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Diabetes & Metabolism xxx (2018) xxx-xxx



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Perfects of 6 vs 3 eucaloric meal patterns on glycaemic control and satiety in people with impaired glucose tolerance or overt type 2 diabetes: A randomized trial[☆]

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 5 December 2017 Received in revised form 14 March 2018 Accepted 26 March 2018 Available online xxx

Keywords: Glucose Impaired glucose tolerance Insulin Meal frequency Type 2 diabetes

ABSTRACT

Background/objectives. – The study aimed to compare the effects of two eucaloric meal patterns (3 vs 6 meals/day) on glycaemic control and satiety in subjects with impaired glucose tolerance and plasma glucose (PG) levels 140–199 mg/dL at 120 min (IGT-A) or PG levels 140–199 mg/dL at 120 min and >200 mg/dL at 30/60/90 min post-oral glucose load on 75-g OGTT (IGT-B), or overt treatment-naïve type 2 diabetes (T2D).

Subjects/methods. – In this randomized crossover study, subjects with IGT-A (n = 15, BMI: 32.4 \pm 5.2 kg/m²), IGT-B (n = 20, BMI: 32.5 \pm 5 kg/m²) or T2D (n = 12, BMI: 32.2 \pm 5.2 kg/m²) followed a weightmaintenance diet (45% carbohydrates, 20% proteins, 35% fats) in 3 or 6 meals/day (each intervention lasting 12 weeks). Anthropometrics, diet compliance and subjective appetite were assessed every 2 weeks. OGTT and measurements of HbA1c and plasma lipids were performed at the beginning and end of each intervention period.

Results. – Body weight and physical activity levels remained stable throughout the study. In T2D, HbA1c and PG at 120 min post-OGTT decreased with 6 vs 3 meals (P < 0.001 vs P = 0.02, respectively). The 6-meal also intervention improved post-OGTT hyperinsulinaemia in IGT-A subjects and hyperglycaemia in IGT-B subjects. In all three groups, subjective hunger and desire to eat were reduced with 6 vs 3 meals/ day (P < 0.05). There were no differences in HOMA-IR or plasma lipids between interventions.

Conclusion. – Although weight loss remains the key strategy in hyperglycaemia management, dietary measures such as more frequent and smaller meals may be helpful for those not sufficiently motivated to adhere to calorie-restricted diets. Our study shows that 6 vs 3 meals a day can increase glycaemic control in obese patients with early-stage T2D, and may perhaps improve and/or stabilize postprandial glucose regulation in prediabetes subjects.

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1. Introduction

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Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is one of the most important publichealth concerns worldwide; according to the International Diabetes Federation (IDF), one in 10 adults will have T2D by 2040 [1]. Impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) represents the continuum between normal glucose tolerance and overt T2D.

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.diabet.2018.03.008 1262-3636/© 2018 Published by Elsevier Masson SAS. Interestingly, early lifestyle interventions can decrease the 19 incidence of T2D by >70% and also the development of 20 cardiovascular complications [1–3]. 21

Medical nutrition therapy (MNT) is an integral component of 22 diabetes prevention and management [3]. One of the nutritional 23 strategies used in MNT is meal frequency, the number of daily 24 meals consumed, and macronutrient distribution [3]. There are 25 studies suggesting that more frequent meals increases weight gain 26 due to fat deposition after meals [4,5], thereby increasing 27 hyperglycaemia, hyperinsulinaemia, blood lipids and appetite 28 [5–9]. In contrast, others support the idea that frequent meals 29 could reduce body weight and normalize indices of glycaemic 30

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^{*} Trial registration: ClinicalTrials.gov number NCT02248272.

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E. Papakonstantinou et al. / Diabetes & Metabolism xxx (2018) xxx-xxx

control (postprandial plasma glucose, insulin, lipid concentrations) [10].

33 Epidemiological [11,12] and clinical studies—both short-term with no caloric restriction [10,13-21] and long-term with caloric 34 35 restriction [7,22]-have produced contradictory results regarding 36 the association of meal frequency with indices of glycaemic control 37 and T2D risk. From an epidemiological perspective, men consum-38 ing 1-2 meals vs 3 meals a day had a 25% greater risk of developing 39 T2D in a 16-year follow-up [11], whereas meal frequency was not 40 associated with T2D in women with a 6-year follow-up [12]. From 41 a clinical perspective, two brief (2-day) crossover trials both 42 showed that more frequent meals improved glucose metabolism in 43 T2D [13,16]. In contrast, a short-term trial with no energy (calorie) 44 restriction and lasting 8 weeks found no significant effects of 45 consuming more meals per day on glucose metabolism [21]. Like-46 wise, results from two long-term clinical trials with energy 47 restriction and durations of 3-6 months were also contradictory: 48 one study showed that fewer eucaloric meals/day (2 vs 6) 49 decreased body weight, fasting plasma glucose (FPG), C-peptide 50 and glucagon, with no differences in insulin, HbA1c, insulin 51 sensitivity and blood lipids in patients with T2D taking antidiabetic 52 drugs [7]; the other study showed that more eucaloric meals/day 53 (6 vs 5) reduced body weight and HbA1c, with no differences in 54 fasting and postprandial plasma glucose, insulin and blood lipids in 55 treatment-naïve patients with T2D.

