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1 **Unacylated ghrelin, leptin, and appetite display diurnal rhythmicity in lean**  
2 **adults.**

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15 **Running Head:** Diurnal rhythms in appetite

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21 **Abstract**

22 Constant routine and forced desynchrony protocols typically remove the effects  
23 of behavioural/environmental cues to examine endogenous circadian rhythms, yet this  
24 may not reflect rhythms of appetite regulation in the real world. It is therefore important  
25 to understand these rhythms within the same subjects under controlled diurnal  
26 conditions of light, sleep and feeding.

27 Ten healthy adults (9M/1F, Mean  $\pm$ SD: age:  $30 \pm 10$  y; BMI:  $24.1 \pm 2.7$  kg·m<sup>-2</sup>) rested  
28 supine in the laboratory for 37 hours. All data were collected during the final 24 hours  
29 of this period (i.e. 0800 – 0800 h). Participants were fed hourly isocaloric liquid meal  
30 replacements alongside appetite assessments during waking before a sleep  
31 opportunity from 2200-0700 h. Hourly blood samples were collected throughout the  
32 24-h period.

33 A diurnal rhythm in mean plasma unacylated ghrelin concentration was identified  
34 ( $p=0.04$ ), with the acrophase occurring shortly after waking (08:19 h), falling to a nadir  
35 in the evening with a relative amplitude of 9%. Plasma leptin concentration also  
36 exhibited a diurnal rhythm ( $p<0.01$ ), with the acrophase occurring shortly after lights-  
37 out (00:32 h) and the lowest concentrations at midday. The amplitude for this rhythm  
38 was 25%. Diurnal rhythms were established in all dimensions of appetite except for  
39 sweet preference ( $p=0.29$ ), with both hunger (21:03) and prospective food  
40 consumption (19:55) reaching their peak in the evening before falling to their nadir  
41 shortly after waking.

42 Under controlled diurnal conditions, simultaneous measurement of leptin, unacylated  
43 ghrelin, and subjective appetite over a 24-hour period revealed rhythmicity in appetite  
44 regulation in lean, healthy humans.

## 45 **New and noteworthy**

46 Simultaneous assessment of subjective appetite, unacylated ghrelin, and leptin was  
47 carried out over a continuous 37 h protocol for the first time under conditions of  
48 controlled light, sleep, and feeding in healthy lean adults. Rhythms were observed in  
49 unacylated ghrelin, leptin, and components of subjective appetite, such as hunger,  
50 prospective consumption, and fullness. Concurrent measurement of rhythms in these  
51 variables is important to fully understand the temporal relationships between  
52 components of appetite as well as the influence of diurnal factors such as sleep, light,  
53 and feeding.

## 54 **Key words**

55 Appetite, Circadian rhythms, Ghrelin, Leptin, Diurnal

## 56 ***Introduction***

57 Circadian rhythms describe the periodic oscillations in mammalian physiology  
58 and behaviour that occur with approximate 24-hour cycles across most species (53).  
59 Such temporal rhythms serve to align physiological processes with anticipated  
60 environmental events (22), thereby facilitating survival in an evolutionary context (36).

61 Recent evidence in humans underlines the importance of the human circadian  
62 system in metabolic regulation, including appetite control. Specifically, constant  
63 routines and forced desynchrony protocols reveal how ratings of hunger typically peak  
64 in the evening, when satiety is generally lowest; whereas hunger is lowest during the  
65 early hours of the morning and for the first few hours after waking (42, 44, 55). Daily  
66 rhythms have also been identified in the systemic concentrations of hormones  
67 implicated in appetite regulation (11, 13, 23), such as ghrelin (31, 44) and leptin (48).  
68 However, data on the role of unacylated ghrelin in appetite regulation are uncertain,

69 and requires investigation especially in the context of subjective appetite (2, 20, 52).  
70 Furthermore, due to the necessarily protracted measurement period required to  
71 examine daily rhythms, the availability of within-subject human data is limited  
72 regarding the temporal relationship between subjective appetite and endocrine  
73 appetite regulators.

74         Constant routine and forced desynchrony protocols are incredibly useful in  
75 revealing endogenous circadian rhythms but they also remove the diurnal influence of  
76 behavioural and environmental cues, which are critical within a more ecologically valid  
77 setting (31). For example, rhythms in plasma ghrelin and leptin concentrations can  
78 change in response to sleep (14, 46), feeding (13), and extended fasting (15, 34). The  
79 diurnal rhythm of these hormones is therefore subject to modification by behavioural  
80 and/or environmental factors, which may independently influence rhythms in  
81 subjective appetite. Accordingly, there is an outstanding need to examine 24-hour  
82 rhythms in systemic unacylated ghrelin and leptin concentrations, whilst concurrently  
83 measuring appetite ratings under controlled diurnal conditions.

84         To this end, the present study aimed to quantify 24-hour profiles in plasma  
85 unacylated ghrelin and leptin concentrations, alongside subjective appetite under a  
86 semi-constant routine (i.e. feeding during waking hours), in which light-dark exposure  
87 and sleep-wake opportunity were tightly controlled. This was achieved using hourly  
88 isocaloric feedings throughout waking hours to suppress the postprandial ghrelin  
89 rebound, which may have driven previously reported rhythms (13, 51). It was expected  
90 that subjective hunger would be lowest in the biological morning relative to the  
91 evening, which would be mirrored by rhythms in unacylated ghrelin. It was also  
92 expected that rhythmicity would be present in 24-h leptin.

## 93 **Materials and Methods**

### 94 *Research Design*

95 Using a time-series design, temporal rhythms in leptin, unacylated ghrelin and appetite  
96 were quantified under conditions of semi-constant routine, as previously described  
97 (28, 29, 37). Briefly, participants underwent a week of meal and sleep synchronisation  
98 prior to a 37-hour laboratory visit. During the final 24-hours of this visit participants had  
99 a designated sleeping opportunity and hourly isocaloric feedings during waking  
100 periods to preserve diurnal influences. Visual Analogue Scales (VAS) were completed  
101 hourly during waking periods to measure appetite ratings, whilst hourly blood samples  
102 were collected throughout day and night during sleep to monitor accompanying  
103 rhythms in the systemic concentrations of unacylated ghrelin and leptin, along with  
104 melatonin to provide a validated internal phase marker. Ethics approval for the  
105 experimental protocol was obtained from the NHS research ethics committee  
106 (reference: 14/SW/0123). These data were collected as part of a larger study exploring  
107 diurnal rhythms in skeletal muscle lipidomics and transcriptomics, which have been  
108 reported elsewhere (28, 37).

