

High Glycemic Index Carbohydrate Diet Alters the Diurnal Rhythm of Leptin But Not Insulin Concentrations

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Morning serum leptin values in humans are inconsistently altered by diet, and the molecular mechanisms controlling the diurnal leptin pattern remain unexplained. We determined whether leptin values after meals or the leptin diurnal pattern was altered by the type of carbohydrate (CHO) ingested in diets containing either 20% or 30% fat. In a randomized, crossover study design, nine healthy lean adults ate one of four isocaloric diets for 8 days. Diets contained 15% protein: A, high glycemic index (GI) CHO, 30% fat; B, low GI CHO, 30% fat; C, high GI CHO, 20% fat; and D, low GI CHO, 20% fat. Serum glucose, insulin, and leptin were measured at intervals on Day 8 for 24 hr, and on Day 9 during an oral glucose tolerance test (GTT). Although the 24-hr glucose and insulin profiles did not differ with the diets, diets A and C altered the serum leptin diurnal pattern. In contrast to the usual evening rise in leptin concentration, which begins after 2200 hr, diets A and C caused a rise in leptin beginning at 1300 hr. The area under the curve for leptin between 1230 and 2400 hr was 17% greater for diets A and C. During the GTT, leptin concentrations were similar for each diet. These results suggest that the pattern and amount of leptin secretion may be altered by high GI CHO or the simple sugar content of the diet, unrelated to differences in insulin concentration, that high GI foods may have little or no effect on serum insulin in the context of a mixed meal, and that a single 0800-hr leptin value may not be sufficient to reveal a diet-induced change in leptin secretion [Exp Biol Med Vol. 226(11):1037–1044, 2001]

Key words: leptin; insulin; glucose; high glycemic index carbohydrate; satiety; sucrose; diurnal rhythm

Leptin, a 16-kDa protein encoded by the *ob* gene is believed to convey information about energy stores to the brain and thereby regulate satiety, food intake, and energy expenditure (1, 2). Administration of leptin to leptin-deficient *ob/ob* mice decreases food intake, body weight, and adiposity while increasing metabolic rate, body temperature, and level of activity (3–6), and leptin administration to a child congenitally deficient in leptin decreased food intake and weight and increased activity (7). Leptin also alters energy regulation in muscle and pancreatic islet cells, attenuating insulin's lipogenic action by increasing fatty acid oxidation, and decreasing triacylglycerol synthesis (8, 9). These profound effects on appetite, metabolism, and body weight have provoked an interest in how leptin is regulated.

Basal fasting leptin values are strongly and positively related to serum insulin, gender, pregnancy, percent body fat, and body mass index (BMI) (10, 11). Although plasma leptin concentrations correlate with adipose tissue mass in animals (12) and humans (13–16), the marked changes in leptin that occur with short-term fasting or feeding do not correspond to the amount of fat mass lost or gained (17–21). This discrepancy suggests that factors other than adipocyte size and content must influence leptin production. Because a large fat mass still exists after a 3-day fast, marked decreases in serum leptin suggest that the leptin concentration might reflect intracellular nutrient or energy availability rather than the actual amount of triacylglycerol stores in the adipocyte. Studies using energy-producing substrates and various channel blockers indicate that potassium and calcium may couple energy production to the secretion of leptin (22), and leptin expression has been induced in mouse skeletal muscle by increases in serum glucose or fatty acid and in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes and L6 myocytes by incubations with glucosamine, suggesting a link to increased energy availability (23). How cells might sense changes in nutrient availability, however, is unknown. Further, the regulation of leptin's diurnal pattern remains unexplained (16, 24, 25).

Insulin appears to mediate between the nutritional state

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and leptin secretion in both rodents and humans, but effects in rodents occur within a shorter time frame. Postprandial hyperinsulinemia restores leptin mRNA abundance in rat adipose tissue within 4 hr after a fast, and a single insulin injection in fasted rats increases adipose leptin mRNA abundance to levels similar to those of fed controls (26, 27). Adipose leptin mRNA in normal rats increases in parallel with rising hyperinsulinemia (26), and insulin increases leptin mRNA expression and leptin secretion from rat adipocytes (28). In humans, however, insulin affects serum leptin less acutely. A euglycemic hyperinsulinemic clamp prevents the usual mid-morning drop in serum leptin, but requires 4–6 hr before leptin levels increase over basal values (29–33). Human adipocyte leptin mRNA abundance did not change after a 3-hr euglycemic hyperinsulinemic clamp (34), and mRNA increases inconsistently after insulin exposure (35–37).

