Nutrition 28 (2012) 35-39

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Nutrition



journal homepage: www.nutritionjrnl.com

Applied nutritional investigation

Fuel selection and appetite-regulating hormones after intake of a soy protein-based meal replacement

Daniel König M.D.*, Klaus Muser M.D., Aloys Berg M.D., Peter Deibert M.D.

University Hospital Freiburg, Centre for Internal Medicine, Department of Rehabilitation, Prevention and Sports Medicine, Germany

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 10 September 2010 Accepted 11 February 2011

Keywords: Obesity Meal replacement Weight loss Metabolic syndrome Fat oxidation

ABSTRACT

Objective: The present study investigated the postprandial glycemic and insulinemic responses, the levels of satiety-related proteins, and substrate use after a single dose of a meal replacement (MR) with a high soy protein content and a low glycemic index (GI). The results were compared with a standardized breakfast showing a high GI and a low protein content.

Methods: Eleven overweight or obese male subjects with the metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance were included in the study. In the morning, each subject consumed, in a randomized design, 65 g of a MR or an isocaloric standardized breakfast. Four hours after breakfast, all subjects consumed the same standardized lunch. Blood levels of glucose, insulin, ghrelin, protein YY(PYY), oxygen uptake, and carbon dioxide production were determined and the respiratory quotient and substrate use were calculated.

Results: The glycemic and insulinemic responses were considerably higher after the standardized breakfast. In addition, in these obese insulin-resistant subjects, the postprandial decease in fat oxidation was significantly less pronounced after intake of the MR. This effect was also detectable after lunch in terms of a second meal effect. Ghrelin levels were significantly lower 2 h after the intake of the MR and PYY levels tended higher.

Conclusion: Compared with the high GI/low-protein SB, a high soy protein MR with a low GI was associated with lower glycemia and insulinemia and relatively higher fat oxidation in the post-prandial period. Together with a favorable course of appetite-regulating hormones, this could further help to explain the beneficial role of MR regimines high in soy protein for weight reduction and improvement of metabolic risk factors.

© 2012 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Introduction

Therapeutic lifestyle changes are an effective treatment strategy against the increasing epidemic of obesity, the metabolic syndrome, and type 2 diabetes [1–3]. Among dietary interventions, meal replacement (MR) regimines have shown to be safe and appropriate for the induction and maintenance of weight loss [4–6]. Moreover, MRs have been associated with a rapid improvement in metabolic risk factors, mainly increased insulin sensitivity [7,8].

Several investigations have shown that dietary interventions with a low glycemic index (GI) are successful for the prevention and treatment of insulin resistance and other components of the metabolic syndrome [9–11]. In part, this could be explained by a lower postprandial insulin response; high postprandial insulin levels inhibit lipolysis and switch energy consumption toward glucose use [12,13]. It has been proposed that lower lipolysis and decreased fatty acid use would favor extra adipocyte lipid accumulation and thus insulin resistance [14,15]. In addition, there is evidence that higher fat oxidation is responsible for improved weight loss and long-term weight control [16]. Furthermore, it has been hypothesized that a lower insulin response would prolong satiety and fullness [17,18].

In the present study we investigated the postprandial glycemic and insulinemic responses after a single dose of an MR high in soy protein and a low GI. In addition, we used indirect calorimetry to measure postprandial fat oxidation. The metabolic response of this MR was compared with a high-glycemic lowprotein standardized breakfast (SB) consisting of white toast with jam and fruit juice. Four hours after the start of the investigation, subjects consumed a standardized lunch to investigate the presence of a second meal effect. In addition, concentrations



This study was supported in part by Almased Wellness Corporation.

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +49-761-270-7495; fax: +49-761-270-7470. *E-mail address*: Daniel.Koenig@uniklinik-freiburg.de (D. König).

^{0899-9007/\$ -} see front matter \odot 2012 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.nut.2011.02.008

Table 1

Baseline anthropometric characteristics and metabolic risk factors of subjects investigated*

Age (y)	56.4 ± 4.9
Height (cm)	180 ± 9.1
Weight (kg)	102 ± 11.9
BMI (kg/m ²)	31.6 ± 2.6
Waist circumference (cm)	113 ± 5.5
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	201 ± 47.6
Triacylglycerols (mg/dL)	193 ± 148
HDL cholesterol (mg/dL)	49.6 ± 14.6
LDL cholesterol (mg/dL)	117 ± 31.1
Systolic BP (mmHg)	148 ± 18.3
Diastolic BP (mmHg)	95.1 ± 7.9
Glucose (mg/dL)	$111\pm20{,}7$
Insulin (pmol/L)	165 ± 108
HOMA-IR	3.10 ± 1.3

BMI, body mass index; BP, blood pressure; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model assessment for insulin resistance; LDL, low-density lipoprotein

 $*\,$ Values presented as mean \pm SD.

of satiety related proteins protein YY(PYY) and ghrelin were determined. Of special interest was whether the assumed decrease in postprandial insulinemia and glycemia with concomitantly increased fat oxidation was also present in obese subjects with the metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance.