### 109 *Participants*

110 Ten healthy participants (9M;1F, **Table 1**) were recruited via local advertisement.  
111 Participants were screened via the completion of a general health questionnaire and  
112 validated questionnaires to assess habitual sleep patterns and diurnal preferences (8,  
113 19, 40) as described previously (28, 37). All volunteers were fully briefed on the  
114 requirements of the study and provided written informed consent for their involvement.

115 [Table 1]

### 116 *Experimental Protocol*

117 In the week preceding the laboratory visit participants adhered to a strict routine of  
118 feeding and sleeping. Specifically, they woke between 0600 and 0700 h and went to  
119 bed between 2200 and 2300 h, which was confirmed using time-stamped voicemail.  
120 Furthermore, each day participants ensured at least 15 minutes of natural light  
121 exposure within 1.5 hours of waking, compliance with which was affirmed by wrist  
122 actigraphy using a light sensor, which further confirmed standardization of sleep-wake  
123 patterns (Actiwatch™, Cambridge Neurotechnology; Cambridge, UK). Self-selected  
124 meals were also scheduled at 0800, 1200 and 1800 h, with designated snacking  
125 opportunities at 1000, 1500 and 2000 h. For the final two days of this standardisation  
126 period, participants completed a weighed record of all food and fluid intake.

127 Following this, participants reported to the laboratory at 1900 h the evening prior to the  
128 scheduled 24-hour measurement window to acclimatise to the laboratory environment  
129 (**Figure 1**). All laboratory conditions were standardised for the duration of their stay,  
130 with blackout-blinds to prevent the penetration of natural light and room temperature  
131 maintained at 20-25°C. Artificial lighting was set at 800 lux in the direction of gaze  
132 during waking hours (0700-2200 h) and turned off (0 lux) during sleeping hours (2200-  
133 0700 h), with participants wearing an eye mask for the duration of the sleep  
134 opportunity. Participants remained in a semi-recumbent position throughout (i.e. head-  
135 end of bed elevated to 30°). Upon arrival, participants were shown to their bed and  
136 provided with a prescribed meal composed of a baked potato with butter and cheese,  
137 steamed vegetables (broccoli and mini-corn), followed by a bowl of fresh strawberries,  
138 raspberries and blueberries (1245 kcal; 31% carbohydrate, 50% fat and 19% protein).  
139 An instant hot chocolate made with whole milk was then provided at 21:30 (242 kcal;  
140 56% carbohydrate, 24% fat and 20% protein) before lights out at 2200 h.

141 Participants were woken at 0700 h and resting metabolic rate was immediately  
142 measured over 15 minutes using indirect calorimetry via the Douglas bag technique  
143 (9). An intravenous cannula was fitted to an antecubital vein to allow for hourly 10 mL  
144 blood draws from 0800 h, alongside VAS during waking hours. After each set of  
145 measurements, an hourly feed was then ingested in the form of a meal-replacement  
146 solution (1.25 kcal·mL<sup>-1</sup>, 45% carbohydrate, 25% fat, 30% protein; Resource Protein,  
147 Nestlé; Vevey, Switzerland). Each hourly dose was prescribed to give 6.66% of  
148 measured 24 h resting metabolic rate across the 15 h wake period time, thus meeting  
149 ongoing energy requirements and resulting in energy balance for the entire 24 h  
150 sampling period. Plain water was consumed *ad libitum* and participants had access  
151 to mobile devices, on-demand entertainment, music and reading material throughout  
152 waking hours only. Toilet breaks were permitted in the first half of each hour as  
153 required.

154 The final set of waking measurements were collected at 2200 h, along with ingestion  
155 of the final prescribed feed. Following this, the lights were switched-off and participants  
156 were asked to wear an eye mask throughout the lights-out period. Blood samples  
157 continued throughout the night at hourly intervals without intentionally waking the  
158 participants. At 0700 h, participants were woken and immediately completed a set of  
159 VAS before a blood sample was drawn. The final set of measurements were made at  
160 0800 h.

161 In accordance with the wider objectives of the study (28, 37), it should be noted that  
162 muscle biopsies were collected from the *vastus lateralis* at 4-hourly intervals from 1200  
163 until 0800 h (i.e. 6 in total) for transcriptomic and lipidomic analyses (data previously  
164 reported). For these night-time tissue biopsies (i.e. 0000 and 0400 h) participants were  
165 woken briefly but continued to wear the eye mask while samples were taken by torch-



166 light. Each biopsy took ~5-10 minutes and daytime biopsies were taken following the  
167 VAS and blood sample but before the prescribed feed.

168 [Figure 1]

### 169 *Outcome Measures*

170 **Blood Sampling and Analysis** – At each time-point, 10 mL of whole blood was drawn  
171 and immediately distributed into tubes treated with lithium heparin (for melatonin) or  
172 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA; for leptin/ghrelin). Both tubes were  
173 immediately centrifuged for 10 minutes (3466 x g, 4°C), after which the supernatants  
174 were removed and stored at -80°C.

175 Hourly, plasma melatonin concentration was measured in the heparinised samples  
176 using a radioimmunoassay (Surrey Assays Ltd; Intra-assay CV:  $9.7 \pm 4.9$  %, Inter-  
177 assay CV:  $16.5 \pm 8.7$  %). Unacylated ghrelin (SPI-Bio; Intra-assay CV:  $5.7 \pm 1.0$  %,  
178 Inter-assay CV:  $15.7 \pm 2.6$ %) and leptin concentrations (R&D Systems; Intra-assay  
179 CV  $3.2 \pm 0.2$  %, Inter-assay CV:  $4.4 \pm 1.0$  %) in EDTA-treated plasma were quantified  
180 throughout the protocol at 4-hourly intervals starting at 0800 h (i.e. 7 samples total)  
181 using commercially available enzyme linked immunosorbent assays.

182 **Appetite Ratings** – Visual analogue scales featured eight scales to assess hunger,  
183 desire to eat, fullness, thirst and food preference (sugary, salty, savoury and fatty).  
184 Each scale presented a question (e.g. how hungry do you feel?), which participants  
185 answered by placing a vertical line on a 100 mm scale to denote their perception  
186 relative to the extremes, which were defined as ‘not at all/very low’ to ‘extremely/very  
187 high’.

