1	Nutrient modulation in the management of disease induced
2	muscle wasting - evidence from human studies
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31

32 Abstract

33

34 **Purpose of Review**

35 In addition to being essential for movement, skeletal muscles act as both a store and 36 source of key macronutrients. As such, muscle is an important tissue for whole body 37 homeostasis, undergoing muscle wasting in times of starvation, disease and stress 38 e.g. to provide energy substrates for other tissues. Yet, muscle wasting is also 39 associated with disability, co-morbidities and mortality. Since nutrition is so crucial to 40 maintaining muscle homeostasis "in health", it has been postulated that muscle 41 wasting in cachexia-syndromes may be alleviated by nutritional interventions. This 42 review will highlight recent work in this area in relation to muscle kinetics, the acute 43 metabolic (e.g. dietary protein), and longer-term effects of dietary interventions.

44

45 **Recent Findings**

Whole-body and skeletal muscle protein synthesis invariably exhibit deranged kinetics (favoring catabolism) in wasting states; further, many of these conditions harbor blunted anabolic responses to protein-nutrition compared to healthy controls. These derangements underlie muscle wasting. Recent trials of essential amino acid (EAA) and protein-based nutrition have shown some potential for therapeutic benefit.

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52 Summary

53 Nutritional modulation, particularly of dietary-AA, may have benefits to prevent or 54 attenuate disease-induced muscle wasting. Nonetheless, there remains a lack of 55 recent studies exploring these key concepts to make conclusive recommendations.

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57 **200 words**

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60 Introduction

Skeletal muscle facilitates locomotion and is metabolically important in 62 63 providing a large capacity for glucose and intramuscular lipid storage for 64 energy production, as well as the body's largest reservoir of amino acids (AA) 65 [1]. Clinically this makes muscle a vital support mechanism in times of need e.g. i) releasing AA for tissue repair in response to diseases, trauma and 66 67 starvation, and ii) compensating for failing organs (i.e liver and kidneys). Both 68 communicable infectious and non-communicable diseases are associated 69 with skeletal muscle wasting; collectively known as "cachexia" syndromes 70 these include: cancers [2], metabolic diseases such as diabetes [3], auto-71 immune/immune-deficiency diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis [4] in 72 addition to organ failures, e.g. cirrhosis [5], chronic obstructive pulmonary 73 disease (COPD) [6] congestive heart failure (CHF) [7]. Cachexia is defined as 74 an involuntary and progressive weight loss primarily due to muscle wasting 75 with or without associated loss of fat mass [8]. The mechanisms underlying 76 muscle wasting include disease-led catabolism, co-morbidities, poly-77 pharmacy, physical inactivity and malnutrition [9]. Crucially, muscle wasting 78 has been shown to be clinically important as it is a strong predictor of mortality 79 in many clinical conditions [10]. Nonetheless, interventions to mitigate 80 cachexia are limited, since pharmaceutical treatments to increase muscle 81 mass are yet to show efficacy [11]. This has led to the search for nutritional 82 support strategies.

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84 Skeletal muscle mass is under tight homeostatic regulation with a 85 precise diurnal balance being maintained between muscle protein synthesis 86 (MPS) and muscle protein breakdown (MPB). This equilibrium is dynamic 87 across fasted-fed cycles. The intake of food enhances MPS and suppresses MPB via EAA-mediated stimulation of MPS [12] and insulin mediated 88 89 suppression of MPB [13]. Yet, a key feature of cachexia is that it cannot be 90 completely reversed with conventional nutritional support [9], suggesting a 91 disturbance in these key homeostatic/proteostatic processes. Ultimately, this 92 results in muscle wasting that standard nutritional provision cannot restore -93 hence, the search for nutritional/nutraceutical strategies. This timely review 94 will summarise new knowledge into the metabolic basis of muscle wasting in 95 diseases (note: where sufficient recent data exists), and associated nutrient 96 therapies that have been trialed – all with a strict focus on clinical studies.

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98 What's new in cancer nutritional management?