Materials and methods

Eleven male overweight or obese subjects 52 to 63 y old were enrolled in the investigation. All subjects completed a comprehensive medical examination and routine blood testing. Anthropometric data and baseline laboratory data are listed in Table 1. Subjects were included if they were free from acute diseases, fulfilled the criteria of the metabolic syndrome, and were insulin resistant according to the homeostasis model assessment index (insulin [microunits/milliliter] × blood sugar [milligrams/deciliter]/405) higher than 2.5. None of the subjects took an oral antidiabetic medication or insulin. Written informed consent was given by all subjects; the study protocol was approved by the ethical committee of the University of Freiburg.

In the morning at 8 o'clock after an overnight fast (12 h), each subject consumed, in a randomized design, 65 g (230 kcal) of an MR (high soy protein/low carbohydrate/low GI; total protein 34.6 g; soy protein 28.7 g; carbohydrate 19.8 g; fat 1.3 g) dissolved in 280 mL of water and 19 mL of linseed oil (170 kcal) or (after an interval of \geq 3 d) an SB (low protein/high carbohydrate/high GI) consisting of 300 mL of skim milk (140 kcal), 50 g of jelly, and one bread roll (135 kcal). Thus, each time subjects consumed 400 kcal in the morning. The main difference was in the protein and carbohydrate contents and the GI of the test meals. The GIs of the MR and SB were tested according to the World Health Organization/FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization) protocol in healthy subjects and were 23 for the MR and 76 for the SB. Four hours after the start of the investigation, subjects consumed a standardized lunch (4 mini pizzas: 996 kcal, 40 g of protein, 208 g of carbohydrates, 44.4 g of fat; an apple; and a 150-mL glass of water).

Figure 1 shows the time flow of the investigation and the times when respective parameters were investigated. At each point in time, blood levels of glucose and insulin, oxygen uptake, and carbon dioxide production (ZAN 600 CPET, nSpire, Oberthulba, Germany) were determined. At baseline and every 2 h, blood levels of ghrelin and PYY were measured (enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; BioVendor Laboratory Medicine, Heidelberg, Germany). The ratio of carbon dioxide production to oxygen consumption (respiratory quotient) was calculated, and resting energy expenditure was determined according the equation of Weir [19]; from the respiratory quotient and resting energy expenditure, fat oxidation was assessed.

Statistical methods

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 17.0 for Windows (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Testing for changes between the two test meals was done by Wilcoxon rank-sum test; $P \leq 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

The physical characteristics and the metabolic risk factors of subjects are listed in Table 1. All subjects were overweight or obese and fulfilled the Adult Treatment Panel III criteria for the metabolic syndrome.

In the first 2 h after breakfast, glucose levels (Fig. 2A) were significantly lower after the intake of the MR at most time points. Also, the area under the curve (AUC) for glucose (Fig. 2B) was significantly lower in the first 4 h after breakfast. After lunch, glucose concentrations increased comparably during the first postprandial hour but were significantly lower at 330 and 360 min. Because of this dichotomy in the course of glucose concentrations after lunch, the AUC was not different for the postprandial period after lunch or for the entire length of the investigation.

After the intake of the MR, insulin levels were lower at most time points of the examination; also, in the postprandial phase after lunch, insulin concentrations were still lower until 330 min, although the lunch was identical (Fig. 3). The AUC for insulin was also significantly lower after the MR intake in all time segments.

The inhibition of fat oxidation in the postprandial state was more pronounced after intake of the SB than after the MR (Fig. 4A). A relatively higher fat oxidation was also observed after lunch. Figure 4B shows that the AUC for fat oxidation was decreased significantly less after the SR than after the MR intake at all intervals.

The decrease in ghrelin concentration was significantly higher 120 min after breakfast (Fig. 5A) in the MR group. The decrease in ghrelin after lunch was identical in the two groups.

The PYY levels were not significantly different between groups, although a trend existed for higher levels throughout the investigation period in the MR group.

