

Alhussain, Maha H and MacDonald, Ian A. and Taylor, Moira A. (2016) Irregular meal pattern-effects on energy expenditure, metabolism and appetite regulation: a randomized controlled trial in healthy normal-weight women. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 104 (1). pp. 21-32. ISSN 1938-3207

Access from the University of Nottingham repository:

http://eprints.nottingham.ac.uk/37117/1/MS_FInal_PDF.pdf

Copyright and reuse:

The Nottingham ePrints service makes this work by researchers of the University of Nottingham available open access under the following conditions.

This article is made available under the University of Nottingham End User licence and may be reused according to the conditions of the licence. For more details see: http://eprints.nottingham.ac.uk/end_user_agreement.pdf

A note on versions:

The version presented here may differ from the published version or from the version of record. If you wish to cite this item you are advised to consult the publisher's version. Please see the repository url above for details on accessing the published version and note that access may require a subscription.

For more information, please contact eprints@nottingham.ac.uk



The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition AJCN/2015/125401 Version 3 Irregular meal pattern- effect on energy expenditure, metabolism and appetite regulation; a randomised controlled trial in healthy normal-weight women

Corresponding Author: Moira Taylor Additional Authors: Maha Alhussain, Ian Macdonald

Date Received: 23 Apr 2016

Trial registered: ClinicalTrials.gov Reg No. NCT02052076

This paper includes additional materials for review purposes. To view additional materials, click on the [Download Supplemental Files] link available in the Full MS Info view of the manuscript. To reach this manuscript view, go to http://submit.ajcn.org, and log in to your account. Enter the Reviewer Area and click on Active Reviews.

Information for Authors: http://www.ajcn.org/site/misc/ifa.xhtml

Irregular meal pattern- effect on energy expenditure, metabolism and appetite regulation; a randomised controlled trial in healthy normal-weight women

Maha H Alhussain, Ian A Macdonald, Moira A Taylor

School of Life Sciences, University of Nottingham, NG7 2UH, UK (M.H.A, I.A.M, M.A.T)

Department of Food Science and Nutrition, King Saud University, Saudi Arabia (M.H.A)

Names for PubMed indexing

Alhussain, Macdonald, Taylor

Corresponding author

Moira A Taylor, University of Nottingham, Medical School, Queen's Medical Centre, Nottingham, NG7 2UH, UK, 0115 9516104 <u>moira.taylor@nottingham.ac.uk</u>

Sources of support

This work was supported by a grant from the Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia and the University of Nottingham.

Short running head

Regular eating, thermogenesis and appetite

Abbreviations

Ambulatory energy expenditure estimation (AEEE); Analysis of variance (ANOVA); Body mass index (BMI); Continuous glucose monitor (CGM); Continuous overlapping net glycemic action (CONGA); Hour (h); Incremental area under the curve (iAUC); International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ); kilocalories per day (kcal/day); Minute (min); Maximum (max); Minimum (min); Minute (min); Physical activity level (PAL); Resting energy expenditure (REE); Standard deviation (SD); Standard error of the mean (SEM); Thermic effect of food (TEF); Visual analogue scale (VAS)

Clinical trial registry number and website

ID number NCT02052076, <u>www.clinicaltrials.gov</u>

1 ABSTRACT

Background: Obesity is increasing in parallel with greater all day food availability. The
latter may promote meal irregularity, dysregulation of energy balance and poor metabolic
health.

Objective: To investigate the effect of meal irregularity on the thermic effect of food (TEF),
lipid levels, carbohydrate metabolism, subjective appetite and gut hormones in healthy
women.

8 **Design:** 11 normal-weight women (18–40y) were recruited to a randomized crossover trial 9 with two, 14-day isoenergetic diet periods (identical foods provided/ free-living), separated 10 by a 14-day habitual diet wash-out period. In period 1, participants followed a regular 11 (6meals/day) or an irregular meal pattern (3-9meals/day) and in period 2, the alternative meal 12 pattern. Before and after each period, when fasting and for 3h following a test drink, 13 measurements were made of energy expenditure, circulating glucose, lipids (fasting only), 14 insulin, GLP-1, PYY and ghrelin. An *ad libitum* test meal was offered. Subjective appetite 15 ratings were assessed fasted, following the test drink, following the *ad libitum* meal and 16 during the intervention. Continuous interstitial glucose monitoring (CGM) was undertaken 17 for 3 consecutive days during each intervention and ambulatory activity pattern was recorded 18 (AEEE). 19 **Results:** Regularity was associated with greater TEF (P<0.05) and a lower incremental area 20 under the curve (iAUC) for glucose following the test drink (over 3h) and, for some identical 21 meals on the two interventions (over 90min) (Day 7: post-breakfast; Day 9: post-lunch and 22 dinner). There was no difference between-treatments for test drink gut hormone response. A 23 time effect for fasting GLP-1, fasting PYY, PYY responses and hunger rating responses to 24 the test drink (P<0.05) was noted. Lower hunger and higher fullness ratings were seen, pre 25 and post meal, during the regular period, whilst free living.

- 26 **Conclusion:** Meal regularity appears to be associated with greater TEF and lower glucose
- 27 responses, which may favour weight management, and metabolic health.
- 28 Key words: normal-weight women, meal regularity, thermic effect of food, metabolism,
- 29 appetite.

30 INTRODUCTION

31 Obesity, an abnormally large accumulation of adipose tissue, occurs as a result of long term 32 positive energy balance, and is associated with impaired metabolic function and poor health 33 (1). A rapid increase in obesity prevalence over recent decades has occurred concurrently 34 with greater availability of food requiring minimal preparation, inside and outside the home, 35 and throughout the day. This environment offers greater individual choice with respect to 36 time of eating, and potentially facilitates greater inter-daily variation in meal pattern. Meal 37 pattern research, initiated in the 1960's, was based on the premise that meal pattern is a stable characteristic for an individual, with inter-daily repetition of, for example, meal frequency (2-38 39 5). Few studies have evaluated the impact of meal pattern irregularity (i.e. between day 40 variations) on energy metabolism and health in adults. 41 We have previously undertaken14-day feeding studies comparing a regular meal pattern with 42 an irregular meal pattern in normal-weight and obese participants (6-8). The thermic effect of 43 food (TEF), in response to a test drink, in normal-weight and obese women was significantly 44 lower following an irregular meal pattern compared with regular (6, 8). In addition, irregular 45 meal pattern was associated with a lower fasting insulin sensitivity (7), a greater insulin 46 response to a test meal (7, 8) and higher fasting levels of total and LDL cholesterol (7, 8). 47 These results were consistent with a negative association between irregular meal pattern and 48 metabolic health found in observational studies (9, 10). 49 Food intake in our intervention studies was self-selected and the obese participants, 50 interestingly, reported a lower energy intake during the regular period (8). Differences in 51 subjective appetite might have mediated this with the potential involvement of gut hormones 52 associated with appetite (11-14). These however were not measured. 53 The present study aims to compare the impact of 14 days of more highly controlled regular 54 and irregular eating (all food provided) on TEF, metabolic, appetitive and gut hormone

55	responses to a test drink and <i>ad libitum</i> intake of a test meal. The term 'meal' was used for
56	both prescribed eating incidents at traditional 'meal times', and those that occurred at
57	traditional 'snack times'. Measures were made during the free-living intervention periods of
58	physical activity (AEEE), continuous interstitial glucose monitoring (CGM) and subjective
59	appetite.
60	SUBJECTS AND METHODS
61	Participants
62	The study was conducted at David Greenfield Human Physiology Unit, School of Life
63	Sciences, Queen's Medical Centre, University of Nottingham between January 2013 and July
64	2013. The study was approved by the University of Nottingham Faculty of Medicine and
65	Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee (J14082012 BMS). Participants were recruited
66	from the student and staff population of the University of Nottingham via poster
67	advertisement. Inclusion criteria for participants were: normal weight women (BMI 18.5 and
68	25 kg/m ²), aged 18-40 years, non-smoker, non-high alcohol consumers (< 3 units/day), no
69	history of serious disease or currently taking any medications other than oral contraceptives,
70	not pregnant/lactating and with regular menstrual cycles, not dieting/seeking to lose weight
71	and weight stable during the last 3 months (self-reported weight change < \pm 2 kg). Exclusion
72	criteria were: participants with symptoms of clinical depression (defined by a score > 10 on
73	the Beck Depression Inventory (15)), with eating disorders (defined by a score > 20 on the
74	EAT- 26 (16)), with an allergy or intolerance to any of the foods provided during the study.
75	Of the 19 healthy normal-weight participants who responded to the advertisement 11 were
76	recruited to the study (Figure 1). These 11 participants were the ones that met the study
77	requirements. Values that were outside the inclusion criteria resulted in exclusion of four and
78	two subjects respectively for BMI and EAT- 26 score. Two women were ineligible because
79	they were anaemic. The remaining 11 participants gave written consent, and then 5

80	participants were scheduled to start with the regular meal pattern and 6 others with the
81	irregular one. Blood sampling could not be performed on one participant due to problems
82	associated with venous cannulation. Thus data from 10 participants were available for the
83	intention-to-treat blood analysis. Two subjects were excluded from the analysis of CGM data
84	because inadequate data were obtained. Informed, written consent was obtained from all
85	participants after the experimental protocol had been described to them in writing and orally.
86	The study is registered at clinical Trials.gov with the identification number: NCT02052076.
87	Screening
88	All potential participants attended a screening visit in order to establish that they met the
89	inclusion criteria for the study. Height was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using a
90	stadiometer (Seca, Germany). Body weight was measured using an electronic scale to the
91	nearest 0.1 kg (Seca, Germany) whilst participants were wearing light clothing with no shoes
92	and with an empty bladder. BMI was calculated from their height and weight as kg/m^2 . A
93	blood sample was taken for routine tests to confirm their general health.
94	Eligible participants then were asked to complete a weighed 7-day food diary which was used
95	to characterize their habitual diet. They were instructed to consume their normal diet and
96	participate in their usual level of activity before the study.
97	Study design
98	The study followed a randomized crossover design with two, 14-day intervention periods,
99	separated by a wash-out period of 14 days. Participants consumed their habitual diet during
100	the wash out period which was included to avoid interaction between the two interventions.
101	The randomization scheme was generated using the Second Generator Plan from
102	randomization.com (17) before the study began. Participants were assigned to the
103	randomization scheme in the order of recruitment. The study investigator generated the
104	
	randomization scheme, enrolled participants, and assigned participants to interventions.

