

Night Eating Behavior, Sleep Quality and Metabolic Health

Abstract

Sleep patterns and metabolic processes are significantly impacted by the period of meal intake, based on chrononutrition studies. Late food intake, night hyperphagia, and overnight snacking are illustrations of night eating patterns that result in a circadian disturbance and impair the core body temperature fall that determines the start of sleep. Untimely feeding inhibits N3 slow-wave sleep, minimizes REM duration, increases overnight blood glucose and insulin levels, and triggers the sympathetic nervous system, as shown by research results. Phase alterations in peripheral clock genes, delayed emptying of the stomach with reflux-related impulses, and hormonal abnormalities (higher ghrelin, depressed leptin) additionally interfere with sleep and disrupt the metabolic rhythm the following day. Recent study results on humans confirms an inverse relationship: not getting enough sleep increases rewarding late-night eating, and late eating reduces sleep quality, leading to an endless cycle that results in metabolic disorders and obesity. The existing methods associating night eating to sleep impairment and long-term metabolic impacts are presented in this study.

1. Introduction

A unique circadian timing process that regulates inner biological activities with the environmental 24-hour light-dark cycle regulates the human body. With remarkable efficiency, this system manages the release of hormones, pathways of metabolism, digestive system activity, brain activity, and cycles of sleep and wakefulness. Metabolic processes are best suited for eating, exercising, and concentrating during the day. Nighttime physiology, on the opposite hand, concentrates on deep sleep, anabolic hormone release, repair of cells, immune system restoration, and fasting.

By increasing the need for energy during a biological period suitable for rest, night eating disturbs this sensitive structure. Present-day lifestyle problems as artificial lighting, expanded screen time, stress-related nighttime munching, job shifts, social delay, inconsistent habits, and major regulations of daily schedules are held responsible for the increasing rate of late-night eating. These changes in behaviors end in a continuous circadian instability, which has now been identified as a major root cause of metabolic conditions, obesity, and poor sleeping. Assessing the numerous effects of night eating on the risk of long-term illness, concentration, mental wellness, and metabolic health has become significant.

2. The Nutritional Time Line and Circadian Rhythm

Insulin reactions, tolerance to glucose, stomach activity, heat production, and hormonal metabolism are all altered by the circadian rhythms. The sensitivity to insulin and glucose tolerance are at their highest levels in the morning and early in the day, whereas metabolic reduction occurs in the evening. Nutrient digestion becomes inefficient and physiologically exhausting as levels of melatonin increase during the biological process of night, delaying stomach emptying as well as decreasing the release of insulin.

3. The Consequences of Night Eating on Body Metabolism

Through related hormonal, cognitive, and digestive mechanisms, eating at night affect metabolism. One crucial reason is the relationship between insulin and melatonin: pancreatic β -cells reduce insulin release in order to encourage fasting physiology when levels of melatonin rise in the evening. When food is eaten in this condition, tissues are bombarded with ongoing

hyperglycemia as glucose tolerance decreases significantly. This eventually leads to increased fat storage, enhanced insulin resistance, and metabolic intolerance.

The nocturnal hyperglycemia and continual postprandial insulin elevations can be followed by waves of sympathetic activation and transitions from N3 to less intense sleep phases, which minimize the glucoregulatory advantages associated with slow-wave sleep and induce insulin resistance throughout the following day, per polysomnography and continuous tracking of glucose.

Undesirable alterations to hormonal appetite control also happen throughout the evening. The hormone causing desire for food which is called ghrelin is still elevated at the last moments of the day, in particular when sleep habits are disturbed. Leptin, which normally peaks at night and controls fullness, gets eliminated as some additional food have been consumed in the evening. This hormone mismatch describes why individuals exhibit higher demands and less appetite at late at night, which often results in snacking. This provides an explanation why disturbed sleep and evening hyperphagia usually occur together. Both sleep-restriction and sleep-fragmentation investigations showed lower leptin, higher ghrelin, and impaired REM and N3 sleep after even one or two nights with inadequate sleep.