### 188 *Statistical Analysis*

189 Due to the high inter-individual variability, values for plasma leptin and unacylated  
190 ghrelin were normalised to give a percentage of the 24-hour mean for each participant  
191 (raw values in **Figures S1 & S2**). Values for each participant were then adjusted to  
192 dim light melatonin onset (DLMO), as determined by the 25% method with the time of  
193 DLMO being assigned at 0° of the circadian phase (5). Values for each outcome were  
194 aligned to DLMO by calculating the time in minutes between the DLMO and midnight  
195 for each participant and then adjusting 24-h profiles by the calculated difference in  
196 minutes. The resulting x-values were binned around half past the hour with average  
197 y-values plotted at half past the hour (29, 35, 51). As the study period was one  
198 circadian cycle long analysis of rhythmicity in all outcome measures was conducted  
199 using the cosine method allowing for calculation of parameters of rhythmicity such as  
200 acrophase, amplitude, and MESOR (Prism 8, Graphpad; CA, USA) (6, 39). Analysis  
201 of rhythmicity was performed for each individual's profiles, as well as at the group level  
202 for both raw and % 24-h mean values. In this approach a cosine wave is fit to the 24-  
203 h profile of a given variable and compared against a horizontal line through the mean  
204 values (null). If a cosine wave provides a better fit ( $R^2$ ) for the data than the horizontal  
205 line then the dataset characterises diurnal (or 24-h) rhythmicity, with the mesor  
206 (rhythm-adjusted mean), amplitude (magnitude of the difference between mesor and  
207 peak/trough values) and acrophase (timing of rhythmic peak) all identified and  
208 reported (10, 39). For comparison of mean values 24-h apart (i.e. 0800 h day 1 vs  
209 0800 h day 2) a paired *t*-test or a Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed depending  
210 on the distribution of data (SPSS Statistics 23.0, IBM; NY, USA). To further explore  
211 the relationship between measured appetite hormones and subjective appetite simple  
212 linear regressions were performed between plasma concentrations of  
213 leptin/unacylated ghrelin with subjective ratings of hunger, prospective consumption,

214 and fullness. Further simple linear regressions were run to explore the relationships  
215 between BMI with baseline and peak plasma leptin and unacylated ghrelin  
216 respectively. All data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD unless otherwise stated (e.g.  
217 figures are mean  $\pm$  SEM).

## 218 **Results**

### 219 *Melatonin*

220 Individual plasma melatonin responses are reported elsewhere (28) and confirm the  
221 presence of neuroendocrine rhythms in all participants.

### 222 *Leptin Profile*

223 When each individual's data are expressed as a percentage of their 24-h mean, mean  
224 plasma leptin of the 10 participants exhibited a significant diurnal rhythm ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $F$   
225 = 37.4,  $R^2 = 0.55$ , **Figure 2A**). The acrophase occurred at 00:32 h and concentrations  
226 were at their lowest following midday. The amplitude for this rhythm was 25%. Leptin  
227 concentrations measured 24 hours apart (i.e. same clock time: 08:00 h) were not  
228 different (start =  $163 \pm 242$  pg·ml<sup>-1</sup>, end =  $147 \pm 216$  pg·ml<sup>-1</sup>;  $p = 0.58$ ,  $F = 0.77$ ). At the  
229 individual level, leptin was rhythmic for six of ten participants (**Table S1** available at  
230 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13153190>, **Figure S1** available at:  
231 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13153187.v3>).

### 232 *Unacylated Ghrelin*

233 When expressed as a percentage of the 24 h mean, mean plasma unacylated ghrelin  
234 was rhythmic ( $p = 0.04$ ,  $F = 3.39$ ,  $R^2 = 0.10$ , **Figure 2B**). The acrophase occurred at  
235 08:19 h and fell to the nadir in the evening, with an amplitude of 9%. Unacylated ghrelin  
236 concentrations measured 24-h apart (i.e. same clock time: 08:00 h) were lower at the

237 end of the measurement window when compared to the beginning (start =  $41.1 \pm 17.8$   
238  $\text{pg}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ , end =  $35.7 \pm 13.2 \text{pg}\cdot\text{ml}^{-1}$ ;  $p=0.05$ ,  $F = 0.45$ ). At the individual level, unacylated  
239 ghrelin was rhythmic for only one of ten participants (**Table S1** available at  
240 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13153190>, **Figure S2** available at:  
241 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13153193.v3>).

242 [Figure 2]

### 243 *Ratings of Appetite*

244 As shown in **Table 2**, diurnal rhythms were established in all dimensions of appetite  
245 except for sweet preference at the group level. Hunger and prospective consumption  
246 both oscillated around the centre of the scale, whilst ratings of fullness tended to  
247 oscillate at the lower end of the scale throughout the 24-hour period. Rhythms in desire  
248 to eat savoury foods returned the highest mesor and amplitude. Both hunger and  
249 prospective consumption were characterised by similar phase relationships, peaking  
250 in the evening before falling to their nadirs shortly after waking (**Figures 3A, B**). This  
251 pattern was mirrored in the desire to eat salty, savoury, and fatty foods (**Figure 3E, F,**  
252 **G**) all peaking within a 2-hour window shortly before lights out. Fullness was  
253 characterised by an approximately antiphase rhythm to hunger and prospective  
254 consumption (**Figure 3C**), peaking shortly after midday and falling to a trough after  
255 sleep onset. At the individual level, rhythmicity was present in 3 participants for hunger,  
256 5 for prospective consumption, 4 for fullness, 2 for sweet preference, 4 for savoury  
257 preference, 6 for salty preference, and 6 for fatty preference (**Table S1** available at  
258 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13153190>).

259 Ratings of hunger ( $p = 0.04$ ,  $F = 0.69$ ), prospective consumption ( $p = 0.03$ ,  $F = 0.94$ )  
260 and desire to eat savoury foods ( $p = 0.03$ ,  $F = 0.92$ ) were higher at the end of the 24-

261 hour period relative to the beginning but desire to eat fatty ( $p = 0.06$ ,  $F = 0.89$ ), sweet  
262 ( $p=0.08$ ), or salty ( $p=0.08$ ) foods, and or fullness ( $p = 0.12$ ,  $F = 0.02$ ) ratings were  
263 similar.

264 [Figure 3]

265 [Table 2]

#### 266 *Relationships between appetite hormones, subjective appetite, and BMI*

267 Simple linear regression revealed no significant relationships between plasma leptin  
268 concentrations and subjective hunger ( $p =0.60$ ), prospective consumption ( $p = 0.51$ ),  
269 or fullness ( $p = 0.86$ ) (**Figure 4**). No relationship was observed between plasma  
270 unacylated ghrelin with subjective hunger ( $p = 0.36$ ), or fullness ( $p = 0.44$ ) but a  
271 weak negative relationship between unacylated ghrelin and prospective consumption  
272 was evident ( $R^2 = 0.26$ ,  $p = 0.04$ ) (**Figure 4**). BMI was not predictive of baseline ( $P$   
273  $=0.18$ ) or peak unacylated ghrelin ( $P =0.30$ ) (**Figure 5**). Likewise, BMI and was also  
274 not predictive of baseline plasma leptin ( $P =0.07$ ) however BMI was positively  
275 associated with peak plasma leptin however ( $R^2 = 0.25$ ,  $P =0.05$ ) (**Figure 5**).