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100 Cachexia is prevalent in nearly half of all cancer patients exhibiting ~10% 101 body-weight loss, and accounts for ~20-25% of all cancer deaths [14]. In 102 addition to inactivity and malnutrition, cachexia is driven by disease processes 103 (e.g. inflammation [8]) and disease-modifying treatments e.g. chemotherapy 104 [15]. Insights into the regulation of cancer cachexia have been achieved using 105 protein kinetic measurements. For instance, it was recently shown that 106 pancreatic cancer patients (weight loss >10%) exhibited increased whole 107 body protein synthesis (WBPS) and whole body protein breakdown (WBPB) 108 compared to controls in the fasted state, resulting in no difference in net 109 balance (NB) [16]. In contrast, in non-cachectic advanced non-small cell lung

110 cancer (NSCLC) patients (stage III/IV unresectable), no differences in WBPS or WBPB were observed, yet overall, NSCLC displayed decreased NB [17]. 111 112 Other studies have focused on how the feeding response is affected by 113 cancer burden; one such study illustrated that sip-feeding over 4h (24g 114 casein/86.4g carbohydrate/31.2g fat) had no effect on WBPS in pancreatic 115 cancer patients. Nonetheless, similar improvements in NB were achieved 116 compared to healthy controls through suppressed WBPB [16]. Conversely, 117 14g of leucine-enriched (40%) EAA increased WBPS and NB equally between 118 NSCLC patients vs. healthy controls [17], similar to what was previously 119 shown in NSCLC patients in response to hyperaminoacidemia [2]. Disparities 120 in fasted and fed-state results between van Dijk et al. [16] and Engelen et al. 121 [17] could be due to different type of cancers (pancreatic vs. NSCLC), with 122 pancreatic cancer patients exhibiting greater cachexia as shown by van Dijk 123 et al. (>10% vs. 0 in Engelen). That being said, both groups displayed 124 elevated C-reactive protein (CRP) (8.3mg/ml and 9.8mg/ml respectively), 125 while CRP positively correlated with MPB only in van Dijk et al. [16]. Overall 126 these studies indicate high levels of EAA may provide benefits for increasing 127 WBPS and NB in cancer patients. Yet the effectiveness at increasing muscle 128 protein synthesis is difficult to interpret as measures of whole body protein 129 kinetics include that of all organs that may also display altered protein 130 metabolism.

Additional work has been performed looking at MPS via gold-standard direct incorporation methods. In cachectic colorectal cancer patients, fastedstate MPS was unchanged compared to controls, although leg MPB tended to be increased [18]. Moreover, in response to AA infusions over 2.5h

135 (102mg/kg/h), blunted increases in MPS were evident in cancer patients 136 compared to controls [18]. In contrast to these results, a population of mixed 137 advanced non-cachectic cancer patients showed increased MPS in response 138 to a formulated medical food high in protein and free-leucine compared to a control medical food (40g vs. 24g protein, 4.16g vs. 0g free leucine 139 140 respectively). Nonetheless, in the absence of a healthy control group 141 comparison, whether this was an "overcoming of anabolic resistance" or 142 simply a dose response phenomenon cannot be determined. Recently, 143 cumulative MPS was measured using D₂O in upper gastrointestinal patients over 7-days. Intriguingly, MPS was the same as controls and was further 144 145 increased in weight losing patients [19]; these results could be driven by 146 elevated MPS, matched with an equal or greater increase in MPB (not 147 measured). Further, activity and diet were not monitored, that will affect 148 cumulative MPS [19-21].

149 Together these protein kinetic studies demonstrate that cancer may 150 alter whole body protein kinetics, perhaps to an extent dependent upon 151 cancer type and progression of cachexia. Further, protein synthesis (particular 152 that of muscle) may in some instances exhibit anabolic resistance to protein 153 feeding. This is confirmed by the fact that, 6-weeks after tumor resection, 154 Williams et al. demonstrated the restoration of anabolic sensitivity in these 155 patients [18]. That said, providing EAA enriched protein sources may provide 156 benefits in overcoming anabolic insensitivity in muscle [17,22] – yet whether it 157 can truly restore MPS to the same as controls remains to be confirmed. It is 158 patently clear that larger are more tightly controlled studies are needed.