Furthermore, eating at night increases the pressure on the digestive system at a time when the activity of digestive enzymes diminishes and the emptying of the stomach slows. Reflux, bloating, digestive problems, and repetitive sleep awakenings are all a result of this imbalance. In scientific studies, individuals who frequently eat late had greater continuous levels of glucose, decreased oxidation of fat, and increased thermogenesis at nighttime, all of which disrupt metabolic homeostasis and the quality of their sleep. Nocturnal gastro-oesophageal reflux episodes are connected with cortical wakefulness and switches from deeper to lighter levels of sleep, in line with polysomnography and 24-hour pH-impedance analyses. These lead to broken sleep cycles and excessive tiredness during the day.

4. Stages of Sleep and Eating at Late at Night

Eating at night causes significant disturbances to the structure of sleep. Active digestion and an increased inner body temperature extend the latency for sleep during N1 light sleep. People commonly describe feeling "tired but incapable of to fall asleep," which is caused by postponed body temperature cooling, which is an important step in the initial stages of sleep. Various experimental and observational study results have shown that whereas spikes in core body temperature in the hours right before bedtime postpone the latency to sleep and increase frequent awakenings, distal vasodilation supports sleep initialization through causing core body temperature to decline by generally 0.5–1.0 °C.

N2, which constitutes up most of sleep, is also impaired. The constancy of this stage is undermined by postprandial temperature rise, which causes changes in heartbeat and the autonomic nervous system activity. The frequency of small awakenings rises, resulting in an interrupted sleep pattern that lowers the beneficial effects of sleep.

The most beneficial phase of sleep, N3 slow-wave sleep, is especially sensitive. Late feeding impairs N3, which is crucial to growth hormone release, immune system repair, and nighttime fat burning. Decreased N3 sleep has been linked with poorer control of glucose, higher appetites, exhaustion the next day, and decreased mental clarity.

Cognitive ability, metabolic transmission, and emotional regulation all are linked to REM sleep. Late meals rich in fat or carbohydrates have been shown to increase disturbed sleep, shorten total REM duration, and postpone REM initialization. Enhanced stress responsiveness, insufficient emotion management, and malfunctioning metabolism have been associated with a permanent decrease in REM.

5. Limitation of Growth Hormone

The initial N3 cycle occurs when the release of growth hormone spikes, however eating at night significantly disrupts this process. GH pulses are right away blocked by elevated insulin levels, and the amplitude of GH is further suppressed by elevated glucose at night. These effects get worse by circadian irregularities, which decreases total growth hormone production throughout the night and impairs metabolic repair.

6. Optimal Sleep Duration

As shown by the latest studies, receiving seven to nine hours of sleep each night enhances a stable metabolism. High appetite, more late-hour eating, higher ghrelin, lower leptin, poorer glucose metabolism, and an increased likelihood of obesity and the metabolic syndrome are all clearly linked with decreased sleep duration which is less than six hours.

7. Shift Workers and Postpartum Mothers

Frequent circadian imbalances, impaired N3 and REM sleep, and a significantly greater likelihood of obesity and metabolic dysfunction are all observed in night shift workers. Glycemic management and quality of sleep have been negatively affected by their forced late-day meals.

Particular metabolic problems, such as interrupted sleep, higher evening cortisol, decreased slow-wave sleep, and increased weight regain, are observed by postpartum mothers; late-night intake of calories worsens these issues.

8. Night Eating Syndrome (NES)

Night hyperphagia, late meals, an irregular circadian phase, and sleep disruptions are the main symptoms of night eating syndrome. NES can be defined by shortened REM sleep, heightened evening appetite, delayed release of melatonin, and a depressed leptin rhythm. It is an example of biological clock error that is significant in clinical terms.