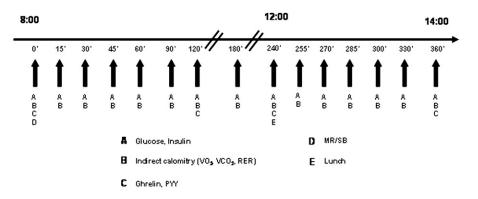


Fig. 1. Time flow of blood sampling and determination of VO₂ and VCO₂. MR, meal replacement; PYY, protein YY; RER, respiratory exchange ration; SB, standardized breakfast; VCO₂, carbon dioxide production; VO₂, oxygen uptake.

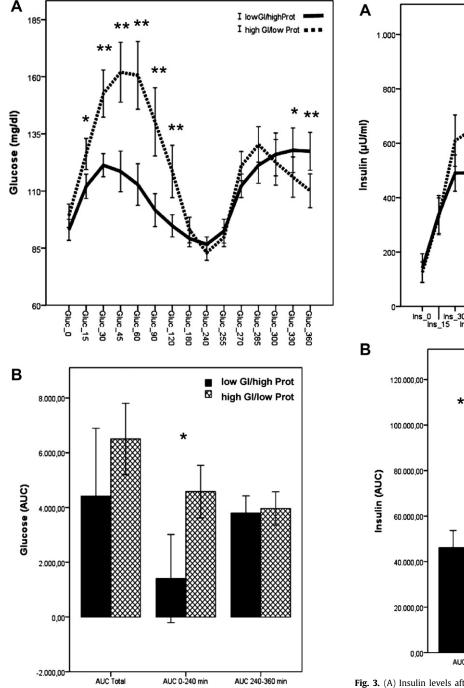


Fig. 2. (A) Glucose levels after the two different breakfast meals (solid line, meal replacement with a low GI and high protein content; dotted line, standardized breakfast with a high GI and low protein content) and the lunch after 240 min. Numbers at bottom indicate the time in minutes after the start of the investigation. (B) AUC for glucose for the entire examination period (AUC Total), the period before lunch (AUC 0–240 min), and the period after lunch (AUC 240–360 min); meals (solid bars, meal replacement with a low GI and high protein content), *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01. AUC, area under the curve; Gluc, glucose; GI, glycemic index; Prot, protein.

Discussion

The most important finding of the present investigation was that, in obese insulin-resistant subjects, fat oxidation was

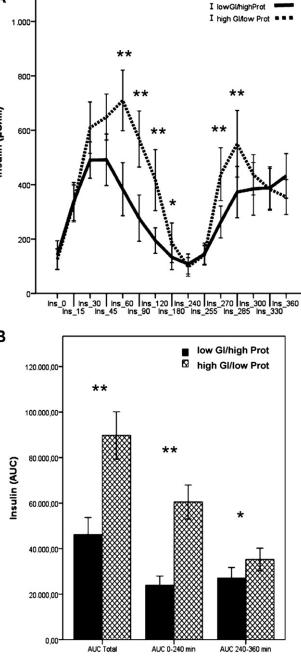


Fig. 3. (A) Insulin levels after the two different breakfast meals (solid line, meal replacement with a low GI and high protein content; dotted line, standardized breakfast with a high GI and low protein content), and the lunch after 240 min. Numbers at bottom indicate the time in minutes after the start of the investigation. (B) AUC for insulin for the entire examination period (AUC Total), the period before lunch (AUC 0–240 min), and the period after lunch (AUC 240–360 min); meals (solid bars, meal replacement with a low GI and high protein content). * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01. AUC, area under the curve; GI, glycemic index; Ins, insulin; Prot, protein.

significantly higher after the intake of an MR with a low GI and high soy protein content compared with an SB with a high GI and low protein content. This effect was also detectable after lunch in terms of a second meal effect.

From the difference in glucose and insulin levels depending on the type of breakfast, it is very likely that the lower insulin

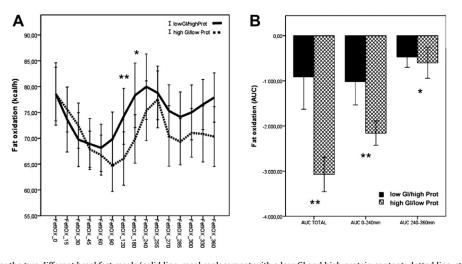


Fig. 4. (A) Fat oxidation after the two different breakfast meals (solid line, meal replacement with a low GI and high protein content; dotted line, standardized breakfast with a high GI and low protein content), and the lunch after 240 min. Numbers at bottom indicate the time in minutes after the start of the investigation. (B) AUC for fat oxidation for the entire examination period (AUC Total), the period before lunch (AUC 0–240 min), and the period after lunch (AUC 240–360 min); meals (solid bars, meal replacement MR with a low GI and high protein content; hatched bars, standardized breakfast with a high GI and low protein content). * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01. AUC, area under the curve; FettOX, fat oxidation; GI, glycemic index; Prot, protein.