276 [Figure 4]

277 [Figure 5]

#### 278 **Discussion**

279 Within a single participant group, this study compares diurnal rhythmicity in systemic  
280 unacylated ghrelin and leptin concentrations and the majority of the measured  
281 dimensions of appetite. Participants were assessed day and night in highly controlled  
282 conditions during a semi-constant routine (i.e. continuous/hourly feeding during  
283 waking hours; controlled posture, light-dark and sleep-wake cycles). Dim light

284 melatonin onset (DLMO) occurred at ~2330 h with individual melatonin profiles  
285 confirming the presence of neuroendocrine rhythms in all participants (Figure S1 &  
286 S2). Specifically, rhythmic analysis revealed ratings of hunger were highest in the  
287 biological evening when unacylated ghrelin was lowest and leptin was highest. Ratings  
288 of fullness peaked at midday falling to their lowest levels overnight, with prospective  
289 consumption and desire to eat savoury, salty and fatty foods peaking in the evening,  
290 before declining overnight to a trough shortly after waking.

291 Ratings of hunger increased throughout the day to peak at ~2100 h before declining  
292 overnight. Despite the diurnal influences of feeding and sleep, the current study agrees  
293 with previous constant routine (55) and forced desynchrony (44) protocols, showing  
294 lower hunger ratings in the morning with maximum levels in the evening/early night  
295 (55). Comparable peaks in the biological evening were also apparent for prospective  
296 consumption and the desire to consume salty foods (1910-2030 h). We also observed  
297 a diurnal rhythm in feelings of fullness, which were similarly phased to those observed  
298 in Sargent *et al* (42) using a 28-hour forced desynchrony protocol. Conversely, the  
299 present study did not identify a rhythm in desire to consume sweet foods, which could  
300 be due to the sweet taste of the meal-replacement supplement used in this study (18),  
301 but also may be driven by habitual diet and behaviour (54). Equally, the sweet taste of  
302 the meal replacement could also drive the increase in salty and savoury food  
303 preference across the day (17).

304 Diurnal rhythmicity was identified in unacylated ghrelin, with the acrophase occurring  
305 at ~0800 h, before declining throughout waking hours. Previous studies report rhythms  
306 in total ghrelin, with the acrophase and nadir reported to be in the region of 2300-0100  
307 h and 0900-1100 h, respectively (13, 14, 31, 57). The rhythm reported in the current  
308 study contrasts those reported in studies of continuous fasting, in which total ghrelin

309 concentrations have been shown to increase prior to habitual meal times before  
310 decreasing spontaneously within 1-2 hours (15, 34). Consequently, rhythmicity in  
311 unacylated ghrelin in the current study is most likely driven by the diurnal influence of  
312 feeding isocaloric meal replacements during waking hours (51). Notably, Solomon *et*  
313 *al* (50) showed that consuming an isocaloric diet through two large meals resulted in  
314 more profound peaks and troughs in ghrelin concentration, when compared to  
315 consuming the same diet as 12 equally spaced boluses (25). Equally Leidy *et al* (24)  
316 observed that when energy-matched diets were consumed as either six or three  
317 equally spaced meals, more frequent feeding eliminated the eating-related oscillations  
318 in acylated ghrelin over an 11-h period. Whilst acylated ghrelin was not assessed in  
319 the current study, Spiegel *et al* (51) observed broad alignment in 24 h profiles of  
320 acylated and total ghrelin (reflective of unacylated ghrelin) under controlled diurnal  
321 conditions, in which participants were fed 3 identical carbohydrate rich meals across  
322 the day, interspersed by 5 h intervals. Furthermore, the gradual increase in unacylated  
323 ghrelin reported here during the night is consistent with the reported stimulation of  
324 plasma ghrelin during sleep (12, 14, 27, 51). This agrees with previous studies  
325 reporting a reduction in the ratio between acylated and total ghrelin overnight thereby  
326 supporting a potential decrease in the activity of ghrelin-O-acyl-transferase (GOAT)  
327 during sleep (26, 33). It must be noted however that whilst unacylated ghrelin was  
328 rhythmic at the group level, at the individual level, only 1/10 participants were rhythmic  
329 for unacylated ghrelin and this data must therefore be interpreted with caution.

330 To the knowledge of the authors, 24-hour unacylated ghrelin concentrations have not  
331 been measured under conditions of semi-constant routine (i.e. controlled light-dark,  
332 sleep-wake and fed-fasted cycles) with simultaneous assessments of subjective  
333 appetite. Whereas unacylated ghrelin was highest in the morning and declined

334 overnight, ratings of hunger were lowest during the morning and increased throughout  
335 the day to peak in the evening. Much debate surrounds the role of unacylated ghrelin  
336 in appetite regulation, with studies of analog forms showing no effect (20), increased  
337 (52), and decreased food intake (2, 3) in both humans and rodent models.  
338 Comparatively less is known about endogenous unacylated ghrelin and its effect upon  
339 appetite regulation in humans. Measurement of this hormone over a 24-h period  
340 alongside subjective appetite ratings in the current study therefore provides novel  
341 human insight *in vivo*. Taken together, the approximate anti-phasic relationship  
342 between unacylated ghrelin and subjective hunger ratings supports the idea that  
343 unacylated ghrelin plays a role in appetite suppression (2, 3). The negative relationship  
344 between unacylated ghrelin and prospective consumption further supports this notion  
345 however the current study was not powered for this outcome and future work should  
346 continue to investigate the role of endogenous unacylated ghrelin in human appetite  
347 regulation in humans.