9. Chronotype and Night Eating

People who have a nighttime chronotype have a tendency to eat afterwards at night. They have higher BMI, increased metabolic dysfunction, delayed meal schedules, shorter sleep duration, poor sleep quality, and postponed melatonin onset. The physiological adverse effects of late-night eating become worse by chronotype imbalances.

10. Time Restricted Eating (TRE)

Time-restricted eating is a great and beneficial way to support individuals who frequently eat late. Time-restricted eating places a greater value on synchronizing the consumption of food with the circadian rhythm than standard calorie-restriction approaches. By optimizing calorie intake during periods of high sensitivity to insulin along with rapid glucose utilization, early TRE periods, usually 08:00–16:00 or 10:00–18:00, take benefit of the body's natural physiological pattern.

TRE has observable effects upon sleep in besides alterations in metabolism. Early eating periods have been linked with earlier sleep onset, less nightly awakenings, better sleep effectiveness, and a decreased evening craving. This modification minimizes the need for self-control and is helpful in quitting the nighttime eating behavior. Also, TRE enhances morning energy levels, daytime metabolic mobility, and cognitive concentration, all of which are linked with better mitochondrial function along with regulated glucose patterns.

These outcomes illustrate that meal timing alterations are more than just a food management; they are a whole circadian intervention with implications crossing the metabolic, hormonal, and cerebral systems.

11. Patterns of the Gut Microbiota and Night Eating

The circadian cycles of the gut microbiota correspond with the cycles of eating and fasting. Eating at night lowers the production of butyrate, increases permeability in the gastrointestinal tract, promotes inflammation, and negatively impacts glucose tolerance by interrupting microbial movements that result in "microbial jet lag." Problems with sleeping dramatically contribute to microbial imbalances.

12. The Thermal Development of Brown Adipose Tissue

Brown adipose tissue indicates circadian changes as thermogenesis proceeds more rapidly throughout the day. Eating at night inhibits diet-induced thermogenesis and the overall energy expenditure by restricting BAT activity. Enhanced fat storage is the consequence of this drop.

13. Night Eating and Its Mental Aspects

Both of physiologic and psychological factors effect eating at night. Inadequate sleep raises reward pathway activity, promotes eating behavior due to emotions, lowers cognitive inhibitory regulation, and stimulates cravings for meals that contain lots of calories. Late hyperphagia is additionally triggered by stress and mental dysregulation.

14. Composition of Evening Macronutrients

The uneven distribution of macronutrients in the evening has a significant effect on the quantity and quality of sleep. Meals high in carbohydrates restrict GH secretion and prolong the onset of REM. A high-fat diet create fragmentation in sleep and limit REM periods. Dinners high in protein, on the reverse hand, accelerate the beginning of sleep, regulate blood sugar levels, and induce sensation of fullness.

15. The Consequences of Circadian Abnormalities on Epigenetics

Clock gene activity becomes altered in all metabolic tissues when food is consumed at improper circadian periods. Apart from the pathway of metabolism, core clock genes such CLOCK, BMAL1, PER, and CRY develop transcription-translation feedback systems in the suprachiasmatic nucleus and peripheral tissues that closely manage the sleep system and sleep-wake rhythm. Improper consumption can alter the phase of these peripheral clocks without effectively triggering the central pacemaker, which is considered to be responsible for of late food eaters' poor quality of sleep and developed social jetlag. Long-term metabolic remodeling emerges from these adjustments, which include changes in histone acetylation and DNA methylation. Consequently, eating at night has metabolic consequences that are both direct and genetically mediated.

16. Night Eating and Late Light Exposure

Being exposed to blue light at night increases the resistance to glucose on the next morning, restricts melatonin secretion, and delays circadian rhythm. The circadian irregularity becomes more severe when night eating is included as well, which alters metabolic side effects and sleep pattern.

