



Applied nutritional investigation

Glycerophosphocholine enhances growth hormone secretion and fat oxidation in young adults

Takashi Kawamura M.S.^a, Takeshi Okubo Ph.D.^b, Koji Sato Ph.D.^a, Satoshi Fujita Ph.D.^a, Kazushige Goto Ph.D.^a, Takafumi Hamaoka M.D., Ph.D.^a, Motoyuki Iemitsu Ph.D.^{a,*}^a Faculty of Sport and Health Science, Ritsumeikan University, Shiga, Japan^b NOF Corporation, Kanagawa, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 1 September 2011

Accepted 20 February 2012

Keywords:

Choline

Free fatty acid

Glycerol

Acetoacetate

3-Hydroxybutyrate

ABSTRACT

Objective: α -Glycerophosphocholine (GPC) is a putative acetylcholine precursor that potentially increases growth hormone secretion through the action of acetylcholine-stimulated catecholamine. The aim of this study was to investigate acute physiologic responses to a single intake of GPC.

Methods: Eight healthy male subjects (25 ± 1 y old) ingested GPC 1000 mg or a placebo in a double-blind randomized crossover study. Fasting blood samples were obtained before the administration of GPC (baseline) and 60 and 120 min after administration. All subjects repeated the identical protocol using the placebo.

Results: Plasma free choline levels significantly increased at 60 and 120 min after GPC administration. Plasma growth hormone secretion was increased significantly 60 min after taking GPC, whereas no significant change was observed with the placebo. In addition, the serum free fatty acid was increased 120 min after GPC ingestion, but no changes were seen with the placebo. Moreover, serum acetoacetate and 3-hydroxybutyrate levels, which are indices of hepatic fat oxidation, were increased at 120 min after taking GPC, whereas the placebo had no effect.

Conclusion: These findings suggest that a single dose of GPC increases growth hormone secretion and hepatic fat oxidation, with concomitant increases in choline levels, in young adults.

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Introduction

Choline is crucial for normal cell function and plays several vital roles in the body [1]. It is an important dietary nutrient, which, in humans, is related to neurotransmission (acetylcholine), transmembrane signaling, methyl metabolism, synthesis of phospholipids in the cell membrane, and fat and cholesterol metabolism [2]. Several human studies have demonstrated that a choline-deficient diet induces the development of hepatic steatosis and tissue damage (e.g., in patients receiving total parenteral nutrition), but the effect resolves when a source of dietary choline is provided [3–5]. In healthy male subjects with normal folate and vitamin B12 levels, average plasma free choline levels were about 10 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, and a 3-wk diet deficient in

choline lowered these levels to about 7 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, leading to incipient liver dysfunction [1]. Moreover, in rodents and humans, choline deficiency affects brain structure and function [6] and increases the risk of neural tube defects [7], coronary artery disease [8], and cancer [9]. Therefore, the Institute of Medicine of the National Academy of Sciences (USA) recognizes choline as an essential nutrient for humans and has made recommendations for the dietary choline intake [10].

α -Glycerophosphocholine (GPC) is synthesized from beans and is a natural choline compound that has been used in medicines and supplements. In clinical trials, choline supplementation has been found to improve dementia, memory, and cognitive impairments in patients with Alzheimer's disease [11,12]. Although it has been shown that GPC supplements may substitute for insufficient dietary choline and protect the liver [1], the effects of a single dose of GPC on hepatic fat metabolism in healthy subjects with sufficient dietary sources of choline are unclear.

Orally administered GPC is effectively absorbed in the intestine [13], and plasma total choline levels increase rapidly after the ingestion of GPC, with high circulating levels of choline

This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (23680071 and 22650166 to Dr. Iemitsu) and the Japan Science and Technology Agency (Dr. Iemitsu).

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81-77-599-4131; fax: +81-77-561-3761.

E-mail address: iemitsu@fc.ritsumei.ac.jp (M. Iemitsu).

maintained for over 24 h in animal models [13,14]. We hypothesized that GPC administration would increase the fat metabolism in healthy young adults, and that ingested GPC might play a role in the regulation of growth hormone (GH) secretion. We investigated eight young Japanese men to clarify whether acute ingestions of GPC increased resting GH secretion. To confirm the GPC effects on fat metabolism, we examined whether the GPC-induced changes in GH secretion concomitantly affected serum free fatty acid (FFA) and glycerol. Moreover, we measured acetoacetate and 3-hydroxybutyrate, which are indices of fat oxidation in the liver.

Materials and methods

Subjects

Eight healthy males participated in this study (mean \pm standard error: age 25.4 ± 1.1 y old, height 171.3 ± 1.9 cm, body mass 66.0 ± 2.2 kg, fat mass $11.4 \pm 1.1\%$). Subjects were informed about the experimental procedures and the potential risks involved, and written consent was obtained. The inclusion criteria were as follows: participants should not be habitual consumers of any fatty acid supplement or medication known to affect lipid metabolism, should have no symptoms of chronic disease, and should be non-smokers. The study was approved by the ethics review board of Ritsumeikan University.

Experimental procedures

This was a double-blinded, randomized, placebo-controlled, crossover study. Subjects were instructed to fall asleep before 12:00 the night before the study and to avoid alcohol and any nutrients that might affect choline on the day before. After overnight fasting, the subjects arrived at the laboratory at 08:00 and rested for 30 min before the first blood collection. Venous blood samples were obtained from an indwelling cannula in the antecubital vein at 60 and 120 min after ingestion of 1000 mg of GPC. All subjects repeated an identical protocol, ingesting the placebo in place of GPC, 2 wk after the first experiment. All subjects were in the same state of rest during the two experiments. Blood samples for the measurement of hormones and metabolites were stored at -80°C until use. The room temperature was maintained at 24°C throughout the experiment.