348 Leptin also exhibited diurnal oscillations in the present study, peaking within the hour  
349 after midnight and declining to its lowest concentrations at midday. This is consistent  
350 with previous studies of 24-h profiles in systemic leptin (43, 45, 48). Across a 24-h  
351 period in which participants consumed 3-meals and a snack Sinha *et al* (48) reported  
352 a similar profile of leptin across the day, declining across the day before peaking  
353 overnight peak (~0200 h). Likewise, Schoeller *et al* (45) also demonstrated that lower  
354 values of leptin occur during the day before rising to peak overnight (~0000 h). Under  
355 conditions of forced desynchrony, Scheer *et al* (43) established that leptin rhythms  
356 track the behavioural rather than the circadian phase, rising throughout waking hours  
357 from a trough prior to breakfast to a peak at the onset of sleep, several hours after the  
358 final meal. Data from Schoeller *et al* (45) suggests that the rhythm in systemic leptin



359 is particularly influenced by meal timing, with a 6-hour phase shift in the leptin rhythm  
360 occurring in response to a 6.5-h delay in meal times. Shea *et al* (46) demonstrated a  
361 clear distinction between the circadian and diurnal profiles of plasma leptin, indicating  
362 a strong effect of behaviour in the diurnal profiles. Furthermore, the slight delay in the  
363 timing of the nadir in the leptin rhythm in the present study (occurring at midday rather  
364 than breakfast) is remarkably similar to Mäntele *et al* (29), who employed essentially  
365 an identical schedule of sleeping and feeding, as emphasised by the similar DLMO.  
366 Sleep also plays an important role in the nocturnal peak in leptin, which is thought to  
367 facilitate prolonged fasting overnight (33, 47). Whilst chronic insufficient sleep does  
368 not appear to meaningfully alter rhythmic leptin, a recent study that removed the  
369 diurnal influence of sleep through continual wakefulness across 26-h did not report  
370 significant rhythmicity in leptin (41). The agreement of rhythmic parameters of leptin  
371 between the current study and previous literature therefore further supports the notion  
372 that 24-h profiles of leptin are driven by behavioural, rather than circadian factors (38).  
373 Interestingly, BMI appeared to have a weak predictive ability for peak leptin  
374 concentrations across the 24-h period, however the study was not directly powered  
375 for this outcome and therefore warrants further exploration.

376 Considering the proposed role of leptin in inducing satiety (4, 23) the evening rise in  
377 leptin reported here is seemingly misaligned with subjective hunger and fullness,  
378 which also increased during the evening. The evening rise in both leptin and subjective  
379 hunger are well-supported by prior literature when measured independently (7, 29, 47,  
380 56) and simultaneously (32). Speculatively this misalignment may hint at the longer-  
381 term effects of leptin in signalling energy balance rather than acute hunger/fullness  
382 (21) but may also be due to the primarily circadian drivers of rhythms subjective hunger  
383 relative to the predominant behavioural drivers of plasma leptin rhythms (38).

384 Whilst the pattern of feeding in the current study was more reflective of real-life  
385 patterns of eating relative to constant routine studies the even distribution of energy  
386 intake to be consumed hourly across waking hours is still somewhat artificial and future  
387 studies should build upon these findings. Furthermore, the use of a liquid meal  
388 replacement rather than solid would necessarily alter gastric emptying and even  
389 appetite (1, 30), however it is not yet known whether or not this would influence  
390 rhythmicity over a 24-h period. Whereas hourly sleep fragmentation *per se* has been  
391 shown to not influence ghrelin levels (16, 49) we cannot rule out an effect of night time  
392 sampling procedures (i.e. biopsies) on sleep quality and therefore unacylated  
393 ghrelin/leptin. The recruitment of predominantly male, lean subjects limits the  
394 generalisability of the current data to women and populations with overweight/obesity.  
395 It should also be noted that the current data are published secondary to previous work  
396 (28, 37), and therefore no formal power calculation was performed. However, the  
397 complexity of our primary transcriptomic/lipidomic for often subtle rhythms in multiple  
398 genes/metabolites means that the same sample size was more than adequate to  
399 detect meaningful changes in systemic endocrine responses (28, 37).

400 In summary, this study demonstrated 24-hour rhythmicity in systemic concentrations  
401 of unacylated ghrelin and leptin, as well as appetite under conditions of semi-constant  
402 routine. Lower appetite in the morning compared to the evening was observed,  
403 whereas unacylated ghrelin peaked in the morning, declining through waking hours.  
404 Furthermore, the 24 h profile of leptin was such that plasma leptin was highest during  
405 the night relative to the day. This manuscript provides novel context for rhythmicity in  
406 appetite in measuring appetite regulatory hormones alongside subjective ratings of  
407 appetite.

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411 J.T.G., J.D.J., J.A.B., wrote the paper; J.A.B. had primary responsibility for final content. All  
412 authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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617 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of the study protocol. d1/d2/d3 = day 1/2/3  
618 respectively.

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620 **Figure 2.** Dim light melatonin onset (DLMO) adjusted 24-hour profiles of (A) Plasma  
621 concentration of leptin % of 24-h mean (B) Plasma concentration of unacylated ghrelin  
622 % of 24-h mean. Values are presented as mean  $\pm$  SEM. The solid line denotes the  
623 regression that best fits the data. The dotted vertical line denotes DLMO whereas the  
624 dotted horizontal line denotes the mesor. The grey shaded areas represent 24-h  
625 melatonin profile.

626

627 **Figure 3:** Dim light melatonin onset (DLMO) adjusted 24-hour profile for ratings of: (A)  
628 hunger (B) prospective consumption (C) fullness (D) sweet preference (E) savoury  
629 preference (F) fatty preference (G) salty preference Values are presented as mean  $\pm$   
630 SEM. The solid line denotes the regression that best fits the data and the dotted  
631 horizontal line shows the 24-hour mean concentration used for the null comparison.  
632 The dotted vertical line denotes DLMO whereas the dotted horizontal line denotes the  
633 mesor. The shaded areas represent 24-h melatonin profile.

634

635 **Figure 4.** Simple linear regression between plasma unacylated ghrelin/leptin and (A/B)  
636 hunger, (C/D) prospective consumption, (E/F) fullness.