159 Recent guidelines on nutrition in cancer suggest that malnutrition 160 should be taken into consideration and avoided by providing/advising on 161 adequate nutritional intake. While optimal protein intake has not been 162 determined in cancer patients, a minimum of 1g/kg/day is suggested with a 163 target of 1.2-2g/kg/d [23]. Recently, colorectal cancer patients with weight loss 164 >1kg in the past 3-6 months received pre-operative oral supplementation of 165 24g protein/d (5-15 days), although this did not prevent further losses in fat free mass index (FFMI) -0.345 kg.m² [24]. In another trial, newly diagnosed 166 167 oesophageal cancer patients were randomized to receive placebo or a 168 specially formulated medical food similar to that previously described [22]. 169 Patients consumed 2x200ml; consisting of 9.9 g protein, 1.1 g free leucine, 170 0.6 g eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), 0.3 g docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) and a 171 balanced mix of vitamins, minerals, and trace elements per 100ml for 4-172 weeks. After supplementation, the specially formulated medical food resulted 173 in a significant increase in body weight (approximately 1.25kg) and functional 174 performance [25]. Energy dense high protein oral nutritional supplementation 175 or parental nutrition have shown efficacy at increasing weight, although this is 176 not always the case [26]. With cachectic patients having greater protein 177 needs, increased provision is likely to be beneficial. Variability between 178 studies is introduced by diverse individual cancer phenotypes rendering 179 interpretations difficult.

Further to protein, there are other nutraceutical interventions that may herald benefits for increasing body weight in cancer. The primary anabolic effects of protein arise from the EAA and leucine content, along with the metabolite β-hydroxy-β-methylbutyrate (HMB). Nonetheless, supplementing

184 mixtures of HMB/arginine/glutamine in muscle wasting conditions has shown 185 both increases, or no effect on body weight [27,28]. Fish oil derived fatty 186 acids, particularly N-3 fatty acids, have many health benefits in both health 187 and disease. A recent review investigating the effect of purified EPA, or EPA 188 and DHA combined on body composition in cancer highlights studies 189 reporting an increase or stabilization of lean body mass and weight, along 190 with decreasing inflammation [23,29]. Nutritional support to increase energy 191 and protein intake, through nutritional counselling or supplementation is 192 recommended in cancer patients [23]. However, there is currently a lack of 193 strong consistent evidence that long term supplementation of e.g. protein, AA 194 (or metabolites of), or long chain N-3 fatty acids robustly improve lean mass [23,28]. Nonetheless, there are multiple studies reporting increases in weight 195 196 when utilizing high EAA and high EPA interventions. Combined with the 197 promising results of EAA/protein on whole body and MPS, oral nutritional 198 support (ONS) strategies may hold clinical benefits in cancer patients [26].

199

200 What's new in immune and metabolic disease nutritional management? 201

202 Rheumatoid arthritis is an idiopathic autoimmune disease affecting synovial 203 joints. A complex network of chemokines and cytokines (particular TNFa and 204 IL-6) promote an inflammatory response that attracts immune cells to the 205 synovial fluid- stimulating osteoclast regeneration, bone and cartilage 206 degradation by matrix metalloproteinase and a perpetuation of inflammation 207 [30]. RA is commonly accompanied by muscle wasting of poorly defined 208 etiology, although chronic inflammation has been suggested to contribute [4]. 209 Muscle protein kinetics have recently been investigated in non-cachectic RA

210 patients. In the fasted state there was no difference between MPS and MPB 211 in RA patients vs. healthy age-matched controls [31]. Moreover, in response 212 to whey protein (0.5g/kg/LBM) there was an equal increase in MPS and 213 suppression in MPB. This group of individuals were described to be 'well 214 functioning' and did not display reductions in muscle strength or mass. Further 215 these patients were receiving disease modifying antirheumatic drug 216 (DMARD), methotrexate and although exhibiting inflammation (TNFa, IL6, 217 CRP) this was less than previous studies [31]. Overall this suggests anabolic 218 resistance is not present in RA, although there are no studies to make 219 comparisons to, and this may be different where overt cachexia is present.

