367–9.
- Joslin EP. The treatment of diabetes mellitus. *Can Med Assoc J.* 1916;6:673–84.
- Lovejoy JC. The influence of dietary fat on insulin resistance. *Curr Diab Rep.* 2002;2:435–40.
- Bierman EL, Albrink MJ, Arky RA, et al. Principles of nutrition and dietary recommendations for patients with diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes.* 1971;20:633–4.
- Kahan S, Manson JE. Nutrition counseling in clinical practice: how clinicians can do better. *JAMA.* 2017;318:1101–2.
- Lianov L, Johnson M. Physician competencies for prescribing lifestyle medicine. *JAMA.* 2010;304:202–3.
- Inzucchi SE, Bergenstal RM, Buse JB, et al. Management of hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes, 2015: a patient-centered approach: update to a position statement of the American Diabetes Association and the European Association for the Study of Diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2015;38:140–9.
- Evert AB, Boucher JL, Cypress M, et al. Nutrition therapy recommendations for the management of adults with diabetes. *Diabetes Care.* 2014;37(Suppl. 1):S120–43.
- Miller BV, Bertino JS, Reed RG, et al. An evaluation of the Atkins' diet. *Metab Syndr Relat Disord.* 2003;1:299–309.
- Campbell AP. DASH eating plan: an eating pattern for diabetes management. *Diabetes Spectr.* 2017;30:76–81.
- Parmar G, Shaikh S, Joshi A, et al. The Da Vinci diet. *J Pak Med Assoc.* 2018;68:1724–6.
- Gandhi M. *Key to Health.* Mumbai, India: Popular Prakashan Ltd. 2012.
- Archundia Herrera MC, Subhan FB, Chan CB. Dietary patterns and cardiovascular disease risk in people with type 2 diabetes. *Curr Obes Rep.* 2017;6:405–13.
- Augustin LS, Kendall CW, Jenkins DJ, et al. Glycemic index, glycemic load and glycemic response: an international scientific consensus summit from the International Carbohydrate Quality Consortium (ICQC). *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.* 2015;25:795–815.
- Bajorek SA, Morello CM. Effects of dietary fiber and low glycemic index diet on glucose control in subjects with type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Ann Pharmacother.* 2010;44:1786–92.
- Ojo O, Ojo OO, Wang XH, Adeboye ARA. The effects of a low GI diet on cardiometabolic and inflammatory parameters in patients with type 2 and gestational diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Nutrients.* 2019;11:1584.
- Vega-Lopez S, Venn BJ, Slavin JL. Relevance of the glycemic index and glycemic load for body weight, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease. *Nutrients.* 2018;10:1316.
- D'Innocenzo S, Biagi C, Lanari M. Obesity and the Mediterranean diet: a review of evidence of the role and sustainability of the Mediterranean diet. *Nutrients.* 2019;11:1306.
- Pitt CE. Cutting through the Paleo hype: the evidence for the Palaeolithic diet. *Aust Fam Physician.* 2016;45:35–8.
- Kalra S, Baruah MP, Saboo BD. Gandhian nutrition. *J Med Nutr Nutraceut.* 2015;4:1.
- Diabetes UK. Evidence-based nutrition guidelines for the prevention and management of diabetes. 2018. Available at: www.diabetes.org.uk/professionals/position-statements-reports/food-nutrition-lifestyle/evidence-based-nutrition-guidelines-for-the-prevention-and-management-of-diabetes (accessed October 24, 2019).
- Dyson PA, Twenefour D, Breen C, et al. Diabetes UK evidence-based nutrition guidelines for the prevention and management of diabetes. *Diabet Med.* 2018;35:541–7.
- American Diabetes Association. 5. Lifestyle management: standards of medical care in diabetes-2019. *Diabetes Care.* 2019;42:S46–60.
- Diabetes Canada Clinical Practice Guidelines Expert Committee, Sievenpiper JL, Chan CB, et al. Nutrition therapy. *Can J Diabetes.* 2018;42(Suppl. 1):S64–79.
- Mann JJ, De Leeuw I, Hermansen K, et al. Evidence-based nutritional approaches to the treatment and prevention of diabetes mellitus. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.* 2004;14:373–94.
- Diabetes Australia. What should I eat? Australian dietary guidelines. 2015. Available at: www.diabetesaustralia.com.au/what-should-i-eat (accessed October 24, 2019).
- Gupta L, Khandelwal D, Kalra S, et al. Ketogenic diet in endocrine disorders: current perspectives. *J Postgrad Med.* 2017;63:242–51.