Participants were free-living except that during each intervention period they were required to
consume food provided by the experimenter. Participants attended the laboratory pre and post
each intervention period, for a total of 4 visits. Each laboratory visit lasted up to 5 h. In order
to avoid the potential impact on outcome measures of the stage in the menstrual cycle (1820), participants started each intervention period during the early phase of their menstrual
cycle (days 1-7).

111 Dietary intervention periods

Each participant was provided with, free of charge, all their food during each of theintervention periods. An individual had identical foods during each of the intervention

114 periods and differences between participant food provision were minimised, but were

sometimes necessary to meet the different energy requirements of participants. The food was

supplied in a 4 day cycle of menus consisting of a variety of items commonly consumed in

the British diet. The menu was designed to cover participants' energy requirement for weight

maintenance (± 100 kcal). Menus were designed for 1900 kcal/day, 2050 kcal/day and 2350

119 kcal/day to meet the different estimated energy requirements of participants. Energy

120 requirements were based on the Oxford-Henry equations (21) multiplied by physical activity

121 level. This equation was chosen following the precedent of the calculation of the DRV for

122 energy by the Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition (22). Physical activity was

estimated by using the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) (23). The level

ascribed by the IPAQ was then translated to a PAL level using the Committee on Medical

125 Aspects of Food Policy (COMA) classifications (24) (IPAQ score low = non active, moderate

126 = moderately active, high = very active) and taking into account occupational activity which

127 was classified according to COMA as light, moderate or heavy.

128 The macronutrient composition of the diet, as a percentage of total energy for the day, was

approximately 50 % carbohydrates, 35 % fat and 15 % protein. These macronutrient

percentages were based on the Report of the Panel on Dietary Reference Values of COMA(24).

Participants were reassured that the amount of food provided was designed to ensure a stable body weight over the course of the study. All participants declared an intention to consume the entire amount of food supplied. However, they were asked to record any left-over food in the diary provided. Participants were instructed to avoid alcohol consumption, limit caffeinecontaining drinks to two cups of tea per day (without sugar/milk). They were advised not to change physical activity patterns during the study.

138 Following the design of previous studies in our laboratory (6-8), the number of meals during

the regular meal pattern was 6 meals/day which was based upon three 'meals' providing

approximately 70 % of energy requirements (breakfast, lunch and dinner) and three 'snacks'

141 (mid-morning, afternoon and evening snack) providing a total of approximately 30 % of

142 energy requirements (Supplemental Table 1).

143 The number of meals (including eating incidences labelled as snacks on the menu) during the

144 irregular meal pattern varied from 3 to 9 meals/day. The average was 6 meals/day during the

145 14-day period (i.e. 7, 4, 9, 3, 5, 8, 6, 5, 9, 8, 3, 4, 7, 6 meals/day). Participants were asked to

eat their meals at specific times between 8:00 am and 9:00 pm, during both interventions, to

147 remove the potentially confounding impact of the time period over which food was

consumed. The only deviation from this instruction was that when they had 3 meals/day,

during the irregular period, their last meal was at 6:00 pm (instead of 9:00 pm) as it was

anticipated that this was when they would consume a meal with others in their household.

151 Measurements made during the intervention periods

152 Energy expenditure assessment

153 Participants wore a SenseWearTM armband (SWA, BodyMedia Inc, Pittsburgh, PA, USA) to

obtain an ambulatory estimate of their energy expenditure (AEEE) continuously during the

The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition AJCN/2015/125401 Version 3

10

155	intervention periods. The armband was worn over the left triceps muscle, halfway between
156	the acromion process of the scapula and the olecranon process of ulna. Participants were
157	instructed to wear it continuously, including while sleeping and to remove it only for brief
158	periods for bathing, showering or swimming.
159	Energy expenditure data were derived from, a skin temperature sensor, a near body
160	temperature sensor, a galvanic skin response sensor, a heat flux sensor, and accelerometer
161	(25). These data were used in combination with demographic characteristics including age,
162	sex, weight and height, to estimate energy expenditure using a proprietary equation
163	developed by the manufacturer (SenseWear Software, version 7) which was not published.
164	Continuous Glucose monitoring (CGM)
165	CGM (Medtronic Minimed, Northridge, USA) provided continuous glucose profiles for up to
166	72 h. Subcutaneous interstitial fluid glucose concentrations were measured every 10 seconds
167	and the average glucose value for each 5 min period was stored (up to 288 measurements
168	daily).
169	The CGM was placed subcutaneously over the participant's anterior abdominal wall on day 6
170	and removed on day 10 of each intervention period. Finger prick glucose readings were taken
171	four times a day, by the participants, using a portable monitor (Accu-Chek Aviva System,
172	Roche Diagnostics, Switzerland) to calibrate the CGM. A 24 h contact number was available
173	for any inquiries or if any problems arose. Data from CGM were downloaded and glucose
174	profiles were evaluated based on data collected on day 7 (6 meals/day in both regular and
175	irregular periods), day 8 (6 meals/day vs. 5 meals/day in regular and irregular periods
176	respectively) and day 9 (6 meals/day vs. 9 meals/day in regular and irregular periods
177	respectively). Data were analysed per 24 h, during the day (7:00-midnight) and during the
178	night (midnight-7:00) with respect to 24 h mean, max, min and iAUC for glucose for each
179	time period.

180	On day 7 (6 meals/day in both regular and irregular interventions) postprandial iAUC for 90
181	min was analysed following each meal (breakfast, mid-morning snack, lunch, afternoon
182	snack, dinner and evening snack). However on day 8 (6 meals/day vs 5 meals/day in regular
183	and irregular interventions respectively) analysis was restricted to the points in the day when
184	participants consumed identical meals on the two interventions (breakfast, mid-morning
185	snack and evening snack). The afternoon snack was omitted during the irregular period and
186	the food distributed between lunch and dinner. On day 9 (6 meal/day vs. 9 meals/day in
187	regular and irregular periods respectively), analysis similarly was restricted to lunch, dinner
188	and evening snack. The breakfast was divided into two meals during the irregular period. The
189	mid-morning and afternoon snacks were also divided into two small meals in order to achieve
190	9 meals/day.
191	Intra-day glycemic variability was computed by an approach described by McDonnell et al
192	(2005) specifically for CGM data, known as continuous overlapping net glycemic action
193	(CONGA-n) (26). CONGA-n is calculated as the standard deviation of the summed
194	differences in glucose concentration between current observation and the observation n hours
195	previous. CONGA-1 was calculated in the morning (current observation from 9:00-10:00)
196	and night (current observation from 22:00-23:00). CONGA-1 indicated intra-day glycemic
197	variability based on one hour time periods.
198	Appetite assessment
199	Subjective appetite ratings were assessed by using paper based visual analogue scales (VAS)
200	with words anchored at each end of a 100-mm horizontal line that expressed the most
201	positive and the most negative rating for a question (Supplemental Figure 1). The questions
202	were in the form 'How (rating) do you feel?' and the ratings were 'hungry', 'satisfied', 'full',

203 'how much of a desire to eat?' and 'how much do you think you can eat?' (27).

Participants were provided with a booklet in which to record subjective appetite before and
after each single meal on days 7 and 14 during both intervention periods, when they were
consuming 6 meals/day on each intervention.

207 Laboratory visit protocol and procedures

208 Participants were asked to attend the laboratory at 8:00 am after a minimum 12 h overnight

fast and were required to take no exercise other than walking related to carrying out their

210 normal activities of daily living, for 48 h before the laboratory visit. Participants consumed 6

211 meals/day on the day prior to the final laboratory visit on both interventions in order to

eliminate an acute effect of the meal frequency on the day immediately preceding the

213 laboratory visit. Once baseline measurements were completed, participants were served a test

drink at approximately 9:00 am. Further measurements were then taken over a 3 h period, and

then an *ad libitum* test lunch was given at 12:30 pm. Subjective appetite ratings were

216 measured using VAS before and over a 1 h period after the *ad libitum* test meal

217 Anthropometric measurements

218 Immediately after arrival, participants were weighed on an electronic scale (Seca, Germany)

to the nearest 0.1 kg with an empty bladder, wearing similar light clothes on each visit and

220 without shoes. Waist circumference was measured to the nearest 0.5 cm in a horizontal plane

at a point midway between the lower margin of the last rib and the top of the iliac crest using

a stretch-resistant tape, while the participant was standing with feet about 25–30 cm apart

(28). Hip circumference was measured to the nearest 0.5 cm in a horizontal plane at the point

224 yielding the maximum circumference over the buttocks (28). Skinfold thickness

225 measurements were made by the same investigator, in triplicate, at four sites (triceps, biceps,

subscapular and suprailiac) in order to assess participants' body composition (29).