220 Generally RA patients exhibit energy and protein requirements similar 221 to age-matched controls [4]. Nevertheless, it was shown that mixtures of non-222 EAA (alanine, glutamic acid, glycine, and serine) vs. HMB, glutamine and 223 arginine supplements were equally effective at increasing muscle mass in RA 224 patients [4,32]. However, recent studies into the effects of nutritional 225 supplementation on lean mass in RA patients are lacking. Interestingly 12-226 weeks of creatine supplementation was shown to increase lean mass in RA 227 patients [33] potentially offering an effective way to restore muscle mass. 228 Furthermore, with the preserved anabolic sensitivity, increased protein 229 supplementation may help prevent or restore muscle mass losses, although 230 again, larger and more controlled and detailed studies are needed.

Type I Diabetes (T1DM) is an auto-immune condition resulting in a lack of insulin production due to destruction of pancreatic beta cells and has a major negative impact on skeletal muscle [34]. A primary action of insulin on human muscle is the suppression of MPB [13]; as such reduced insulin action

235 on muscle may also exacerbate muscle wasting [3]. In support of this, without 236 treatment most T1D individuals display dramatic weight loss, while weight loss 237 and muscle mass can be much improved with insulin therapy [3]. Overall, 238 T1DM results in an increase in both WBPS and WBPB. Increases in WBPB are greater than WBPS such that negative net balance occurs, with the 239 240 majority of this coming from muscle protein sources [3]. With regard to 241 feeding, supplementary leucine increased whole-body protein accretion in 242 T1DM via suppression of protein breakdown [35].

243 T2D is primarily characterized by tissue insulin resistance (IR). Initially, 244 insulin secretion increases, yet over time insulin secretion is inadequate to 245 overcome IR [3]. T2D is a result of genetic and environmental factors, the risk 246 being increased with obesity and physical inactivity. T2D is associated with a 247 greater decline in muscle mass especially with ageing [36]. Nonetheless, 248 WBPS, WBPB and NB were shown to be comparable between controls and 249 T2DM patients and with no difference in MPS [37]. Additionally, obese T2D 250 patients, with a lower percentile of appendicular lean mass, displayed no 251 difference in fasted MPS [38]. Both of these studies further showed equal 252 response to feeding as controls, with 20g casein [37] and 10/20g of EAA with 253 maximal stimulation at 10g [38]. This suggests anabolic resistance is not the 254 mechanism of muscle loss in T2D. Additionally, while there appears to be no 255 major differences in protein kinetics, people with T2D maintain higher levels of 256 insulin; whether this is needed to maintain equivalent WBPB is unclear [3].

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258 What's new in organ failure nutritional management?

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260 Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is characterized by long-term 261 airflow limitation ("lung failure") mainly caused by chronic exposure to cigarette smoke and air born pollutants [39]. Many COPD patients display 262 263 cachexia with underlying hyper-metabolism, inflammation and reduced appetite [40]. COPD patients in the postabsorptive state have shown both 264 265 increased or unchanged whole body protein turnover [6,41], yet the effect on 266 MPS is unknown. Further, the effect of protein feeding has illustrated equal 267 anabolic responses to healthy controls, with greater responses when a 268 mixture of leucine enriched EAA (13g-40% leucine) was used compared to a 269 mixture of total AA (13q-12% leucine) [42]. Overall, nutritional 270 supplementation in COPD patients has shown increased body weight, with 271 the use of EAA supplements showing greatest benefits at increasing fat free 272 mass (FFM) [39].