- Azar ST, Beydoun HM, Albadi MR. Benefits of ketogenic diet for management of type two diabetes: a review. *J Obes Eat Disord.* 2016;2:2.
- Bolla AM, Caretto A, Laurenzi A, et al. Low-carb and ketogenic diets in type 1 and type 2 diabetes. *Nutrients.* 2019;11:962.
- Paoli A, Mancin L, Bianco A, et al. Ketogenic diet and microbiota: friends or enemies? *Genes (Basel).* 2019;10:534.
- Paoli A, Rubini A, Volek JS, et al. Beyond weight loss: a review of the therapeutic uses of very-low-carbohydrate (ketogenic) diets. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2013;67:789–96.
- Murtaza N, Burke LM, Vlahovich N, et al. The effects of dietary pattern during intensified training on stool microbiota of elite race walkers. *Nutrients.* 2019;11:261.
- Paoli A. Ketogenic diet for obesity: friend or foe? *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2014;11:2092–107.
- Kroesbeck DK, Bluml RM, Kossoff EH. Long-term use of the ketogenic diet in the treatment of epilepsy. *Dev Med Child Neurol.* 2006;48:978–81.
- Grobleau V, Schall JJ, Stallings VA, et al. Long-term impact of the ketogenic diet on growth and resting energy expenditure in children with intractable epilepsy. *Dev Med Child Neurol.* 2014;56:898–904.
- Kossoff EH, Zupuc-Kania BA, Amark PE, et al. Optimal clinical management of children receiving the ketogenic diet: recommendations of the International Ketogenic Diet Study Group. *Epilepsia.* 2009;50:304–17.
- Kosinski C, Jorjanyaz FR. Effects of ketogenic diets on cardiovascular risk factors: evidence from animal and human studies. *Nutrients.* 2017;9:517.
- Masino SA, Rho JM. Mechanisms of ketogenic diet action. In: Noebels JL, Avoli M, Rogawski MA, et al., editors. *Jasper's Basic Mechanisms of the Epilepsies* [Internet]. 4th edition. Bethesda (MD): National Center for Biotechnology Information (US); 2012.
- Sikder K, Shukla SK, Patel N, et al. High fat diet upregulates fatty acid oxidation and ketogenesis via intervention of PPAR-gamma. *Cell Physiol Biochem.* 2018;48:1317–31.
- Zhang HW, Zhao X, Guo YL, et al. Free fatty acids and cardiovascular outcome: a Chinese cohort study on stable coronary artery disease. *Nutr Metab (Lond).* 2017;14:41.
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. Fats and fatty acids in human nutrition - Report of an expert consultation. 2010. Available at: www.fao.org/3/a-i1953e.pdf (accessed October 23, 2019).
- Joshi S, Ostfeld RJ, McMacken M. The ketogenic diet for obesity and diabetes-enthusiasm outpaces evidence. *JAMA Intern Med.* 2019. doi: 10.1001/jamainternmed.2019.2633. [Epub ahead of print].
- Clifton P, Carter S, Headland M, et al. Low carbohydrate and ketogenic diets in type 2 diabetes. *Curr Opin Lipidol.* 2015;26:594–5.
- Lennerz BS, Barton A, Bernstein RK, et al. Management of type 1 diabetes with a very low-carbohydrate diet. *Pediatrics.* 2018;141:e20173349.
- Bradford A. Live Science. Low-Fat Diet: Facts, Benefits & Risks. 2015. Available at: www.livescience.com/52851-low-fat-diet-facts.html (accessed October 24, 2019).
- Brinkworth GD, Buckley JD, Noakes M, et al. Long-term effects of a very low-carbohydrate diet and a low-fat diet on mood and cognitive function. *Arch Intern Med.* 2009;169:1873–80.
- The Nutrition Source (Harvard). Low-Fat Diet Not a Cure-All. 2006. Available at: www.hsph.harvard.edu/nutritionsource/2006/02/09/low-fat-diet-not-a-cure-all-womens-health-initiative/ (accessed October 24, 2019).
- Clifton PM, Keogh JB. A systematic review of the effect of dietary saturated and polyunsaturated fat on heart disease. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.* 2017;27:1060–80.
- Frigolet ME, Ramos Barragan VE, Tamez Gonzalez M. Low-carbohydrate diets: a matter of love or hate. *Ann Nutr Metab.* 2011;58:320–34.
- Oh R, Uppaluri KR. Low Carbohydrate Diet. [Updated 2019 Jul 29]. In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing; 2019. Available at: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK537084/ (accessed October 31, 2019).
- Santesso N, Akl EA, Bianchi M, et al. Effects of higher- versus lower-protein diets on health outcomes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2012;66:780–8.