227 Blood sampling

228	Following the anthropometric measurements, participants rested in a semi-supine position in
229	a temperature-controlled (23-24 °C) room for a minimum of 20 min. Then a 20 G cannula
230	(Venflon) was inserted into a dorsal hand vein under local anaesthetic (1 % lignocaine:
231	B.Braun Melsungen AG. Melsungen, Germany) for subsequent blood sampling. The hand
232	was placed into a hot air-warmed, ventilated perspex box (50-55 °C) to allow arterialised
233	venous blood sampling (30). Blood samples were drawn from a 3-way tap, the first 2 mL of
234	each sample was discarded to avoid contamination with the saline (Baxter Healthcare Ltd.,
235	Thetford, UK) used to maintain patency.
236	Two blood samples were taken with a 5 min interval just before ingestion of the test drink to
237	assess the mean of fasting serum total, HDL, LDL-cholesterol, triacylglycerol, blood glucose,
238	serum insulin, plasma glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1), plasma Peptide YY (PYY), and
239	plasma ghrelin. After the test drink ingestion, blood samples were taken every 15 min for
240	glucose and every 30 min for 3 h to assess all the markers mentioned above except lipids, for
241	which only a fasting measurement was made.
242	Blood was dispensed into serum separating tubes (allowed to clot for 30 min at room
243	temperature before centrifugation) and EDTA tubes. EDTA tubes containing either 20 μl
244	dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) inhibitor (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) for GLP-1
245	measurement or 50 μl aprotinin (Nordic Pharma, Reading, UK) for PYY and ghrelin
246	measurements. All samples were centrifuged (5702 R, Eppendorf, Germany) for 10min at
247	3000 r.p.m at 4 °C. The supernatant was transferred into plastic tubes and kept at -80 °C until
248	further analysis.
249	Blood analysis

250 The analyses were carried out at the University of Nottingham. Serum total, HDL, LDL-

cholesterol and triacylglycerol concentrations were quantified by an enzymatic photometric

252 method (HORIBA ABX, Montpellier, France). Blood glucose was measured immediately

253	using a HemoCue anal	yser (AB, A	Angelholm,	Sweden). S	Serum insulin	concentrations were

- 254 measured with commercially available radioimmunoassays (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA).
- 255 Fasting insulin sensitivity was calculated using the homeostatic model assessment (HOMA
- 256 model) (31). Plasma GLP-1 concentrations were measured using an ELISA kit (Linco
- 257 Research, St Charles, MO, USA). Plasma PYY and ghrelin concentrations were measured
- with commercially available radioimmuno assays (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA).
- 259 Test drink consumption
- 260 The standardized test drink (vanilla flavour milkshake) was served at room temperature in an
- open glass as a breakfast. Participants were instructed to drink it over a period of 10 min. The
- test drink provided 10 kcal/kg body weight and comprised 50 % of energy as carbohydrate,
- 263 35 % as fat, and 15 % as protein. All participants consumed all of the test drink. The mean
- energy provided by the test drink was 584.3 ± 51.8 kcal which provided a mean of $27.9 \pm$
- 265 1.1% of the estimated energy requirement.
- 266 The test drink contained skimmed milk (Sainsbury's, London, UK), Build-up (Nestle SA,
- 267 Lausanne, Switzerland), Polycal (Nutricia Clinical Care, Trowbridge, UK) and double cream
- 268 (Sainsbury's, London, UK).
- 269 Energy expenditure measurement

270 Indirect calorimetry (GEM system; Europa Scientific Ltd, England) was used to determine 271 REE and TEF by measuring the volume of oxygen uptake and carbon dioxide expired. An 272 open-circuit flow-through canopy, with a mass flow meter, mixing chamber and a vacuum 273 pump, was used to draw room air over the participants' face at a rate of 50-60 l/min. This is 274 considered to be the most convenient way for measuring energy expenditure in human studies 275 at rest (32). The system was connected to a computer, and data from the mass flow meter and 276 gas analysers were used to calculate the VO_2 and VCO_2 using the software provided by the 277 manufacturer. The indirect calorimetry system was turned on for half an hour prior to use, to

278	warm up. Two cylinders of pressurised gas of known composition were used to calibrate the
279	gas analysers in the indirect calorimetry system before the start of the experiment. REE was
280	measured in the fasted state for 20 min. TEF was then measured for periods of 15 min at 30
281	min intervals during the 3 h following the milkshake consumption. During the measurements,
282	participants rested on the bed and relaxed but were not permitted to sleep. In the intervals
283	between the measurements, they also rested on the bed, but they were allowed to read. Room
284	air was measured at the start and both before and after each 15 min measurement period.
285	Ad libitum test meal
286	A pasta-based test meal (providing 167 kcal/100 g with 13, 34 and 53 % energy provided by
287	protein, fat and carbohydrate, respectively) was served at lunchtime to assess ad libitum food
288	intake. This meal had a homogeneous nature, so energy intake could be assessed from the
289	weight of food consumed. The meal consisted of pasta (Sainsbury's, London, UK: 125 g
290	cooked in 800 ml boiling water on full power in a microwave (900 W) for 13 min-stirred mid
291	period). The pasta was then drained, cooled rapidly using cold water and then mixed with
292	cheddar cheese (Sainsbury's: 40 g), olive oil (Sainsbury's: 15 g), and tomato and basil pasta
293	sauce (Dolmio, Mars food, UK: 170 g; macronutrient composition of sauce in Supplemental
294	Table 2). The mixture was then chilled until required and heated in the microwave for 2 min
295	before being served to the participants. Participants were given portions of ~500 g and
296	instructed to consume as much as they wanted until they felt 'comfortably full'. The plate of
297	pasta was continually topped up, when it was approximately ³ / ₄ empty. This ensured that there
298	was always ample hot food available to participants and they were not cued to stop eating by
299	having emptied their plate. Any left-over was removed and energy intake was calculated from
300	the weight of food consumed. Duration and speed (g/min) of eating were also calculated.
301	Subjective appetite ratings
302	Participants completed the VAS for subjective appetite ratings just before after and then

302 Participants completed the VAS for subjective appetite ratings just before, after and then

303 every 30 min after consumption of the test drink for 3 h. Further VAS were completed before 304 and immediately after consuming the lunch test meal, and then at 15, 30, 45 and 60 min. The 305 VAS were as described above. To avoid participants' response to each set of VAS being 306 biased by their responses to the previous set each paper sheet was taken from the participant 307 before the next one was provided. During this period of time, participants were asked to stay 308 in the laboratory, but they were free to read.

309 Statistical analyses

310 SPSS software (version 21 for windows; SPSS) was used for data entry and analysis. All data

are presented as means± standard deviation (SD), unless otherwise stated. Data were tested

for normality with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to inform whether parametric or non-

313 parametric analysis should be used.

Values for the incremental area under the curve (iAUC) of the TEF, postprandial glucose,

insulin, appetite ratings and gut hormone responses were calculated using differences from

the baseline. Values above baseline were considered positive, and below baseline negative.

317 The area above or below baseline was calculated using the trapezoid rule.

318 Comparisons of the baseline data at the pre intervention visit were made using Student's

319 paired t test (two-tailed) as were measurements of energy intake, AEEE, VAS and CGM

320 during the intervention period.

321 Two-way repeated measure ANOVAs (Factor 1: meal pattern, regular and irregular meal

322 pattern; Factor 2: visit - pre and post each 14-day intervention) were conducted to assess the

323 impact of the 14-day meal pattern intervention on a range of dependant variables (e.g. weight,

iAUC for TEF, weight of pasta consumed). Where an interaction was identified, simple main

- 325 effects were explored by pairwise comparisons. Where no interaction was identified, but
- 326 significant main effects were found, pairwise comparisons were made for the effect of meal

327	pattern or the effect of visit. Differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$ for all
328	statistical tests.
329	Results obtained from a previous study (6) indicated that the iAUC TEF after a regular meal
330	pattern was 0.74 \pm 0.37 kJ/min and after an irregular meal pattern was 0.39 \pm 0.26 kJ/min.
331	Therefore, with a cross-over design, eleven participants in each group would be required to
332	detect a difference in TEF (~ 0.35 kJ/min) with the power of 80 % at the significance level of
333	0.05.
334	TEF (kcal/min) over 3 h (following the test drink), as assessed by indirect calorimetry, was
335	the primary outcome for comparison between the two intervention periods. Responses for
336	lipids, glucose, insulin, gut hormones, subjective appetite ratings and <i>ad libitum</i> food intake
337	of the test meal were considered as secondary outcomes.
338	RESULTS
339	In this study, the effect of meal irregularity on thermic effect of food (TEF), lipid
340	concentrations, carbohydrate metabolism, subjective appetite and gut hormones were
341	investigated in 11 healthy normal-weight women. Participants undertook either a regular
342	meal pattern (14 days, 6 meals/day) an irregular meal pattern (14 days, varying from 3 to 9
343	meals/day) or in a randomised crossover design, separated by a 14-day wash out period.
344	Participants attended the laboratory after an overnight fast at the start and end of each
345	intervention period.
346	Anthropometric measurements
347	There were no significant differences in bodyweight, body composition, or other
348	anthropometric measurements at the pre intervention visits or across the study visits (Table
349	1).