273 Chronic kidney disease (CKD) describes the progressive loss of kidney 274 function that results in end stage renal disease. This is accompanied by a 275 progressive loss of muscle mass often referred to as protein energy wasting 276 (PEW), although it has no obvious distinction from cachexia. Muscle loss is 277 associated with many metabolic abnormalities in CKD including inflammation, 278 insulin resistance, decreased nutrient intake and dietary restrictions, with 279 muscle loss further enhanced by dialysis [43]. Whole body protein kinetics 280 have been shown to be similar between CKD and healthy subjects, however 281 in the fasted state specifically mixed MPS was lower [44]. The biggest effect 282 of CKD on muscle kinetics is that through dialysis; resulting in rapid protein 283 losses through increases in MPB that may persist for several hours after 284 treatment [44]. In non-dialysis CKD patients, a protein diet of 0.6-0.8g/kg/day

285 has been recommended, as a low protein diet may slow the progression to 286 renal failure. In CKD patients undergoing dialysis a much higher protein intake 287 of >1.2g/kg/day is recommended [43], and to try and attenuate protein losses, 288 many studies have provided intradialysis supplementation. Enteral nutritional 289 support has previously shown effectiveness at attenuating catabolism [45]. 290 However recently, CKD patients receiving a meal containing 30g of protein 291 90-min after the start of each treatment for 6-months did not prevent losses in 292 lean mass [46]. Furthermore, consumption of either 27g whey protein, soy 293 protein or placebo 15 minutes prior to the start of dialysis for 6 months had no 294 effect on lean mass [47]. Similarly consumption of 3g of calcium-HMB per day 295 for 6-months had no effects on lean body mass [27,48]. However, in both 296 these studies lean mass remained stable in control and treatment groups. An 297 additional option is the use of intradialytic parental nutrition, utilizing mixtures 298 high in amino acids, glucose and lipids. Although showing benefits on nitrogen 299 balance and body weight, recent studies focusing on muscle outcomes are 300 limited, with intra-dialytic parenteral nutrition (IDPN) further seen as a short-301 term nutritional approach [45]. Both enteral and parental intradialytic 302 supplementations offer a safe means to increase nutritional intake. However 303 nutritional modulation in CKD should take individual characteristics and 304 clinical condition into consideration [45].

305 Congestive heart failure (CHF) is impaired ventricular ejection and or 306 filling capacity caused by structural or functional abnormalities. Accompanying 307 heart failure is progressive involuntary weight loss, often referred to as cardiac 308 cachexia [49]. Skeletal muscle loss is always the result of an imbalance 309 between anabolic and catabolic factors, yet there is a lack of studies looking

at protein kinetics in heart failure, with only one study demonstrating that generally whole body protein turnover is unaffected [50]. As such the presence of anabolic resistance in HF is unknown. Malnutrition is often present in these patients and so nutritional support is recommended; yet there are no specific guidelines for protein and energy intake. The use of protein rich high calorie supplementation, and similarly EAA, have previously shown benefits in body weight in most patients [51].

317 Finally, acute multiple organ failure through the onset of acute illness 318 and/or trauma is an often overlooked area of clinical nutrition. The accelerated 319 loss of muscle in ICU patients (estimated at a striking 1-2%/d; [52]) through 320 increased MPB and decreased MPS has devastating consequences on 321 recovery, morbidity and mortality, even following discharge [53]. Due to the 322 multifaceted causes of critical illness, alongside the extended periods of 323 bedrest, nutritional management can be complicated. Of the few studies that 324 have been performed, potential dietary manipulation with the EAA leucine and 325 in particular its metabolite HMB have shown efficacy, improving nitrogen 326 balance in trauma ICU patients [52]. Other anti-catabolic drugs and 327 nutraceuticals (e.g. N-3 fatty acids, metformin) that have been tested in acute 328 patients are discussed in detail in a recent review for this journal [54], 329 however large RCT's are still lacking. Yet it is unlikely that any one nutritional 330 intervention will be the "magic bullet" for preventing wasting in ICU patients, 331 and nutritional therapies should be carefully individualized to each patient dependent on cause of admission. 332

333

334 Conclusions

336 Many chronic diseases described herein are associated with a significant and 337 progressive wasting of muscle mass that increases the risk of mortality. There 338 are common underlying abnormalities e.g. inflammation, hyper-metabolism, 339 insulin/anabolic resistance - all contributing the irreversible nature of cachexia 340 to standard nutrition. Despite the trialing of nutritional interventions, there is 341 considerable inconsistencies and variability among results- assumably due to 342 the type of disease. Acutely, protein feeding high in EAA content has shown 343 to be effective at promoting a full anabolic response on the whole body and 344 muscle level. Fulfilling energy requirements through high calorie/high protein 345 nutritional approaches is therefore icily to be beneficial in many situations of 346 disease-induced muscle wasting. However, recommendations should be 347 specialized, as nutritional requirements and route of administration may vary 348 considerably across disease state and progression. This review also 349 highlights areas where lack of clinical progress is being made; including a 350 number of the topics we cover herein, in addition to those with little-to no new 351 data not covered e.g. chronic liver disease.