56 However, it is well known that antidiabetic agents have an 57 impact on body weight and glucose/lipid metabolism [23], making 58 it difficult to determine whether the beneficial (weight-loss) 59 effects are due to the medications, energy deficits or meal 60 frequency. In addition, no long-term studies have investigated 61 the impact of meal frequency without caloric restriction on indices 62 of glycaemic control in people with IGT or treatment-naïve T2D. 63 Thus, our present study was designed to evaluate the effects of 64 long-term 6- vs 3-meal eucaloric eating patterns on indices of 65 glycaemic control and satiety in obese subjects with either IGT or 66 T2D on a weight-maintenance diet. Our hypothesis was that the 6-67 meal pattern would improve glucose regulation in these subjects.

68 2. Materials and methods

69 2.1. Subjects

70 Our study participants were recruited from the outpatients unit 71 of Attikon University Hospital, and their initial assessment 72 included a detailed history, and full clinical and biochemical 73 examination (within the month prior to the study), as per the 74 routine clinical practice. Study inclusion criteria were: (a) 2-h 75 plasma glucose (PG) concentrations >140 mg/dL after a 75-g oral 76 glucose tolerance test (OGTT); (b) body mass index (BMI) 30-77 45 kg/m²; and (c) age 19–65 years. Exclusion criteria were: 78 previous lifestyle-modification interventions (structured dietary 79 plans and/or exercise weight-loss programmes); antidiabetic drug 80 treatment; kidney, liver or cardiovascular disease; haematological 81 abnormalities; hyper- or hypothyroidism; cancer; and mental 82 disorders. Based on OGTT PG results, participants were divided into 83 three groups: (i) IGT-A (PG levels 140–199 mg/dL at 120 min post-84 OGTT); (ii) IGT-B (PG levels 140–199 mg/dL at 120 min and 85 >200 mg/dL at 30, 60 or 90 min post-OGTT); and (iii) newly 86 diagnosed treatment-naïve T2D.

The study was registered on ClinicalTrials.gov as number NCT02248272. Its protocol and potential risks and benefits were fully explained to each participant before their written consent was obtained. The protocol was also approved by the Ethics Committee of Attikon University Hospital, and was carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (1997).

2.2. Study design

The study had a randomized crossover design, and subjects were assigned to the interventions using computer-generated random number sequences. A researcher not involved in the collection or analysis of the scientific data was responsible for randomization of the participants to each meal-pattern intervention. Subjects followed a weight-maintenance diet (45% carbohydrates, 20% proteins, 35% fats) consumed as either 3 or 6 meals/day. Each meal pattern was adhered to for 12 weeks. Meals were defined as eating occasions providing >150 kcal in the morning ('breakfast'), at midday ('lunch') and in the evening ('dinner'). Snacks were defined as eating episodes of <150 kcal consumed at times other than specific meal times. Carbohydrate distribution was 20% at breakfast, 50% at lunch and 30% at dinner for the 3-meal intervention vs 20% at breakfast, 10% at morning snack, 30% at lunch, 10% at afternoon snack, 20% at dinner and 10% at bedtime snack for the 6-meal intervention [24].

Daily energy (calorie) requirements for each participant were 110 111 calculated using the Schofield equation [25]. All participants then received dietary plans that were eucaloric in macronutrient 112 composition, with guidance on which foods to consume and 113 how to prepare meals. Table 1 presents an example of a 1900-kcal 114 115 diet with 3- vs 6-meal patterns of food distribution. Changes were 116 proposed, along with nutritional education sessions, to encourage compliance with the interventions, which was determined from 117 food records and structured interviews. All volunteers were asked 118 to be consistent with mealtimes throughout the intervention. 119 Those reporting alcohol intakes were advised not to drink more 120 than 1 unit/day of alcohol, defined as one small glass of wine, a 121 half-pint of ordinary strength beer or a single measure of spirits, 122 123 during the intervention. No participant was following a vigorous exercise programme at baseline, and all were asked to maintain 124 their usual physical activity levels throughout the intervention. 125

2.3. Dietary and physical-activity assessments

At baseline, dietary habits were assessed through a semiquantitative food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) to assess any likely nutritional differences prior to being assigned to a specific dietary regime. The FFQ evaluated each participant's dietary quality, using the MedDietScore, which assesses adherence to a Mediterranean-like dietary pattern, as previously defined elsewhere [26]. The score ranges from 0 to 55, with higher values indicating greater adherence to the Mediterranean diet.

All participants were asked to record the type and amount of all foods and beverages consumed daily during the intervention; these records were reviewed by dieticians every 2 weeks. For each 12-week intervention, five 7-day food diaries were used to check compliance with the dietary plan. Detailed instructions were given on how to record the quantity of food consumed, using standard household weights and measures. The dieticians also checked the food diaries for any misreporting and, when necessary, used food models and photographs to clarify discrepancies in portion sizes, with dietary adjustments made accordingly. Finally, these food records were analyzed using Diet Analysis Plus version 6.1 software (ESHA Research Inc, Salem, OR, USA), with extensive modifications to the database to include new foods and recipes.

At each clinical visit, subjects completed 10-point visual 148 analogue scales (VAS) to record their subjective feelings of hunger, 149 150 satiety and desire to eat over the previous 2-week period. During 151 these evaluations, participants were not asked to be in a fasting state, but were instead advised to follow their meal patterns 152 according to their assigned intervention arm. In addition, the 153 154 participants' physical activity was assessed through a short validated questionnaire [the Athens Physical Activity Questionnaire (APAQ)] 155

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