350 Energy Intake

The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition AJCN/2015/125401 Version 3

351	Self-reported daily energy intake before the start of the study (2081 \pm 214 kcal/day) was
352	similar to the estimated energy requirement for weight maintenance (2104 ± 204 kcal/day).
353	However self-reported carbohydrate percentage (47 \pm 4.1 %) was significantly lower and
354	self-reported fat percentage (38 \pm 3.7 %) was significantly higher compared with the
355	consumed intervention diet (53 \pm 0.2 % carbohydrate and 33 \pm 0.6 % fat) (paired T-test, p $<$
356	0.01). There were no significant differences in the protein percentage between the self-
357	reported and the prescribed diet (14 \pm 2.5 vs 14 \pm 0.4 % respectively).
358	During the study, food intake was designed to be the same by type, and amount in each
359	intervention period, hence provide the same amount of energy and have the same
360	macronutrient composition. The food intake diaries completed to check compliance showed
361	that 98 \pm 6 % and 100 \pm 2 % of the energy given was consumed in the regular and irregular
362	intervention periods respectively indicating good compliance. There were no significant
363	differences in energy intake between the two intervention periods (2043 \pm 248 kcal/day
364	regular vs. 2098 \pm 195 kcal/day irregular intervention period) as intended by the design of the
365	study. The composition of consumed foods also did not differ significantly between the two
366	intervention periods being (53 \pm 0.9 % carbohydrate, 14 \pm 0.4 % protein and 33 \pm 0.8 % fat in
367	regular and 53 \pm 0.3 % carbohydrate; 14 \pm 0.5 % protein and 33 \pm 0.7 % fat in irregular
368	intervention period).

369 **Free-living energy expenditure**

370 On average, the SWA device was worn 96.8 ± 5.5 and 95.1 ± 7.7 % of the regular and

371 irregular intervention periods respectively. There were no significant differences between

372 mean values of AEEE during the intervention period for both regular and irregular meal

pattern (2241 ± 360 kcal/day and 2305 ± 399 kcal/day for regular and irregular intervention

374 periods respectively). There were no significant differences between the mean of the physical

activity level during the regular and irregular intervention period $(1.60 \pm 0.2 \text{ and } 1.64 \pm 0.2)$

376	METs for regular and irregular intervention periods respectively). In both conditions the
377	estimated energy expenditure was approximately 200 kcal greater than the prescribed energy
378	requirement.
379	Free-living CGM
380	For the nine participants for whom CGM data were available, analyses (mean, max, min,
381	CONGA-1 and iAUC) were done for each meal pattern on day 7 (6 meals consumed in both
382	intervention periods), day 8 (6 meals and 5 meals consumed in regular and irregular period
383	respectively), and day 9 (6 meals and 9 meals consumed in regular and irregular period
384	respectively) (Table 2). Twenty-four hour mean, max, min and iAUC for glucose
385	concentrations showed no significant differences between the two intervention periods. There
386	were also no significant differences in the day period and the night period between the two
387	intervention periods for these variables. CONGA-1 with current observation period 9:00 to
388	10:00 and 22:00 to 23:00 also showed no significant differences between the two intervention
389	periods.
390	On day 7 of the intervention (6 meals/day both interventions), there was a significantly higher
391	glucose concentration for the postprandial (breakfast +90 min) iAUC analysis (Table 2) in the
392	irregular meal pattern intervention compared with the regular meal pattern intervention
393	(paired T-test, $p < 0.05$). On day 9 (6 meals v 9 meals), for the meals that were identical on
394	the two interventions, postprandial (lunch +90 min) and (dinner +90 min) iAUC analysis
395	showed a similar difference in that the iAUC in the irregular intervention was significantly
396	higher compared with the regular intervention (paired T-test, $p < 0.05$). No significant
397	differences were seen in the other postprandial iAUC analysis.
398	Energy expenditure (indirect calorimetry data)
399	Fasting REE was not significantly different at the pre intervention visits. There was also no
400	meal pattern by visit interaction, or main effect of meal pattern or visit for fasting REE (1167

401	\pm 134, 1207 \pm 89, 1183 \pm 171 and 1188 \pm 149 kcal/day in pre, post regular and pre, post
402	irregular visits respectively).
403	REE increased above the fasting values, after the test drink, at all visits. The overall TEF for
404	the 3 h postprandial period is shown in Figure 2. There was no significant difference in
405	overall 3 h TEF at the pre intervention visits. There was a significant meal pattern by visit
406	interaction for the 3 h TEF (ANOVA; $p < 0.05$). TEF post regular visit was increased
407	significantly compared with pre regular visit (paired T-test $p < 0.01$) unlike in the irregular
408	visits, where there was no significant difference between pre and post intervention visits. TEF
409	post regular visit was 11.1 ± 15.8 kcal higher than post irregular visit (paired T-test p < 0.05).
410	Blood variables
411	There were no significant differences at the pre intervention visits for all blood variables.
412	Lipids
413	The results for fasting serum total, LDL, HDL-cholesterol, serum triglycerides are shown in
414	Table 3 . There were no significant interactions for meal pattern by visit or main effects of
415	meal pattern or visit in fasting serum total, LDL, HDL-cholesterol, serum triglycerides.
416	Glucose
417	No significant meal pattern by visit interaction or main effects of meal pattern or visit were
418	observed in fasting blood glucose across the study (Table 3). Blood glucose responses to the
419	test drink reached a maximum level 30 and 45 min after the test drink and remained above
420	fasting levels at the last sampling time-point (180 min after the test drink) in all visits. The
421	peak values (Table 3) did not show a significant interaction for meal pattern by visit or main
422	effects for these two factors. Blood glucose iAUC response to the test drink (Figure 3)
423	showed a significant interaction between meal pattern and visit (ANOVA; $p < 0.05$). A larger
424	area was seen at the post irregular visit compared with post regular visit (p < 0.05). Post

425 irregular visit, blood glucose iAUC was significantly higher than pre irregular visit (p <

426 0.05), unlike in the regular intervention, where there was no significant difference between427 pre and post regular visits.

428 Insulin

429 Table 3 shows fasting serum insulin in all visits. There were no significant interactions for

430 meal pattern by visit or main effects of meal pattern or visit. Serum insulin concentrations

431 increased rapidly from 15 min after consuming the test drink in all visits. Following peak

432 values, concentrations declined to some extent but remained above fasting values for the

reminder of the sampling period. The peak values of insulin (Table 3) did not show a

434 significant meal pattern by visit interaction or main effects of meal pattern or visit. There was

435 no significant interaction between meal pattern and visit on iAUC for serum insulin nor were

there significant main effects for meal pattern or visit ($5826.2 \pm 2150.5 \text{ mIU/L}$ in 3h pre

437 regular visit, 5719.4 \pm 3326.6 mIU/L in 3 h post regular visit, 5842.6 \pm 3775.2 mIU/L in 3 h

438 pre irregular visit and 5268.9 ± 2248.0 mIU/L in 3 h post irregular visit).

439 *GLP-1*

440 There was no significant interaction for meal pattern by visit or main effect of meal pattern

441 for fasting plasma GLP-1 concentrations (Table 3). However, a significant main effect of

442 visit was observed (ANOVA, p < 0.05). Mean fasting plasma GLP-1 concentrations

decreased by approximately 16 % and 20 % post regular and irregular visits respectively

444 compared with pre intervention visits. Following consumption of the test drink, plasma GLP-

1 concentrations increased in all visits. iAUC for plasma GLP-1 concentrations (Figure 4),

showed no significant interaction between meal pattern and visits, or main effects for meal

447 pattern or visit.

448 *PYY*

449 No significant meal pattern by visit interaction or main effects of meal pattern were observed

450 in fasting plasma PYY concentrations (Table 3). However, there was a significant main effect

451	of visit (ANOVA, p < 0.05). Mean fasting plasma PYY concentrations decreased about 9 $\%$
452	and 23 % post regular and irregular visits respectively compared with pre intervention visits.
453	Plasma PYY concentrations increased rapidly above the fasting values after consuming the
454	test drink and remained at a plateau until the last sampling time point in all visits. iAUC for
455	the 3 h postprandial period in all visits (Figure 4) showed no significant interaction between
456	meal pattern and visit or main effect for meal pattern. However, there was a significant main
457	effect of visit (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$). Mean iAUC for plasma PYY concentrations increased by
458	approximately 57 % post regular compared with pre regular visit, and by 70 % post irregular
459	compared with pre irregular visit.
460	Ghrelin
461	No significant meal pattern by visit interaction or main effects of meal pattern or visit were
462	observed in fasting plasma ghrelin (Table 3). Following consumption of the test drink,
463	plasma ghrelin concentrations declined in all visits. iAUC for plasma ghrelin (Figure 4)
464	showed no significant interaction between meal pattern and visits, or main effects for meal
465	pattern or visit.
466	Subjective appetite ratings
467	Responses to the test drink
468	There were no significant differences between the pre intervention visits for any of the iAUC
469	for subjective appetite ratings collected in the fasting state (Supplemental Table 3). There
470	was also no meal pattern by visit interaction, or main effect of meal pattern or visit for fasting
471	VAS ratings (Supplemental Table 3). The assessments of subjective hunger for the 3 h
472	postprandial period in all visits showed no significant interaction between meal pattern and
473	visit or main effect for meal pattern, but a significant main effect of visit (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$)
474	was found. Mean hunger ratings decreased by 195 % and 104 % post regular and irregular

visits respectively compared with pre intervention visits (Supplemental Table 3). The

- 476 response for the other VAS ratings showed no significant differences between the
- 477 intervention periods (Supplemental Table 3).
- 478 *Responses to the ad libitum test meal*
- The response (for hunger, fullness, satiety, desire to eat and prospective food consumption)
- 480 for the 1 h postprandial period in all visits showed no significant interaction between meal

481 pattern and visit or main effect for meal pattern or visits (Supplemental Table 3).