- Snorgaard O, Poulsen GM, Andersen HK, et al. Systematic review and meta-analysis of dietary carbohydrate restriction in patients with type 2 diabetes. *BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care.* 2017;5:e00354.
- Tobias DK, Chen M, Manson JE, et al. Effect of low-fat diet interventions versus other diet interventions on long-term weight change in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol.* 2015;3:968–79.
- Kubala K. Healthline, What is the cyclical ketogenic diet? Everything you need to know. 2018. Available at: www.healthline.com/nutrition/cyclical-ketogenic-diet (accessed October 28, 2019).
- Stanton B. The targeted ketogenic diet: everything you need to know. 2019. Available at: <https://perfectketo.com/targeted-ketogenic-diet/> (accessed October 28, 2019).
- Johnstone AM, Horgan GW, Murison SD, et al. Effects of a high-protein ketogenic diet on hunger, appetite, and weight loss in obese men feeding ad libitum. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2008;87:44–55.
- Boden G, Sargrad K, Homko C, et al. Effect of a low-carbohydrate diet on appetite, blood glucose levels, and insulin resistance in obese patients with type 2 diabetes. *Ann Intern Med.* 2005;142:403–11.
- Samaha FF, Iqbal N, Seshadri P, et al. A low-carbohydrate as compared with a low-fat diet in severe obesity. *N Engl J Med.* 2003;348:2074–81.
- Hussain TA, Mathew TC, Dashti AA, et al. Effect of low-calorie versus low-carbohydrate ketogenic diet in type 2 diabetes. *Nutrition.* 2012;28:1016–21.
- Mayer SB, Jeffreys AS, Olsen MK, et al. Two diets with different

- haemoglobin A1c and antiglycaemic medication effects despite similar weight loss in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Obes Metab*. 2014;16:90–3.
75. Westman EC, Yancy WS, Jr, Mavropoulos JC, et al. The effect of a low-carbohydrate, ketogenic diet versus a low-glycemic index diet on glycemic control in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Nutr Metab (Lond)*. 2008;5:36.
 76. Diamond M, Clarke EJ. Low-Carbohydrate diets and glycaemic control in type 1 diabetes mellitus. *EMJ Diabet*. 2018;6:70–7.
 77. Morell P, Fisman S. Revisiting the role of protein-induced satiation and satiety. *Food Hydrocoll*. 2017;68:199–210.
 78. Jonas JC, Bensellam M, Duprez J, et al. Glucose regulation of islet stress responses and beta-cell failure in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Obes Metab*. 2009;11(Suppl. 4):65–81.
 79. Leung AWY, Chan RSM, Sea MMM, Woo J. An overview of factors associated with adherence to lifestyle modification programs for weight management in adults. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2017;14:922.
 80. Bueno NB, de Melo IS, de Oliveira SL, et al. Very-low-carbohydrate ketogenic diet v. low-fat diet for long-term weight loss: a meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Br J Nutr*. 2013;110:1178–87.
 81. Hallberg SJ, McKenzie AL, Williams PT, et al. Effectiveness and safety of a novel care model for the management of type 2 diabetes at 1 year: an open-label, non-randomized, controlled study. *Diabetes Ther*. 2018;9:583–612.
 82. Lean MEJ, Leslie WS, Barnes AC, et al. Durability of a primary care-led weight-management intervention for remission of type 2 diabetes: 2-year results of the DIRECT open-label, cluster-randomised trial. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol*. 2019;7:344–55.
 83. Hall KD, Chen KY, Guo J, et al. Energy expenditure and body composition changes after an isocaloric ketogenic diet in overweight and obese men. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2016;104:324–33.
 84. Harvey C, Schofield GM, Williden M. The use of nutritional supplements to induce ketosis and reduce symptoms associated with keto-induction: a narrative review. *PeerJ*. 2018;6:e4488.
 85. Westman EC, Mavropoulos J, Yancy WS, et al. A review of low-carbohydrate ketogenic diets. *Curr Atheroscler Rep*. 2003;5:476–83.
 86. Hernandez AR, Hernandez CM, Campos K, et al. A ketogenic diet improves cognition and has biochemical effects in prefrontal cortex that are dissociable from hippocampus. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2018;10:391.
 87. Lambrechts DA, Bovens MJ, de la Parra NM, et al. Ketogenic diet effects on cognition, mood, and psychosocial adjustment in children. *Acta Neurol Scand*. 2013;127:103–8.