Conclusion

Eating at night alters the circadian rhythm, sleep construction, growth hormone release, glucose metabolism, hormones related to hunger, microbiome pattern, and long-term metabolic abnormalities. Recent study data underlines the long-term consequences of persistent circadian imbalances within these well-established mechanisms. As time goes on, the sensitivity of insulin, thermogenesis, and cortisol scheduling can all change considerably with even small alterations such eating between one and two hours later. Although metabolic tissues store some kind of "circadian recall," continuous late-night feeding gradually disrupts peripheral clocks in the liver, adipose tissue, pancreas, and gut. Therefore, the ongoing nature of these abnormalities are especially important.

The influence of night eating on metabolic rigidity is another generally recognised outcome. The body was created to depend upon lipid oxidation all through the biological night; eating sugary foods or mixed meals during this time frame impairs this mechanism, which causes lowered nighttime consumption of fats and unproductive metabolism the following day. Indirect calorimetry studies confirm that people who consistently eat late demonstrate greater respiratory ratio values and lower 24-hour fat oxidation, which are hallmarks of metabolic rigidity. This effect is particularly evident in shift workers, postpartum mothers, and people with late chronotypes, revealing an important connection across genetic background and external factors.

The mutually beneficial effect of the relation amongst night eating and sleep quality has been confirmed by recent human study results. Lack of quality sleep is associated to higher probabilities of excessive or emotional eating, NES symptoms, and late-night snacking, as demonstrated by longitudinal and cross-sectional investigations in students at colleges, psychiatric inpatients, and community members. Likewise, elevated start of night-eating or unregulated eating scores indicate later drops in the Sleep Quality Index of Pittsburgh evaluations. Not getting enough sleep makes individuals particularly vulnerable to psychological or stress-induced eating due to the decreased cognitive processing and increases appetite at night, particular for meals high in energy. Additionally, eating at night negatively impacts the quality of sleep through influencing the regularity of core body temperature, rising glucose levels at night, and contributing to intestinal problems. This continuous cycle has been found to be an essential component associating nighttime eating to metabolic conditions and obesity.

Moreover, current evidence shows that eating late at night harms neurological functions through influencing the reward pathways connected to food desire response and disrupting the pattern of glucose activity in the brain. Overeating is more prevalent in the evening due to the prefrontal cortex, which is responsible in impulse regulation and deciding, becomes more inactive. People tend to choose high in calories snacks at night since they have this neurobiological awareness, and it is even more apparent when they are sleep deficient.

In conclusion, chrononutrition-based treatments are being recognized as helpful and successful ways of fixing circadian balance. Early limitations on time, pre-decided evening routines,

balanced evening macronutrient distribution, less exposure to light in the evening, mindful stress management, and defined wake-sleep routines are a few of these. These routines can promote physiological strength, hormone regulation, cognitive function and quality sleep while keep away the attention from limiting calories alone to managing the body's own cycles.