482 *Responses to the meal pattern during the intervention*

- 483 Subjective appetite ratings were assessed pre and post meals during day 7 and 14, when 6
- 484 meals/day were consumed in both regular and irregular intervention periods. On day 7, there
- were no significant differences between mean pre meal ratings (average of the 6 pre-meal
- ratings on the day) (Table 4). However, mean post meal ratings for hunger and fullness
- 487 showed significant differences between the interventions. Higher post meal ratings for hunger
- and lower for fullness (paired T- test, p < 0.01) were observed in irregular compared with the
- 489 regular intervention period (Table 4).
- 490 On day 14 (the final day of intervention), the ratings of pre meals hunger was significantly
- 491 greater in irregular compared with regular intervention period (**Table 5**, paired T- test, p < p
- 492 0.05,). Furthermore, the ratings of post meal hunger were significantly greater in the irregular
- 493 period (Table 5, paired T- test, p < 0.05). There were no significant differences in the pre and
- 494 post meal values for the other VAS appetite ratings.

495 Intake at the *ad libitum* test meal

- 496 There was no significant difference between participants' energy intake at the *ad libitum* test
- 497 meal pre intervention visits. There was no meal pattern by visit interaction or main effect of
- 498 meal pattern or visit for participants' energy intake across the study visits (778.8 ± 272.8 ,
- 499 745.7 \pm 214.7, 722.4 \pm 324.0 and 764.3 \pm 246.6 kcal in pre and post regular and irregular

500 visits respectively).

The duration of eating and speed of consuming the *ad libitum* test meal were not significantly

different pre intervention visits. The duration of eating did not show a significant interaction

501

502

503	between the meal pattern and visit or main effect of meal pattern or visit (9.6 \pm 3.9, 9.8 \pm 3.8,
504	9.5 ± 3.1 and 9.1 ± 2.3 min in pre and post regular and irregular visits respectively). Speed of
505	eating also showed the same result (51.1 \pm 13.2, 47.9 \pm 10.1, 45.1 \pm 13.4 and 50.6 \pm 11.1
506	g/min in pre and post regular and irregular visits respectively).
507	DISCUSSION
508	The aim of this study was to investigate the metabolic, endocrine and appetite related effects
509	of a regular compared with an irregular meal pattern, in healthy normal-weight women
510	consuming identical, isoenergetic diets and undertaking comparable activity. We also
511	assessed activity using AEEE, continuous interstitial glucose monitoring (CGM) and appetite
512	in the free-living state.
513	No differences were found in body weight between the two interventions, suggesting that the
514	aim to match intake and activity were met. With the regular meal pattern, TEF was greater,
515	whilst post prandial glucose response was smaller both in response to a test drink, and in
516	response to some identical meals, whilst free-living. No differences were found in fasting
517	lipid values. PYY showed a greater postprandial response after both interventions,
518	concurrently with anticipated differences in hunger and fullness. Pre and post appetite ratings
519	during the regular intervention suggested greater fullness and reduced hunger.
520	The differences in TEF are compatible with our previous findings (6, 8). Compensation in
521	other components of energy expenditure might explain the similar body weights seen after
522	the two interventions, despite differences in TEF. However, there was no difference in REE,
523	and although the estimate of ambulatory energy expenditure made using the SWA device has
524	limitations, for example, the absence of published validated equations for this population

525 group and inconsistent findings when compared with indirect calorimetry (25, 33-35), it gives

526	an indication of comparable activity patterns. The short duration of the study is a more likely
527	explanation, as over a longer time period, the greater TEF with a regular meal pattern, if
528	repeated at all meals and in the longer term, could have beneficial effects on weight control.
529	The range of published values for the TEF of diets containing comparable macronutrient
530	composition makes estimating the expected TEF from the test drink problematic (36).
531	However using a generally accepted figure for TEF of 10 % of total energy consumed, and a
532	mean test drink dose of 584 kcal, a TEF of approximately 60 kcal might be expected. The
533	smaller values seen (over 3 h) may reflect that the full metabolic rate response had not
534	occurred in 3h. It has been estimated that weight gain in 90 percent of the adult population
535	could be prevented by reducing positive energy balance by 100 kcal/day (37) and Brown et
536	al. found that over 5 years a 10 kcal/day excess in energy intake resulted in a 0.5 kg gain in
537	weight per year (38). Future work should assess energy expenditure over 24 h, in order to
538	capture the full response to each meal, and the accumulative effect of more than one meal in
539	the day.
540	Insulin resistance has been shown to be associated with blunted TEF (39-41), and may
541	contribute to the differences we have seen. In this study, a lower postprandial glucose
542	response to the test meal was seen after the regular compared with the irregular meal pattern.
543	In our previous studies (7, 8), there was no difference in glucose response, but a greater post
544	prandial insulin response was seen after the irregular meal pattern period. Both of these
545	patterns of results are consistent with the regular meal pattern resulting in greater insulin
546	sensitivity. The novel addition to the present study of continuous interstitial glucose
547	measurements on three days during the intervention periods (each preceded by the same last
548	meal on the previous day) further corroborates reduced insulin sensitivity with an irregular
549	pattern. Day 7 allowed direct comparison of six meals per day and showed a beneficial
550	response to breakfast with regular eating. On Day 8 however, despite having several

551	identical meals, no differences were found, perhaps because of an acute effect of the
552	preceding day being identical for both patterns (6 meals per day). On Day 9, for those meals
553	that were identical, a beneficial reduction in post prandial response at lunch and dinner (but
554	not the night snack) was seen for the regular pattern. Further work is needed to establish
555	whether, under laboratory conditions, a comparable difference in blood glucose response
556	occurs throughout the day, how quickly differences are seen in response to dietary
557	differences, and whether the differences are sustained over a longer time period.
558	Fasting Triglyceride and HDL cholesterol concentrations showed no significant differences
559	between the two meal patterns in the present study, in agreement with previous studies in
560	normal-weight and obese women (7, 8). However previously differences were found between
561	fasting total and LDL cholesterol (7) in contrast to this study. This is perhaps because the
562	food intake was better controlled in this study. The participants in the current study were
563	similar to those in the previous study with respect to age, BMI and body fat, however their
564	ethnicity may have been different, possibly resulting in differences in sensitivity to meal
565	pattern.
566	Greater post-meal ratings for hunger and lower ratings of fullness on day 7 (6 meals/day on
567	both interventions), during the irregular meal pattern period suggest a reduction in the
568	satiation experienced. Additionally, greater pre and post-meal ratings for hunger were
569	observed on the final day of the irregular meal pattern when again 6 meals were consumed in

570 both interventions, suggesting that by the end of the study satiety was reduced as well. 571 However there was no difference by intervention for subjective appetite in response to the 572 test meal (although there was a time effect), or the pasta meal. The energy intake of pasta 573 consumed at the *ad libitum* test meal in the laboratory was decreased by 4 % post regular visit 574 and increased by 6 % post irregular visit. This did not reach significance, possibly because 575 the study was insufficiently powered for this secondary outcome. 576 Whilst no meal pattern effect was found for fasting plasma GLP-1 and PYY concentrations, a 577 main effect of time was seen, and in response to the test meal for PYY. The explanation for 578 these differences, in common with the time effect reported above for subjective appetite, may 579 be the differences in composition of habitual diet and the intervention diet. The 7 day food 580 record would suggest that the habitual diet contained a lower percentage of carbohydrate and 581 a higher percentage of fat. In addition, on day 14, before the final visit, the number of meals 582 and amount of food was the same on both occasions, in contrast to the first visits when the 583 habitual diet was consumed the preceding day. The stage in the menstrual cycle was also 584 different as the study started in the early phase of the follicular phase, which may have 585 impacted on appetite (42, 43) and GLP-1 (42). The differences observed in PYY in response 586 to the test drink were consistent with the differences in VAS hunger responses, confirming 587 the inverse relationship between PYY and subjective hunger (44). Given, that the differences 588 in subjective appetite noted whilst free-living in this study, might offer an explanation for the 589 higher energy intake previously noted in obese participants eating *ad libitum* while following 590 an irregular meal pattern (8), this aspect warrants further work, with a larger sample size. As 591 demonstrated with respect to TEF, small differences in energy intake, sustained over the long 592 term, can have a major impact on weight regulation. It is also of interest that associations 593 have been found between TEF and satiety (45) suggesting that there may be some inter-594 relation between differences in subjective appetite, and the blunted TEF measured in this 595 study.