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335

353 Key Points

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Many diseases are accompanied with a significant and progressive
 muscle wasting known as cachexia, which is a strong predictor of
 mortality. The specific underlying mechanisms to muscle wasting in
 disease are incompletely defined, yet many conditions display
 inflammation, increased energy expenditure and malnutrition.

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Protein loss occurs through an imbalance between protein synthesis
 and protein breakdown. Using stable isotope techniques to study
 protein kinetics, the mechanism of protein loss can be studied and
 effective therapeutics devised.

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These techniques have revealed altered protein kinetics that favour
 catabolism and have identified the presence of anabolic resistance in
 many disease states. Currently, protein high in EAA has shown
 effectiveness at promoting anabolism.

370

There are considerable inconsistencies among the efficacy of
 nutritional interventions in disease induced muscle wasting. Currently
 high calorie high protein (EAA) supplementation has shown to be most
 effective at attenuating muscle loss.

375

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395 Figure Legend

396 Figure 1 an overview of disease induced muscle wasting. Cachexia is a complex syndrome that is associated with many disease states. The 397 398 development of muscle wasting with disease is multifactorial, with chronic 399 disease often resulting in changes in habitual behavior such as malnutrition 400 and inactivity; along with many adverse effects from drug treatments. These 401 factors are themselves associated with muscle loss and can exacerbate 402 negative disease outcomes. The underlying mechanisms of cachexia across 403 disease states are unclear, although share common characteristics such as 404 inflammation, increased REE and insulin resistance. Loss of muscle mass 405 must occur through an overall imbalance between protein synthesis and 406 protein breakdown. Protein kinetics has shown to be frequently altered, 407 generally favoring a catabolic environment. Further, impaired anabolic 408 responses to nutrition are often present likely contributing to the irreversible 409 nature of cachexia through standard nutritional provision. Many nutritional 410 interventions have been tried to promote anabolism and attenuate muscle 411 wasting. Currently protein high in EAA has shown promising affects, yet many 412 other nutraceutical interventions have shown positive but overall inconsistent 413 results. REE, resting energy expenditure. PS, protein synthesis. PB, protein breakdown. EAA, essential amino acids. HMB, β-hydroxy-β-methylbutyrate. 414 415 MPS, muscle protein synthesis.

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* Engelen et al 2015 - Demonstrated an essential amino acid mixture is more
effective at increasing whole body protein synthesis in cancer patients than
that of total amino acids. Further this response was equal to healthy controls
suggesting EAA may be effective in preventing muscle mass loss

* Mikkelsen et al 2015 - First study in rheumatoid arthritis patients to
demonstrate equal responses in muscle protein synthesis and muscle protein
breakdown to whey protein. Indicating that in well-treated rheumatoid arthritis
patients anabolic sensitivity is maintained

* Faber et al 2017 - Showed increased body weight and performance status in
cancer patients using a specially formulated medical food high in EAA, fish oil
and vitamins. Previously, deutz et al 2011 demonstrated this medical food
was effective at increasing acute MPS in cancer patients. Together these
studies show the power of devising anabolic interventions on a acute basis
and implementing them on a long term basis.

* Macdonald et al 2015 - The first study to use D₂O to measure long term musle protein synthesis in patients with upper GI cancer. This reveleaed increased muscle protein synthesis in cachetic cancer patients, seemingly contradicting the theory of anabolic resistance in muscle wasting. These techniques are less invasie to atute tracer studies and will undoubtable unravel disease induced alterations in kinetics on a long term 'free living' basis

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