References

- Al-Jawarneh, M., Chauhan, S., Csölle, I., & Lohner, S. (2025). *The association of unhealthy eating behaviors with sleep quality outcomes among university students: A cross-sectional study*. *Nutrients*, 17(22), 3580. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu17223580>
- Allison, K. C., Lundgren, J., O'Reardon, J. P., et al. (2016). Proposed diagnostic criteria for night eating syndrome. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 49(4), 349–365.
- BaHammam, A. S., & Pirzada, A. (2023). Timing matters: The interplay between early mealtime, circadian rhythms, gene expression, circadian hormones, and metabolism—A narrative review. *Clocks & Sleep*, 5(3), 507–535. <https://doi.org/10.3390/clockssleep5030035>
- Chaput, J.-P., Dutil, C., & Sampasa-Kanyinga, H. (2023). Sleep duration and metabolic health: A systematic review. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*, 67, 101748.
- Charrier, A., Olliac, B., Roubertoux, P., & Tordjman, S. (2017). Clock genes and altered sleep–wake rhythms: Their role in the development of psychiatric disorders. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 18(5), 938. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms18050938>
- Chellappa, S. L., Morris, C. J., Zuraikat, F. M., et al. (2022). Circadian misalignment reduces insulin sensitivity and alters hormone rhythms in humans. *PNAS*, 119(5), e2116235119.
- Chellappa, S. L., Qian, J., Vujovic, N., et al. (2021). Melatonin and late eating impair glucose tolerance. *Journal of Pineal Research*, 71(1), e12759.
- Çiftçi, S., & Kızıl, M. (2023). Is there a link between sleep quality and a tendency for eating disorders? *Beslenme ve Diyet Dergisi*, 51(2), 34–44.
- França, L. M., Costa, C. H., & Veldhuis, J. (2019). Insulin-mediated suppression of growth hormone secretion. *Frontiers in Endocrinology*, 10, 852.
- Garaulet, M., Pérez-Llamas, F., Gómez-Abellán, P., et al. (2022). Chronotype, late eating, and metabolic outcomes. *Nutrients*, 14(12), 2345.
- Greer, S. M., Goldstein, A. N., & Walker, M. P. (2013). Sleep deprivation enhances food reward brain responses. *Nature Communications*, 4, 2259.
- Guda, N., Partington, S., & Vakil, N. (2004). Symptomatic gastro-oesophageal reflux, arousals and sleep quality in patients undergoing polysomnography for possible obstructive sleep apnoea. *Alimentary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 20(10), 1153–1159. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2036.2004.02263.x>
- Gurges, P., Murray, B. J., & Boulos, M. I. (2022). Relationship between gastroesophageal reflux disease and objective sleep quality. *Journal of Clinical Sleep Medicine*, 18(12), 2731–2738. <https://doi.org/10.5664/jcsm.10198>
- Harding, E. C., Franks, N. P., & Wisden, W. (2019). The temperature dependence of sleep. *Frontiers in Neuroscience*, 13, 336. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnins.2019.00336>
- Huang, Y., Cao, H., Yang, J., & Zhang, X. (2024). Exacerbation of symptoms, nocturnal acid reflux, and sleep disturbance in patients with gastroesophageal reflux disease. *Frontiers in Medicine*, 11, 1438698. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2024.1438698>

- Insana, S. P., Williams, K., & Montgomery-Downs, H. E. (2018). Sleep disturbance and nighttime behaviors in postpartum mothers. *Sleep Health*, 4(2), 133–139.
- Jamshed, H., Beyl, R. A., Della Manna, D., et al. (2019). Early time restricted feeding improves insulin sensitivity. *Obesity*, 27(4), 650–657.
- Jiao, Y., Butoyi, C., Zhang, Q., Peng, Y., Wu, M., & Qiu, S. (2025). Sleep disorders impact hormonal regulation: Unravelling the relationship among sleep disorders, hormones and metabolic diseases. *Diabetology & Metabolic Syndrome*, 17, 305.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s13098-025-01871-w>
- Kang, S. K., Lee, H. J., & Kim, J. (2023). Postpartum sleep disruption and weight retention. *Nutrients*, 15(3), 642.
- Kas, M. J., Schoonman, G. G., & Roelfsema, F. (2022). Sleep restriction and appetite hormone regulation. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*, 61, 101568.
- Kawar, N., Elkadri, M., & Dubey, R. K. (2021). Late evening meals increase nocturnal reflux. *Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology*, 19(4), 742–749.
- Kazgan Kılıçaslan, A., Oktay, M., & Kurt, O. (2024). Night-eating syndrome, sleep quality, and eating mindfulness in psychiatric outpatients. *İstanbul Medical Journal*, 25(3), 190–198.
<https://doi.org/10.4274/imj.galenos.2024.86383>
- Keser, M. G., & Yüksel, A. (2024). An overview of the relationship between meal timing and sleep. *Journal of Turkish Sleep Medicine*, 11(1), 20–25.
<https://doi.org/10.4274/jtsm.galenos.2023.71676>
- Lundgren, J. D., Patel, S. R., Davies, K. A. M., et al. (2018). Night eating syndrome: Epidemiology and pathophysiology. *Sleep Medicine Clinics*, 13(3), 467–474.
- Maeda, T., Koga, H., Nonaka, T., & Higuchi, S. (2023). Effects of bathing-induced changes in body temperature on sleep. *Journal of Physiological Anthropology*, 42(1), 20.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s40101-023-00337-0>
- Manoogian, E. N. C., & Panda, S. (2022). Circadian clocks, time restricted eating, and metabolic health. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 42, 355–381.
- Nørrelund, H., Krag, M. B., & Jørgensen, J. O. (2020). Glucose induced suppression of GH pulsatility. *Endocrine Connections*, 9(3), 238–248.
- Niethard, N., & Hallschmid, M. (2023). A sweet spot for the sleeping brain: Linking human sleep physiology and glucoregulation. *Cell Reports Medicine*, 4(7), 101123.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.xcrm.2023.101123>
- Panda, S., & Manoogian, E. (2022). Time restricted eating: Mechanisms and implications. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 42, 355–381.
- Potter, G. D. M., Cade, J. E., Grant, P. J., & Hardie, L. J. (2021). Nutrition and sleep: An updated review. *Advances in Nutrition*, 12(6), 2224–2239.
- Ren, Q., Gu, M., & Fan, X. (2025). Circadian clock genes and insomnia: Molecular mechanisms and therapeutic implications. *Annals of Medicine*, 57(1), 2576643.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/07853890.2025.2576643>