In conclusion, the results of this study show that a regular meal pattern compared with an
irregular meal pattern results in greater TEF, greater insulin sensitivity, and potentially
beneficial subjective appetite changes. These desirable effects could support weight control
and metabolic health, in the general population. Future studies should include overweight and

- 600 obese participants, with and without type II diabetes, and should include 24 hour
- 601 measurement, and longer term interventions.

602 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

603 We thank all the participants for their time and participation in this study. We also thank Dr.

604 Michael Rittig and Dr. Tariq Taylor for providing medical supervision and Sally Cordon and

- 605 Karen Swift for the analysis of blood samples Thanks also go to Dr. Liz Simpson for
- assistance provided throughout the study.
- 607 The authors' contributions are as follows: M.H.A contributed to the design of the study,
- 608 conducted the study, performed the statistical analysis, interpreted the results, wrote the
- 609 manuscript and was responsible for its final content. M.A.T. and I.A.M. contributed to the
- 610 design of the study, supervised the data collection and analysis, had input into the
- 611 interpretation of the results and helped produce a final draft of the manuscript. All authors
- read and approved the final version of the manuscript.
- 613 I.A.M is a member of the UK Government Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition,
- Treasurer of the Federation of European Nutrition Societies, Treasurer of the World Obesity
- Federation, a member of the Mars Scientific Advisory Council, the Mars Europe Nutrition
- Advisory Board, Scientific Adviser to the Waltham Centre for Pet Nutrition, and has a UK
- 617 Government Research Grant (from Innovate UK) for a project which is led by Mars UK. He
- 618 is also the Academic lead for the University of Nottingham's strategic research partnership
- 619 with Unilever. M.H.A and M.A.T have no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

- 1. WHO. Obesity: Preventing and Managing the Global Epidemic. Report of a WHO Consultation WHO Technical Report Series 894. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1998.
- Fabry P, Hejl Z, Fodor J, Braun T, Zvolankova K. The frequency of meals: its relation to overweight, hypercholesterolaemia, and decreased glucose tolerance. Lancet 1964;2(7360):614-5.
- 3. Fabry P, Fodor J, Hejl Z, Geizerova H, Balcarova O. Meal frequency and ischaemic heartdisease. Lancet 1968;2(7561):190-1.
- 4. Verboeket-van de Venne WP, Westerterp KR. Influence of the feeding frequency on nutrient utilization in man: consequences for energy metabolism. Eur J Clin Nutr 1991;45(3):161-9.
- 5. Tai MM, Castillo P, Pi-Sunyer FX. Meal size and frequency: effect on the thermic effect of food. Am J Clin Nutr 1991;54(5):783-7.
- 6. Farshchi HR, Taylor MA, Macdonald IA. Decreased thermic effect of food after an irregular compared with a regular meal pattern in healthy lean women. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 2004;28(5):653-60. doi: 10.1038/sj.ijo.0802616.
- 7. Farshchi HR, Taylor MA, Macdonald IA. Regular meal frequency creates more appropriate insulin sensitivity and lipid profiles compared with irregular meal frequency in healthy lean women. Eur J Clin Nutr 2004;58(7):1071-7. doi: 10.1038/sj.ejcn.1601935.
- 8. Farshchi HR, Taylor MA, Macdonald IA. Beneficial metabolic effects of regular meal frequency on dietary thermogenesis, insulin sensitivity, and fasting lipid profiles in healthy obese women. Am J Clin Nutr 2005;81(1):16-24.
- 9. Sierra-Johnson J, Undén A-L, Linestrand M, Rosell M, Sjogren P, Kolak M, De Faire U, Fisher RM, Hellénius M-L. Eating Meals Irregularly: A Novel Environmental Risk Factor for the Metabolic Syndrome. Obesity 2008;16(6):1302-7. doi: 10.1038/oby.2008.203.
- 10. Pot G, Hardy R, Stephen A. Irregular consumption of energy intake in meals is associated with a higher cardiometabolic risk in adults of a British birth cohort. Int J Obes 2014;38(12):1518-24.
- Gutzwiller J, Göke B, Drewe J, Hildebrand P, Ketterer S, Handschin D, Winterhalder R, Conen D, Beglinger C. Glucagon-like peptide-1: a potent regulator of food intake in humans. Gut 1999;44(1):81-6.
- 12. Wren AM, Seal LJ, Cohen MA, Brynes AE, Frost GS, Murphy KG, Dhillo WS, Ghatei MA, Bloom SR. Ghrelin enhances appetite and increases food intake in humans. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2001;86(12):5992. doi: 10.1210/jcem.86.12.8111.
- 13. Batterham RL, Cowley MA, Small CJ, Herzog H, Cohen MA, Dakin CL, Wren AM, Brynes AE, Low MJ, Ghatei MA, et al. Gut hormone PYY3-36 physiologically inhibits food intake. Nature 2002;418(6898):650-4. doi:

http://www.nature.com/nature/journal/v418/n6898/suppinfo/nature00887_S1.html.

- 14. Hameed S, Dhillo WS, Bloom SR. Gut hormones and appetite control. Oral Dis 2009;15(1):18-26. doi: 10.1111/j.1601-0825.2008.01492.x.
- Beck AT, Ward CH, Mendelson MM, Mock JJ, Erbaugh JJ. AN inventory for measuring depression. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1961;4(6):561-71. doi: 10.1001/archpsyc.1961.01710120031004.
- 16. Garner DM, Olmsted MP, Bohr Y, Garfinkel PE. The eating attitudes test: psychometric features and clinical correlates. Psychol Med 1982;12(4):871-8.
- 17. Randomization.com. Internet: <u>http://www.randomization.com</u> (accessed Spetember 2012).
- 18. Solomon SJ, Kurzer MS, Calloway DH. Menstrual cycle and basal metabolic rate in women. Am J Clin Nutr 1982;36(4):611-6.
- 19. Dye L, Blundell JE. Menstrual cycle and appetite control: implications for weight regulation. Hum Reprod 1997;12(6):1142-51. doi: 10.1093/humrep/12.6.1142.

- 20. Davidsen L, Vistisen B, Astrup A. Impact of the menstrual cycle on determinants of energy balance: a putative role in weight loss attempts. Int J Obes 2007;31(12):1777-85.
- 21. Henry C. Basal metabolic rate studies in humans: measurement and development of new equations. Public Health Nutr 2005;8(7a):1133-52. doi: doi:10.1079/PHN2005801.
- 22. SACN. Dietary Reference Values for Energy. London: Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition, 2011.
- Craig CL, Marshall AL, Sjostrom M, Bauman AE, Booth ML, Ainsworth BE, Pratt M, Ekelund U, Yngve A, Sallis JF, et al. International physical activity questionnaire: 12-country reliability and validity. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2003;35(8):1381-95. doi: 10.1249/01.mss.0000078924.61453.fb.
- 24. Department.of.Health. Dietary reference values for food energy and nutrients for the United Kingdom: report of the Panel on Dietary Reference Values of the Committee on Medical Aspects of Food Policy. London: HMSO, 1991.
- 25. Papazoglou D, Augello G, Tagliaferri M, Savia G, Marzullo P, Maltezos E, Liuzzi A. Evaluation of a multisensor armband in estimating energy expenditure in obese individuals. Obesity (Silver Spring) 2006;14(12):2217-23. doi: 10.1038/oby.2006.260.
- 26. McDonnell CM, Donath SM, Vidmar SI, Werther GA, Cameron FJ. A novel approach to continuous glucose analysis utilizing glycemic variation. Diabetes Technol Ther 2005;7(2):253-63. doi: 10.1089/dia.2005.7.253.
- 27. Flint A, Raben A, Blundell JE, Astrup A. Reproducibility, power and validity of visual analogue scales in assessment of appetite sensations in single test meal studies. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 2000;24(1):38-48.
- 28. WHO. Waist circumference and waist-hip ratio. Report of a WHO Expert Consultation. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2008.
- 29. Durnin JV, Womersley J. Body fat assessed from total body density and its estimation from skinfold thickness: measurements on 481 men and women aged from 16 to 72 years. Br J Nutr 1974;32(1):77-97.
- 30. McGuire EA, Helderman JH, Tobin JD, Andres R, Berman M. Effects of arterial versus venous sampling on analysis of glucose kinetics in man. J Appl Physiol 1976;41(4):565-73.
- 31. Matthews DR, Hosker JP, Rudenski AS, Naylor BA, Treacher DF, Turner RC. Homeostasis model assessment: insulin resistance and β-cell function from fasting plasma glucose and insulin concentrations in man. Diabetologia 1985;28(7):412-19. doi: 10.1007/bf00280883.
- 32. Fellows IW, Macdonald IA. An automated method for the measurement of oxygen consumption and carbon dioxide excretion in man. Clin Phys Physiol Meas 1985;6(4):349.
- 33. Fruin ML, Rankin JW. Validity of a multi-sensor armband in estimating rest and exercise energy expenditure. Med Sci Sports Exerc 2004;36(6):1063-9.
- 34. Malavolti M, Pietrobelli A, Dugoni M, Poli M, Romagnoli E, Cristofaro PD, Battistini NC. A new device for measuring resting energy expenditure (REE) in healthy subjects. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis 2007;17(5):338-43.
- 35. Bertoli S, Posata A, Battezzati A, Spadafranca A, Testolin G, Bedogni G. Poor agreement between a portable armband and indirect calorimetry in the assessment of resting energy expenditure. Clin Nutr 2008;27(2):307-10. doi: 10.1016/j.clnu.2007.11.005.
- 36. Westerterp KR. Diet induced thermogenesis. Nutr Metab (Lond) 2004;1(1):5.
- 37. Hill JO, Wyatt HR, Reed GW, Peters JC. Obesity and the environment: where do we go from here? Science 2003;299(5608):853-5.
- 38. Brown WJ, Williams L, Ford JH, Ball K, Dobson AJ. identifying the energy gap: magnitude and determinants of 5-year weight gain in midage women. Obes Res 2005;13(8):1431-41.
- Ravussin E, Acheson KJ, Vernet O, Danforth E, Jéquier E. Evidence that insulin resistance is responsible for the decreased thermic effect of glucose in human obesity. J Clin Invest 1985;76(3):1268-73.