637

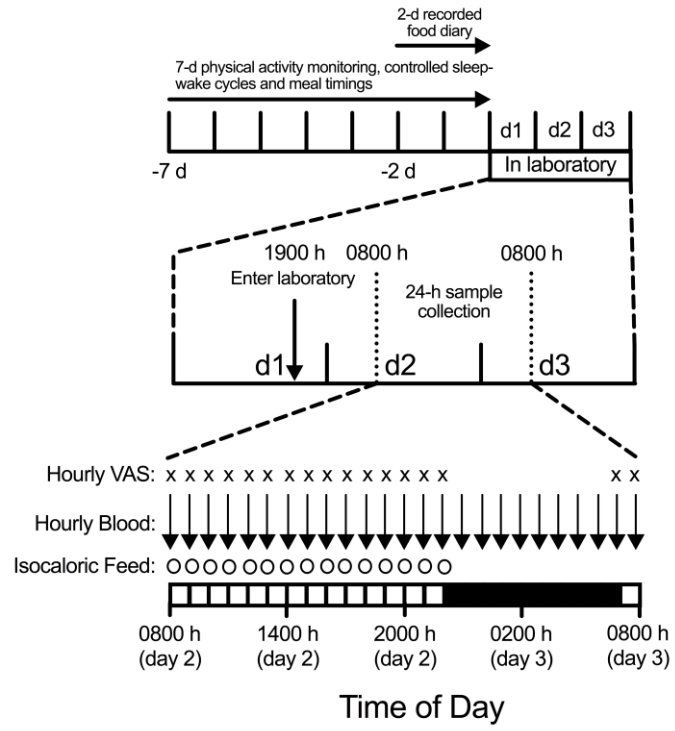
638 **Figure 5.** Simple linear regression between body mass index ( $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2$ ) and peak plasma  
639 unacylated ghrelin/leptin and (A/B), body mass index and baseline plasma unacylated  
640 ghrelin/leptin (C/D).

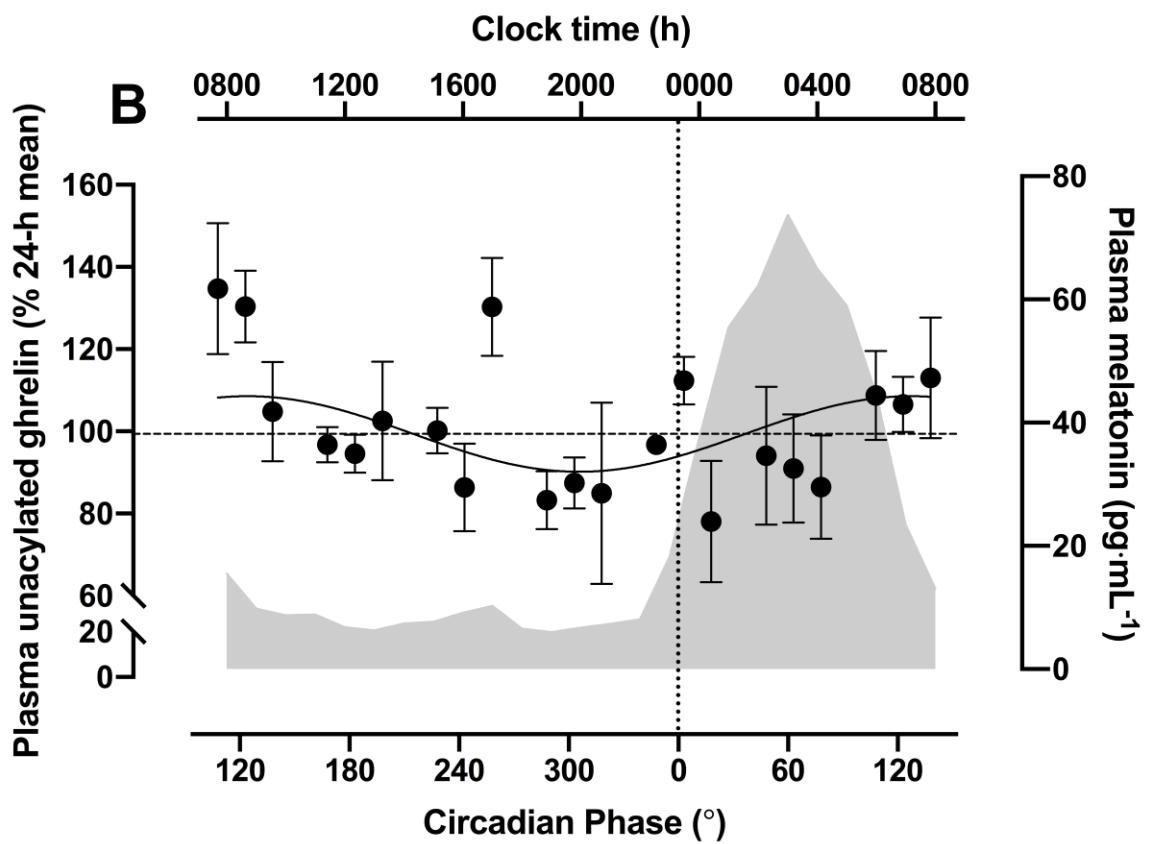
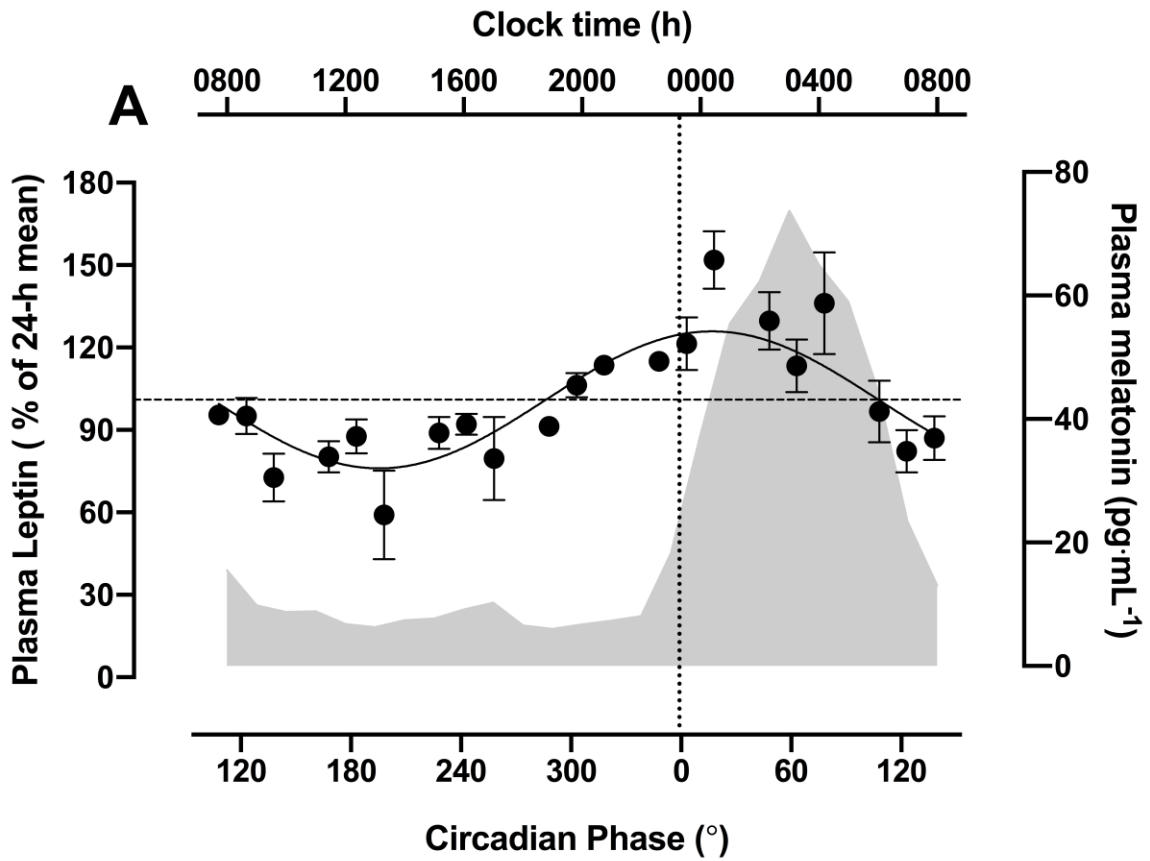