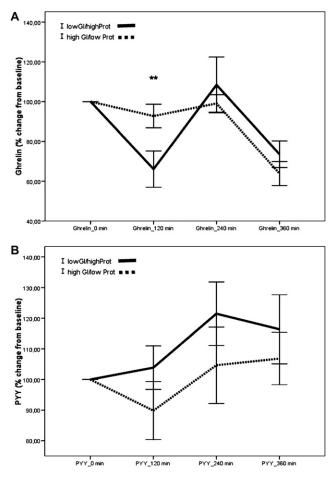


Fig. 5. Changes in (A) ghrelin and (B) PYY levels after the two different breakfast meals (solid line, meal replacement with a low GI and high protein content; dotted line, standardized breakfast with a high GI and low protein content), and the lunch after 240 min. * = *P* < .05; ** = *P* < .01. GI, glycemic index; Prot, protein; PYY, protein YY.

concentrations are responsible for the higher fat oxidation after the MR [20]. It has been speculated that fat transport across the cell membrane is increased and fat oxidation is decreased in obese subjects and particularly in those with the metabolic syndrome [21,22]. Although the hypothesis is not supported by all findings, there is evidence that the decreased fat oxidation is responsible for intracellular fat accumulation, lipo-toxicity, and eventually for insulin resistance [12,14,23–25]. Therefore, it could be speculated that the increased fat oxidation after the intake of an MR could account not only for better weight loss but also for the observed rapid improvement in metabolic risk factors [7,26].

In addition, the results demonstrate that in insulin-resistant subjects, the amount of fat oxidation can be influenced by the GI and insulinemic index of a meal. Although the role and importance of the GI in daily nutrition is still under debate, more studies have demonstrated its role in the pathogenesis and prevalence of the metabolic syndrome [11]. The low GI and insulinemic index of the MR (soy–yogurt–honey preparation) is mainly determined by the amino acid pattern, but the isoflavones genistein and daidzein have also been shown to contribute to the lower pancreatic insulin secretion and the lower expression of transcription factors associated with lipo-toxicity such as sterol regulatory element binding protein-1 [21,27].

Another important aspect that has been described by some investigators concerns the greater and longer satiety after the intake of a protein-based MR with a low GI [17]. We found that ghrelin concentrations were significantly lower 2 h after intake of the MR compared with the SB. After lunch, the decrease in ghrelin levels was almost identical. The reason for the greater decrease in ghrelin after the MR cannot be answered conclusively. In some investigations, ghrelin levels have been correlated with insulin levels, whereas others could not establish such a relation [28]. Data regarding how far the amino acid composition could have influenced the postprandial course of ghrelin and PYY are still lacking. Nevertheless, the significantly greater decrease in ghrelin levels and the trend toward higher PYY concentrations in the postprandial period likely contribute to the greater and longer satiety found after the intake of MRs [17].

It should be mentioned, however, that the number of subjects investigated was rather small. The results need to be reproduced in a larger cohort and in subjects differing in age, body mass index, and gender.

In conclusion, compared with the high Gl/low protein SB, a high soy protein MR with a low GI was associated with lower glycemia and insulinemia and a relatively higher fat oxidation in the postprandial period. Together with a favorable course of appetite-regulating hormones, this could further explain the success of this MR regimine for weight reduction and improvement of metabolic risk factors.

References

- Deedwania PC, Volkova N. Current treatment options for the metabolic syndrome. Curr Treat Options Cardiovasc Med 2005;7:61–74.
- [2] Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Merz CN, Brewer HB Jr, Clark LT, Hunninghake DB, et al. Implications of recent clinical trials for the National Cholesterol

Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III guidelines. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 2004;24:e149–61.