- 40. Segal KR, Albu J, Chun A, Edano A, Legaspi B, Pi-Sunyer F. Independent effects of obesity and insulin resistance on postprandial thermogenesis in men. J Clin Invest 1992;89(3):824-33.
- 41. Watanabe T, Nomura M, Nakayasu K, Kawano T, Ito S, Nakaya Y. Relationships between thermic effect of food, insulin resistance and autonomic nervous activity. J Med Invest 2006;53(1-2):153-8.
- 42. Brennan IM, Feltrin KL, Nair NS, Hausken T, Little TJ, Gentilcore D, Wishart JM, Jones KL, Horowitz M, Feinle-Bisset C. Effects of the phases of the menstrual cycle on gastric emptying, glycemia, plasma GLP-1 and insulin, and energy intake in healthy lean women. Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol 2009;297(3):G602-10. doi: 10.1152/ajpgi.00051.2009.
- 43. McNeil J, Doucet É. Possible factors for altered energy balance across the menstrual cycle: a closer look at the severity of PMS, reward driven behaviors and leptin variations. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol 2012;163(1):5-10. doi: 10.1016/j.ejogrb.2012.03.008.
- 44. De Silva A, Salem V, Long Christopher J, Makwana A, Newbould Rexford D, Rabiner Eugenii A, Ghatei Mohammad A, Bloom Stephen R, Matthews Paul M, Beaver John D, et al. The Gut Hormones PYY3-36 and GLP-17-36 amide Reduce Food Intake and Modulate Brain Activity in Appetite Centers in Humans. Cell Metab 2011;14(5):700-6. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2011.09.010.
- 45. Crovetti R, Porrini M, Santangelo A, Testolin G. The influence of thermic effect of food on satiety. Eur J Clin Nutr 1998;52(7):482-8.

	Regular m	Regular meal pattern		neal pattern
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Body weight (kg)	58.7 ± 6.1	58.3 ± 6.2	58.6 ± 6.6	58.2 ± 6.1
BMI (kg/m ²)	22.0 ± 2.0	21.8 ± 1.9	21.9 ± 1.9	21.8 ± 2.0
Body fat (%)	22.2 ± 3.0	22.1 ± 3.6	22.3 ± 3.5	22.7 ± 3.8
Waist (cm)	69.5 ± 5.5	69.5 ± 5.1	70.5 ± 5.7	69.9 ± 5.1
Waist/hip	0.7 ± 0.6	0.7 ± 0.6	0.7 ± 0.6	0.7 ± 0.6

TABLE 1. Participants' characteristics over the study ¹

mean \pm SD, n=11.

There were no significant differences in the characteristics of the ten participants across the

study comparing a regular and irregular meal pattern (Two-way ANOVA).

TABLE 2. Analyses of the CGM data compared between the two meal pattern interventions ¹

Glucose	Re	egular meal pat	tern	Irregular meal pattern			
	Day 7	Day 8	Day 9	Day 7	Day 8	Day 9	
(mmol/L)	6 meals	6 meals	6 meals	6 meals	5 meals	9 meals	
Fasting	4.7±0.8	4.9±0.4	4.9±0.4	5.0±0.6	4.9±0.6	5.1±0.4	
Mean 24 h	5.2±0.5	5.3±0.4	5.4±0.6	5.2±0.4	5.2±0.4	5.5±0.3	
Mean day h ²	5.3±0.7	5.4±0.5	5.5±0.5	5.3±0.4	5.3±0.4	5.6±0.3	
Mean night h ²	4.9±0.3	5.2±0.6	5.2±0.8	4.9±0.6	5.0±0.4	5.1±0.5	
Max ³ 24 h	7.1±1.0	7.1±1.4	7.9±1.5	7.5±1.4	7.2±0.8	7.9±1.2	
Max day h	7.1±1.0	7.1±1.4	7.9±1.5	7.5±1.3	7.2±0.8	7.9±1.2	
Max night h	5.5±0.4	5.8±0.8	5.9±0.7	5.8±1.0	5.5±0.5	5.8±0.6	
Min ³ 24 h	4.1±0.8	4.3±0.5	4.1±0.5	3.8±0.4	3.9±0.5	4.1±0.5	
Min day h	4.1±0.8	4.3±0.5	4.1±0.6	4.3±0.4	4.1±0.6	4.3±0.4	
Min night h	4.5±0.4	4.7±0.6	4.8±0.8	4.2±0.6	4.4±0.6	4.5±0.6	
iAUC 24h	566.9±935.2	464.8±756.9	625.7±633.4	473.2±760.0	659.3±834.9	969.0±808.8	
iAUC day h	553.3±723.0	376.7±610.4	515.0±591.7	500.8±547.1	629.9±637.6	850.5±685.5	
iAUC night h	-95.0±226.8	-74.1±169.4	-186.4±209.8	-69.5±138.4	-75.5±199.7	-136.2±145.9	
CONGA-1 ³	0.67±0.6	0.68±0.4	1.13±0.8	1.14±0.7	0.59±0.3	0.72±0.3	
(9:00-10:00)							
CONGA-1 (22:00-23:00)	0.38±0.22	0.36±0.1	0.60±0.4	0.32±0.2	0.32±0.2	0.52±0.2	
iAUC ³ -breakfast +90	50.3±54.4 ⁴	56.3±52.0	-	95.7±70.8 ⁴	66.6±42.2	-	
iAUC-mid- morning snack	25.3±29.3	29.9±40.4	-	31.8±42.3	43.2±25.9	-	
+90 iAUC-lunch +90	34.6±40.0	-	51.4±43.9 ⁵	21.5±45.0	-	102.8±74.7 ⁵	
iAUC-afternoon snack +90	36.8±61.0	-	-	41.7±43.1	-	-	
iAUC-dinner +90	46.0±58.9	-	50.5±43.3 ⁶	56.3±53.0	-	90.3±54.7 ⁶	
iAUC-night snack +90	17.2±21.7	25.3±26.7	9.4±45.0	35.7±32.1	21.3±33.0	23.1±21.9	

¹ mean \pm SD, n=9.

² Day h (7:00-midnight), Night h (midnight-7:00).

³Max (maximum), Min (minimum), CONGA-1 (continuous overall net glycemic action),

iAUC (incremental area under the curve).

^{4, 5, 6} There were significant differences in iAUC-breakfast + 90 on day 7, iAUC-lunch + 90

iAUC-dinner + 90 on day 9, between the regular and irregular intervention periods (paired T-

test, p < 0.05).

No significant differences were observed in the other measurements (paired T-test).

TABLE 3. Fasting blood measurements and peak postprandial glucose and insulin

_				1
concentrations over	the study compared	ring regular and	irregular meal	pattern ¹

	Regular n	neal pattern	Irregular ı	neal pattern
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.22 ± 1.13	4.34 ± 1.07	4.14 ± 1.25	4.15 ± 0.92
LDL (mmol/L)	2.48 ± 1.01	2.60 ± 1.04	2.44 ± 0.97	2.48 ± 0.82
HDL (mmol/L)	1.41 ± 0.21	1.39 ± 0.23	1.31 ± 0.30	1.31 ± 0.24
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	0.74 ± 0.23	0.80 ± 0.31	0.81 ± 0.55	0.83 ± 0.32
Glucose (mmol/L)	4.6 ± 0.40	4.4 ± 0.24	4.5 ± 0.52	4.3 ± 0.55
Insulin (mIU/L)	9.64 ± 2.87	8.97 ± 2.55	10.28 ± 4.14	8.52 ± 2.95
HOMA-IR	1.98 ± 0.96	1.77 ± 0.52	2.04 ± 0.91	1.60 ± 0.57
Glucose Peak (mmol/L)	7.4 ± 0.57	6.7 ± 0.65	6.8 ± 0.55	6.9 ± 0.80
Insulin peak (mIU/L)	83.1 ± 46.49	83.1 ± 54.94	103.8 ± 78.41	71.6 ± 32.25
GLP-1 (pmol/L) ²	3.70 ± 2.66	3.12 ± 2.63	3.95 ± 3.05	3.16 ± 2.67
PYY (pg/mL) ³	103.46 ± 25.80	94.20 ± 21.11	117.31 ± 41.20	90.10 ± 19.51
Ghrelin (pg/mL)	1012.5 ± 174.3	1017.9 ± 177.2	985.9 ± 227.4	1041.3 ± 208.0

¹ mean \pm SD, n=10.

 2 There was a significant main effect of visit on fasting plasma GLP-1 concentrations (Two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05).

 3 There was a significant main effect of visit on fasting plasma PYY concentrations (Two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05).

There were no significant differences in fasting serum lipids, blood glucose, serum insulin,

HOMA-IR and plasma ghrelin concentrations across the study comparing regular and

irregular meal pattern (Two-way ANOVA).