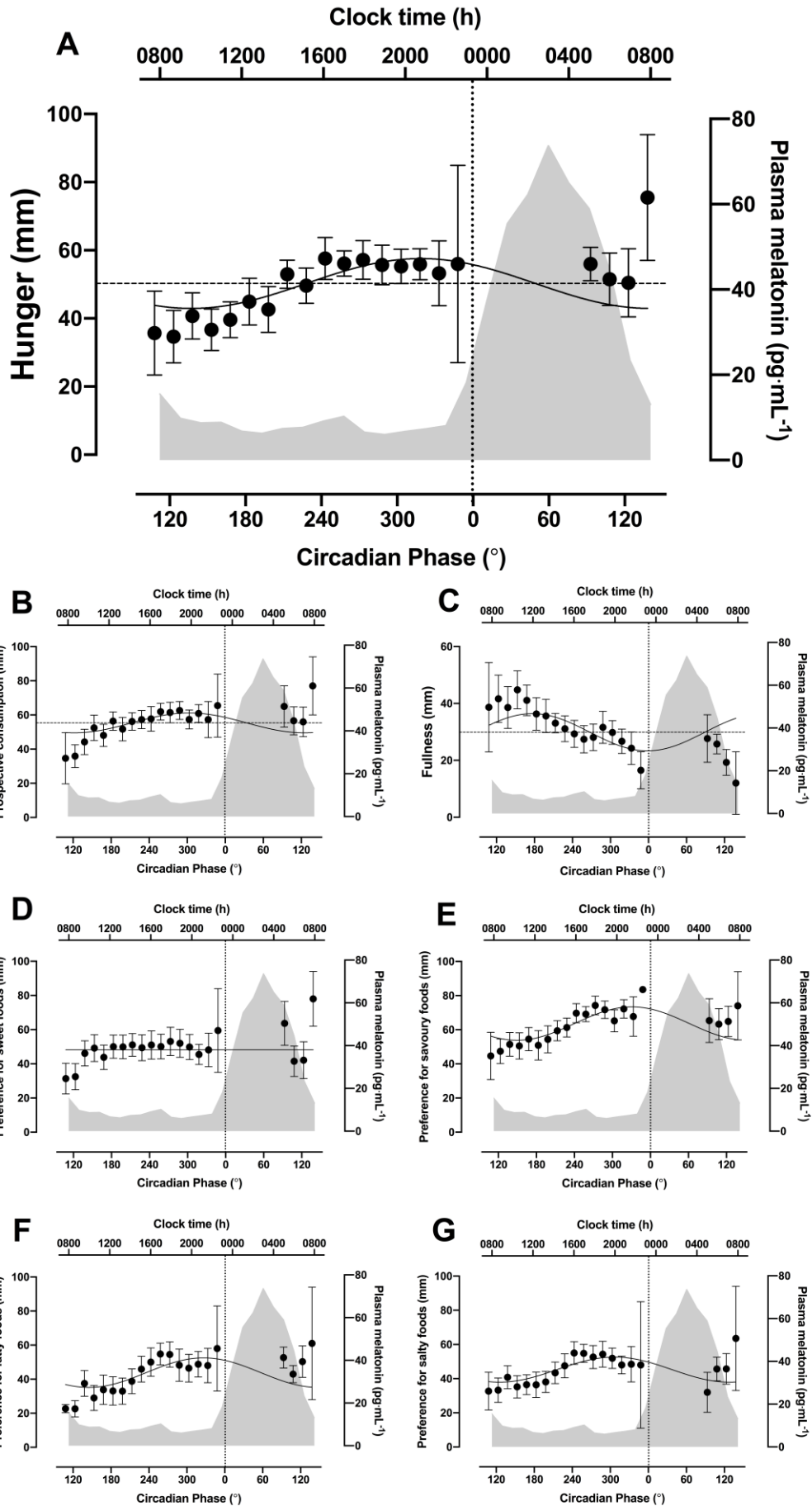
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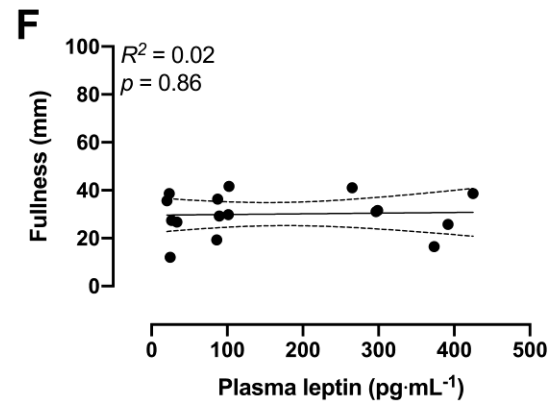
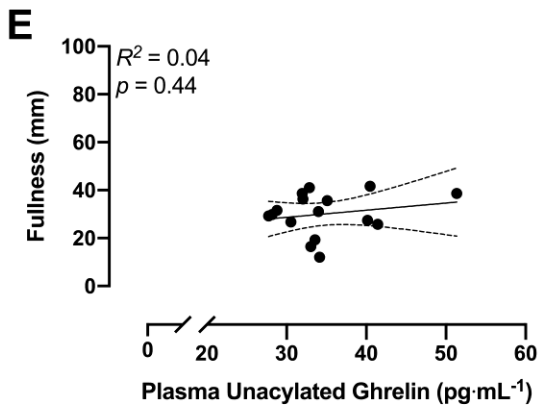
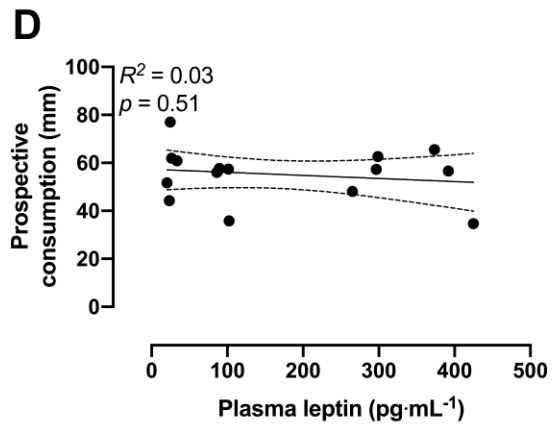
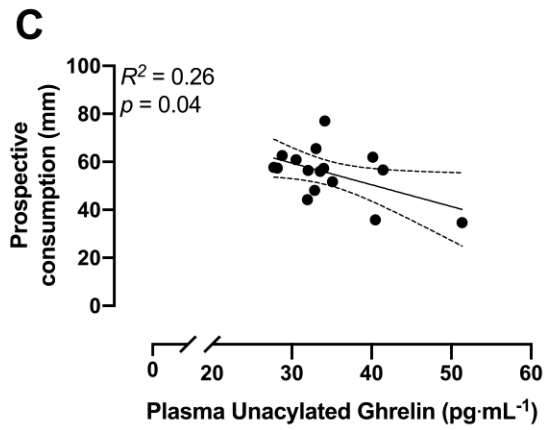
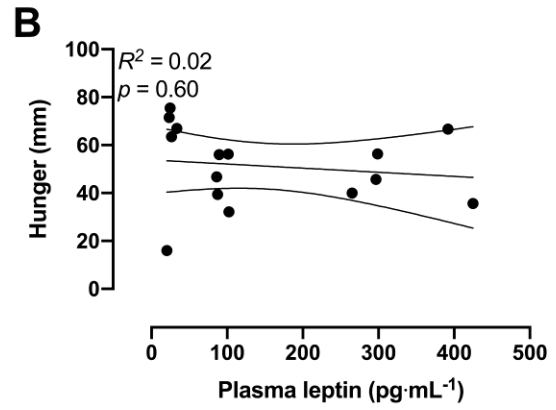