- Roenneberg, T., Winnebeck, E., & Klerman, E. B. (2019). Social jetlag and late eating patterns. *Current Biology*, 29(17), R942–R943.
- Saito, M., & Yoneshiro, T. (2023). Brown adipose tissue thermogenesis and circadian regulation. *Cell Metabolism*, 35(4), 547–563.
- Sato, S., et al. (2017). Time of feeding regulates the molecular clock in metabolic tissues. *Cell Reports*, 20(13), 2736–2743.
- Shan, Z., Li, Y., Zong, G., et al. (2023). Shift work and obesity risk: An updated systematic review. *Sleep Medicine Reviews*, 68, 101745.
- Simon, S. L., et al. (2023). Sleep loss alters neural reward processing related to food. *Nature Metabolism*, 5, 345–357.
- St-Onge, M.-P., Mikic, A., & Pietrolungo, C. E. (2016). Effects of diet on sleep quality. *Advances in Nutrition*, 7(5), 938–949.
- Touitou, Y., Reinberg, A., & Touitou, D. (2021). Light at night, melatonin suppression, and metabolic risk. *Chronobiology International*, 38(6), 913–931.
- Tzischinsky, O., Shochat, T., & Bar-Sela, S. (2025). Night eating syndrome prevalence and its association with sleep quality, eating patterns, and psychopathology in an Israeli community sample. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 60(12), 2859–2869. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00127-025-02880-w>
- Voigt, R. M., Forsyth, C. B., Green, S. J., et al. (2023). Circadian rhythms and the gut microbiome. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 21, 55–72.
- Wehrens, S. M. T., Christou, S., Isherwood, C., Middleton, B., Gibbs, M. A., Archer, S. N., et al. (2017). Meal timing regulates the human circadian system. *Current Biology*, 27(12), 1768–1777. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2017.04.059>
- Wong, P. M., Hasler, B. P., Kamarck, T. W., et al. (2022). Night shift work and metabolic syndrome. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology*, 10(8), 540–552.
- Zhang, J., Wang, Y., & Liu, X. (2023). Evening chronotype and obesity: A population based study. *Sleep Medicine*, 103, 80–88.
- Zheng, J., et al. (2020). Circadian regulation of brown adipose tissue thermogenesis. *Nature Communications*, 11, 1–13.