TABLE 4. Comparison of mean appetite ratings (all day points combined) on day 7 (6 meals

 per day) of regular and irregular meal patterns ¹

	Regular meal patternPre mealsPost meals		Irregular meal patter	
			Pre meals	Post meals
Hunger (mm)	46.5±10.2	$14.5\pm7.0^{\ 2}$	48.8±10.0	23.4 ± 6.0^{2}
Satiety (mm)	42.2±12.0	74.9 ±5.1	40.4±13.1	74.6 ±5.8
Fullness (mm)	39.5±12.2	80.6 ±4.4 ³	40.2±13.0	73.6 ±5.3 ³
Desire to eat (mm)	51.8±10.2	22.3 ±7.1	49.6± 9.8	26.0 ±6.0
Prospective food consumption (mm)	56.5±7.7	24.9 ±8.3	54.4± 8.3	29.9 ±8.1

¹ mean \pm SD, n=11.

² There was a significant difference in post meals hunger ratings between the regular and irregular intervention periods (paired T-test, p < 0.05).

³ There was a significant difference in post meals fullness ratings between the two

intervention periods (paired T-test, p < 0.05).

No significant differences were observed in the other VAS ratings between the two intervention periods (paired T-test).

TABLE 5. Comparison of mean appetite ratings (all day points combined) on day 14 (6

 meals per day) of regular and irregular meal patterns ¹

	Regular meal patternPre mealsPost meals		Irregular meal patter	
			Pre meals	Post meals
Hunger (mm)	51.0± 11.5 ²	18.9 ± 4.5^{3}	58.0 ± 8.7^{-2}	22.8 ± 5.0^{3}
Satiety (mm)	40.7 ± 7.4	77.2 ± 2.6	44.0±13.3	75.3 ± 4.7
Fullness (mm)	44.6±13.1	75.6± 3.5	37.2±9.0	76.0±3.6
Desire to eat (mm)	51.3±11.9	26.5 ± 4.3	58.2±5.9	24.9±3.9
Prospective food consumption (mm)	58.6±9.3	30.9±4.5	55.6±9.3	27.9±3.3

¹ mean \pm SD, n=11.

² There was a significant difference in pre meals hunger ratings between the regular and irregular intervention periods (paired T-test, p < 0.05).

³There was a significant difference in post meals hunger ratings between the two intervention

periods (paired T-test, p < 0.05).

No significant differences were observed in the other VAS ratings between the two

intervention periods (paired T-test).

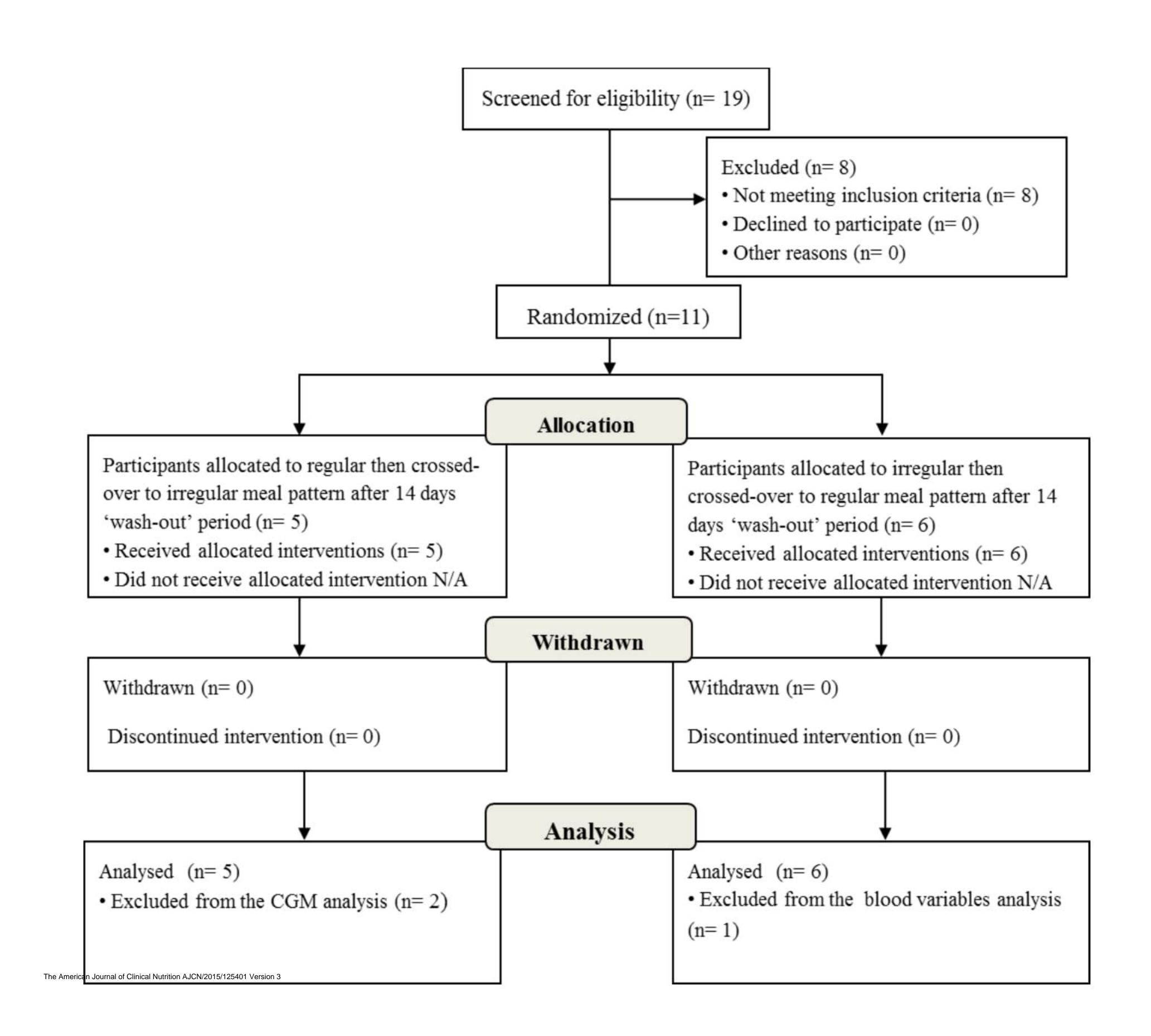
FIGURE 1. Study participant flow diagram.

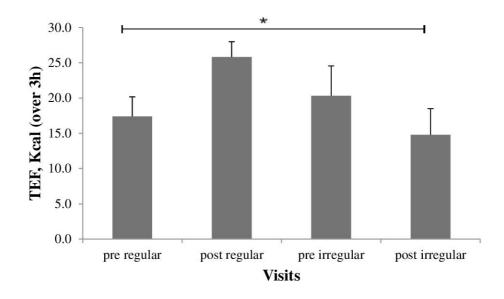
FIGURE 2. Mean (\pm SEM) iAUC for TEF in eleven healthy women in the visits pre and post regular and irregular meal pattern, measured by the trapezoidal method. * There was a significant meal pattern by visit interaction between the regular and irregular meal pattern periods (Two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). iAUC for TEF was significantly higher post-regular compared with post-irregular meal pattern (p < 0.05). iAUC for TEF was significantly higher post-regular compared with pre-regular meal pattern (p < 0.05). There was no significant difference for TEF iAUC between pre-irregular and post-irregular intervention visits.

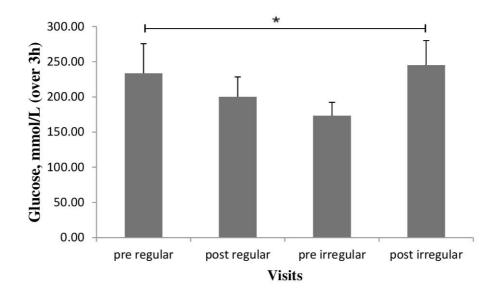
FIGURE 3. Mean iAUC for (\pm SEM) blood glucose concentration in ten healthy women in the visits pre and post regular and irregular intervention period, measured by the trapezoidal method.

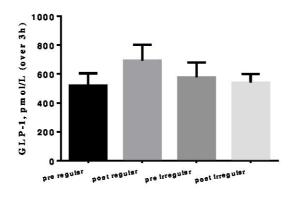
* There was a significant meal pattern by visit interaction between the regular and irregular meal pattern periods (Two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05). iAUC for blood glucose concentration was significantly lower post-regular compared with post-irregular meal pattern (p < 0.05). iAUC for blood glucose concentration was significantly higher post-irregular compared with pre-irregular meal pattern (p < 0.05).

FIGURE 4. Mean (\pm SEM) iAUC plasma GLP-1, PYY and ghrelin concentrations in ten healthy women in the visits pre and post regular and irregular meal pattern, measured by the trapezoidal method. A significant main effect of visit was observed for iAUC plasma PYY (Two-way ANOVA, p < 0.05).

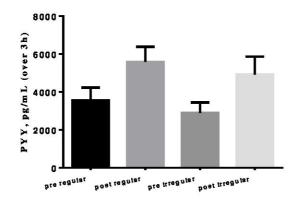




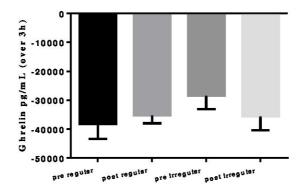












V isits