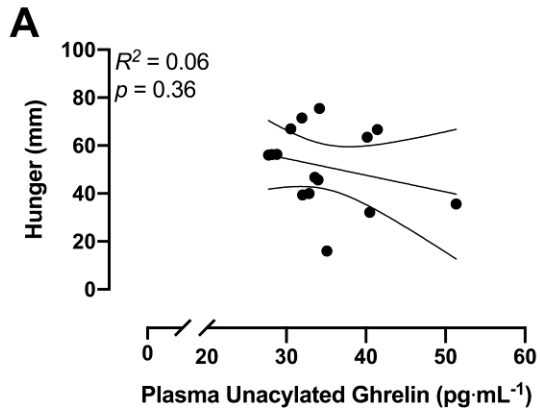
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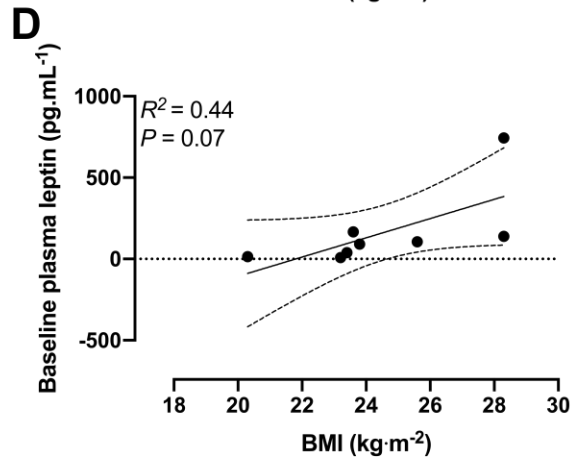
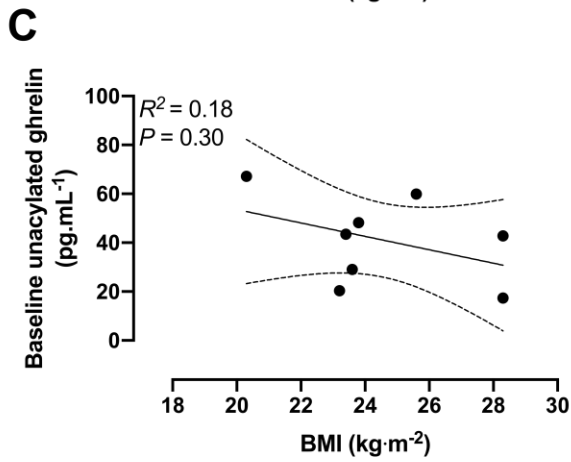
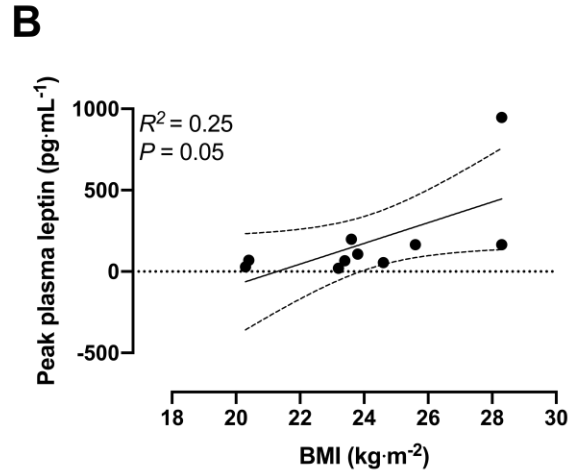
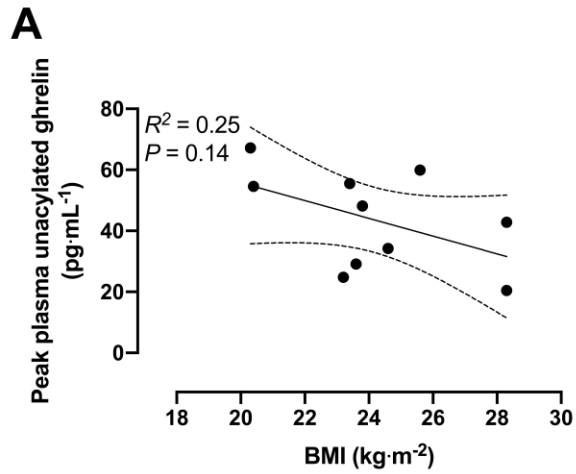
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