 88. Mohorko N, Cernelic-Bizjak M, Poklar-Vatovec T, et al. Weight loss, improved physical performance, cognitive function, eating behavior, and metabolic profile in a 12-week ketogenic diet in obese adults. *Nutr Res*. 2019;62:64–77.
 89. van Berkel AA, Iff DM, Verkuyll JM. Cognitive benefits of the ketogenic diet in patients with epilepsy: a systematic overview. *Epilepsy Behav*. 2018;87:69–77.
 90. Retterstol K, Svendsen M, Narverud I, et al. Effect of low carbohydrate high fat diet on LDL cholesterol and gene expression in normal-weight, young adults: a randomized controlled study. *Atherosclerosis*. 2018;279:52–61.
 91. Bank IM, Shemie SD, Rosenblatt B, et al. Sudden cardiac death in association with the ketogenic diet. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2008;39:429–31.
 92. Noto H, Goto A, Tsujimoto T, et al. Low-carbohydrate diets and all-cause mortality: a systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. *PLoS One*. 2013;8:e55030.
 93. Sampath A, Kossoff EH, Furth SL, et al. Kidney stones and the ketogenic diet: risk factors and prevention. *J Child Neurol*. 2007;22:375–8.
 94. Livingstone S. *Comprehensive Management of Epilepsy in Infancy, Childhood, and Adolescence*. Springfield, IL, USA: Charles C Thomas Pub Ltd. 1972.
 95. Furth SL, Casey JC, Pyzik PL, et al. Risk factors for urolithiasis in children on the ketogenic diet. *Pediatr Nephrol*. 2000;15:125–8.
 96. Bushinsky DA. Nephrolithiasis. *J Am Soc Nephrol*. 1998;9:917–24.
 97. Hahn TJ, Halstead LR, DeVivo DC. Disordered mineral metabolism produced by ketogenic diet therapy. *Calcif Tissue Int*. 1979;28:17–22.
 98. Bergqvist AG, Schall JI, Stallings VA, et al. Progressive bone mineral content loss in children with intractable epilepsy treated with the ketogenic diet. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2008;88:1678–84.
 99. Simm PJ, Bicknell-Royle J, Lawrie J, et al. The effect of the ketogenic diet on the developing skeleton. *Epilepsy Res*. 2017;136:62–6.
 100. Arslan N, Guzel O, Kose E, et al. Is ketogenic diet treatment hepatotoxic for children with intractable epilepsy? *Seizure*. 2016;43:32–8.
 101. Rashidian H, Liu YMC, Geraghty MT, et al. Severe neutropenia and anemia in a child with epilepsy and copper deficiency on a ketogenic diet. *Pediatr Neurol*. 2017;76:93–4.
 102. Grandl G, Straub L, Rudigier C, et al. Short-term feeding of a ketogenic diet induces more severe hepatic insulin resistance than an obesogenic high-fat diet. *J Physiol*. 2018;596:4597–609.
 103. Veldhorst M, Smeets A, Soenen S, et al. Protein-induced satiety: effects and mechanisms of different proteins. *Physiol Behav*. 2008;94:300–7.
 104. Westerterp-Plantenga MS, Nieuwenhuizen A, Tome D, et al. Dietary protein, weight loss, and weight maintenance. *Annu Rev Nutr*. 2009;29:21–41.
 105. Harris L, Hamilton S, Azevedo LB, et al. Intermittent fasting interventions for treatment of overweight and obesity in adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JBIM Database System Rev Implement Rep*. 2018;16:507–47.
 106. Accurso A, Bernstein RK, Dahlqvist A, et al. Dietary carbohydrate restriction in type 2 diabetes mellitus and metabolic syndrome: time for a critical appraisal. *Nutr Metab (Lond)*. 2008;5:9.
 107. Evert AB, Dennison M, Gardner CD, et al. Nutrition therapy for adults with diabetes or prediabetes: a consensus report. *Diabetes Care*. 2019;42:731–54.
 108. Marin-Penalver JJ, Martin-Timon I, Sevillano-Collantes C, et al. Update on the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *World J Diabetes*. 2016;7:354–95.
 109. Nielsen JV, Joensuu EA. Low-carbohydrate diet in type 2 diabetes: stable improvement of bodyweight and glycemic control during 44 months follow-up. *Nutr Metab (Lond)*. 2008;5:14.
 110. Hue L, Taegtmeier H. The Randle cycle revisited: a new head for an old hat. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*. 2009;297:E578–91.
 111. American Fitness Professionals & Associates (AFPA). What are the pros and cons of the keto diet? 2018. Available at: www.afpafitness.com/blog/what-are-the-pros-and-cons-of-the-keto-diet (accessed October 23, 2018).