Glycerophosphocholine

Glycerophosphocholine was synthesized as follows. Lecithin extracted from soybeans at 85% purity was deacylated by hydrolysis. Thereafter, it was subjected to silica gel column chromatography to obtain a GPC solution, which was crystallized and lyophilized. The GPC purity was determined to be $>99\%$ by ^{31}P -nuclear magnetic resonance. The GPC supplement was composed of a mixture of 33.3% GPC, 65.7% maltitol and 1.0% silica (w/w). The placebo was composed of a mixture of maltitol 99.67% and silica 0.33% (w/w). GPC was present at 1000 mg in a total dose of 3000 mg.

Blood analyses

Plasma free choline (Alfresa Pharma Corporation, Osaka, Japan), serum FFA, ketone body (Eiken Chemical Co., Ltd, Tokyo, Japan; and Kainos Laboratories, Inc., Tokyo, Japan), serum glycerol (Cayman Chemical Company, Ann Arbor, MI, USA), and plasma glucose were measured by an enzymatic colorimetric method [15,16]. The coefficients of variation were 1.3% for free choline, 0.8% for FFA, 2.9% for ketone bodies, 5.0% for glycerol, and 2.3% for glucose.

The plasma GH concentration was analyzed using the Immulite 1000 Analyzer (Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics, Inc., Tokyo, Japan). The sensitivity of the assay for GH and the coefficient of variation were 0.05 ng/mL and 2.9%, respectively. All samples were assayed in duplicate.

Statistical analysis

A paired Student's *t* test was used to evaluate the differences between the GPC and placebo groups, and two-way repeated-measure analysis of variance was used to evaluate differences among time points taken for the two groups. The values after the different treatments were compared by using deviations from fasting values to allow for any differences from baseline, and group and time course interactions were included in these models. All pairwise testing was adjusted for multiple comparisons by using a Bonferroni correction factor (StatView 5.0, SAS Institute, NC, USA). The area under the curve (AUC) was evaluated for parameters calculating the curve interpolating times at 0, 60, and 120 min. Values are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation. $P < 0.05$ was

considered statistically significant for the analysis of variance and *P* values for the post hoc test were corrected by a Bonferroni analysis.

Results

Free choline levels

No significant difference was observed in plasma free choline levels at baseline. The average basal plasma free choline concentrations were 8.1 ± 1.4 and 8.5 ± 1.6 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ for the GPC and placebo groups, respectively. In response to ingesting GPC, free choline concentrations increased significantly within 60 min and were maintained for the entire experimental period in the GPC group (Fig. 1). In contrast, no significant changes in plasma free choline concentrations were observed in the placebo group. Plasma free choline levels at 60 and 120 min after GPC administration were significantly higher than those observed after the ingestion of the placebo (Tables 1 and 2). There were significant interactions of time course and group on free choline levels (Tables 1 and 2).

FFA and glycerol levels

No significant differences in serum FFA and glycerol concentrations were observed between the two groups at baseline. Serum FFA levels were significantly increased at 60 and 120 min after GPC ingestion (Tables 1 and 2), whereas no changes were observed in the placebo group (Fig. 2A). In contrast, serum glycerol levels were not significantly affected in either group (Fig. 2B). However, there were significant interactions of time

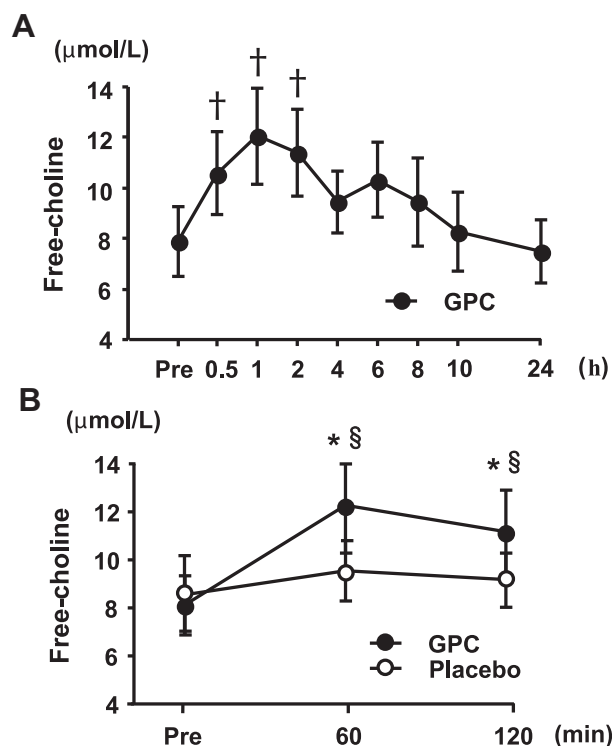


Fig. 1. Plasma free choline concentrations in the GPC and placebo groups from baseline (0 h) to 24 h (A) or from baseline (0 min) to 120 min (B) after GPC or placebo administration. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD. * $P < 0.0167$, † $P < 0.0014$ for GPC compared with baseline (Pre). § $P < 0.0167$ for GPC compared with placebo (B). GPC, α -glycerophosphocholine; Pre, before treatment.

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