- [3] Grundy SM. Metabolic syndrome: therapeutic considerations. Handb Exp Pharmacol 2005:107–33.
- [4] Deibert P, Konig D, Vitolins MZ, Landmann U, Frey I, Zahradnik HP, et al. Effect of a weight loss intervention on anthropometric measures and metabolic risk factors in pre- versus postmenopausal women. J Nutr 2007;6:31.
- [5] Heymsfield SB, van Mierlo CA, van der Knaap HC, Heo M, Frier HI. Weight management using a meal replacement strategy: meta and pooling analysis from six studies. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 2003;27:537–49.
- [6] Keogh JB, Clifton PM. The role of meal replacements in obesity treatment. Obes Rev 2005;6:229–34.
- [7] Konig D, Deibert P, Frey I, Landmann U, Berg A. Effect of meal replacement on metabolic risk factors in overweight and obese subjects. Ann Nutr Metab 2008;52:74–8.
- [8] Li Z, Hong K, Saltsman P, DeShields S, Bellman M, Thames G, et al. Longterm efficacy of soy-based meal replacements vs an individualized diet plan in obese type II DM patients: relative effects on weight loss, metabolic parameters, and C-reactive protein. Eur J Clin Nutr 2005;59:411–8.
- [9] Lukaczer D, Liska DJ, Lerman RH, Darland G, Schiltz B, Tripp M, et al. Effect of a low glycemic index diet with soy protein and phytosterols on CVD risk factors in postmenopausal women. Nutrition 2006;22:104–13.
- [10] McKeown NM, Meigs JB, Liu S, Saltzman E, Wilson PW, Jacques PF. Carbohydrate nutrition, insulin resistance, and the prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in the Framingham Offspring Cohort. Diabetes Care 2004;27:538–46.
- [11] Thomas D, Elliott EJ. Low glycaemic index, or low glycaemic load, diets for diabetes mellitus. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2009; CD006296.
- [12] Kelley DE. Skeletal muscle fat oxidation: timing and flexibility are everything. J Clin Invest 2005;115:1699–702.
- [13] Stevenson EJ, Williams C, Mash LE, Phillips B, Nute ML. Influence of high carbohydrate mixed meals with different glycemic indexes on substrate utilization during subsequent exercise in women. Am J Clin Nutr 2006;84:354–60.
- [14] Holloway GP, Bonen A, Spriet LL. Regulation of skeletal muscle mitochondrial fatty acid metabolism in lean and obese individuals. Am J Clin Nutr 2009;89:4555–62S.
- [15] Ravussin E, Smith SR. Increased fat intake, impaired fat oxidation, and failure of fat cell proliferation result in ectopic fat storage, insulin resistance, and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Ann N Y Acad Sci 2002;967: 363–78.
- [16] Ellis AC, Hyatt TC, Hunter GR, Gower BA. Respiratory quotient predicts fat mass gain in premenopausal women. Obesity (Silver Spring) 2010.
- [17] Bornet FR, Jardy-Gennetier AE, Jacquet N, Stowell J. Glycaemic response to foods: impact on satiety and long-term weight regulation. Appetite 2007;49:535–53.
- [18] Ball SD, Keller KR, Moyer-Mileur LJ, Ding YW, Donaldson D, Jackson WD. Prolongation of satiety after low versus moderately high glycemic index meals in obese adolescents. Pediatrics 2003;111:488–94.
- [19] Weir J. New methods for calculating metabolic rate with special reference to protein metabolism. J Physiol (Lond) 1949:109.
- [20] Magkos F, Wang X, Mittendorfer B. Metabolic actions of insulin in men and women. Nutrition 2010;26:686–93.
- [21] Tovar AR, Torres N. The role of dietary protein on lipotoxicity. Biochim Biophys Acta 2010;1801:367–71.
- [22] Holloway GP. Mitochondrial function and dysfunction in exercise and insulin resistance. Appl Physiol Nutr Metab 2009;34:440–6.
- [23] Rogge MM. The role of impaired mitochondrial lipid oxidation in obesity. Biol Res Nurs 2009;10:356–73.
- [24] Abdul-Ghani MA, Defronzo RA. Mitochondrial dysfunction, insulin resistance, and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Curr Diabetes Rep 2008;8:173–8.
- [25] Tentolouris N, Alexiadou K, Kokkinos A, Koukou E, Perrea D, Kyriaki D, et al. Meal-induced thermogenesis and macronutrient oxidation in lean and obese women after consumption of carbohydrate rich and fat-rich meals. Nutrition 2010.
- [26] Berg A, König D, Deibert P, Landmann U, Frey I, Kloock B, et al. Favorable metabolic properties of a soy-honey yoghurt product for meal replacement in overweight subjects with atherogenic risk. Atherosclerosis 2008;9:253.
- [27] Westerterp-Plantenga MS, Nieuwenhuizen A, Tome D, Soenen S, Westerterp KR. Dietary protein, weight loss, and weight maintenance. Annu Rev Nutr 2009;29:21–41.
- [28] Huda MS, Wilding JP, Pinkney JH. Gut peptides and the regulation of appetite. Obes.Rev 2006;7:163–82.