Although insulin may mediate the positive correlation between body fat and leptin, human studies have yielded varying results. In normal weight and obese women who continued weight-maintenance diets that contained 14%, 23%, or 31% of energy as fat, leptin concentrations did not change from baseline or vary between diets (14). Leptin concentrations did not change in adults who ate a high fat diet (60% of energy as fat) (13). In each of these studies, however, leptin was measured at a single morning time point; thus, neither peak values nor the diurnal pattern was ascertained. In contrast, leptin's diurnal pattern differed markedly in each arm of a crossover study with three isocaloric meals that contained markedly varying amounts of energy as carbohydrate and fat (38).

The present study was designed to examine the effects of diets that contained either high- or low-glycemic index (GI) carbohydrates in the context of either 20% or 30% energy from fat on 24-hr serum profiles of leptin, insulin, and glucose and on hormonal responses to a glucose tolerance test (GTT).

Materials and Methods

Subjects. Healthy adults with BMIs lower than 26 kg/m² were recruited from the Chapel Hill community. The final study sample included five males and four females, including one black, six white, and two Asian subjects. Data from an additional subject was not used in the analysis because she did not comply with the study protocol. For all subjects, the physical examination and laboratory screens (CBC, urinalysis, urine drug screen, and HbA1C) were normal. All subjects were interviewed and examined by a physician. They were free of disease, including diabetes and hypertension, and were not trying to lose weight, taking drugs to treat obesity, or eating special or restricted (nutrient or energy) diets. No subjects were taking oral contraceptives, thiazides, beta-blockers, psychotropic drugs, or any drugs known to alter carbohydrate metabolism. No female subjects were postmenopausal or pregnant. All denied using illicit drugs and refrained from alcohol during the study

periods. Subjects were lean (mean BMI was 22 kg/m² for women and 23.6 kg/m² for men), nonsmoking, and between the ages of 19 and 36 y (Table I).

Experimental Protocol. The protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of North Carolina. Each subject gave informed, written consent to participate. All investigative procedures were conducted in the General Clinical Research Center (GCRC) at UNC Hospitals. Subjects were tested in a randomized, crossover study design. Subjects continued their usual activities and exercise patterns during the study. Metabolic testing began after a 7-day intake of four isocaloric diets that differed in fat and carbohydrate content. Subjects were randomly assigned to the following diets: A, high GI carbohydrate (CHO), 30% fat; B, low GI CHO, 30% fat; C, high GI CHO, 20% fat; and D, low GI CHO, 20% fat. Each diet contained 15% protein. During each diet period, subjects were served breakfast and dinner in the GCRC as outpatients, and were given a lunch and snack to eat at home. Subjects checked off foods eaten in the lunches and snacks, and GCRU staff monitored compliance on the GCRC. By observation or report, all food was consumed. On the eighth day of each study diet, the subjects were admitted to the GCRC and stayed in rooms without televisions (to avoid eating-related cues). Meals were brought to them at 0800, 1200, and 1800 hr, and snacks were offered at 1600 hr (test snack) and 2200 hr. Activity was limited. An indwelling i.v. catheter was placed at 0700 hr to draw blood.

Diets. Each subject consumed the four diets (A, B, C, and D) for 8 d in a randomized, crossover study design. Isocaloric diets were determined for each subject based on height, weight, activity level (Harris and Benedict equations), a 24 hr recall, and a 3-day food record. To overcome possible underreporting, diets were calculated with a 10% increase over reported records based on the experience of subjects who were still hungry (39). Subjects checked off foods that were eaten. Weights remained constant throughout the study. Diets were created using the Diet Planner

Table I. Baseline Anthropometric and Biochemical Characteristics of All Subjects^a

	Men (n = 5)	Women (n = 4)
Age (years) (Range)	29.8 ± 6.5 (22–37)	23.3 ± 3.6 (20–28)
BMI (kg/m ²) (Range)	23.6 ± 2.9 (20–26)	22.0 ± 3.4 (18–26)
Body fat % (TSF) ^b (Range)	11.6 ± 2.9 (7.7–15.3)	20.3 ± 5.6 (15.7–27.5)
Hgb A1C (%)	5.5 ± 0.3	5.0 ± 0.3
Diet A [0800 leptin (ng/ml)] ^c	3.63 ± 2.2	8.91 ± 4.8
Diet B [0800 leptin (ng/ml)] ^c	4.87 ± 3.2	7.28 ± 3.1
Diet C [0800 leptin (ng/ml)] ^c	3.33 ± 1.8	9.47 ± 4.6
Diet D [0800 leptin (ng/ml)] ^c	3.65 ± 2.1	8.67 ± 4.8

^a Values are reported as the mean ± SD.

^b TSF (triceps skinfold measurement in triplicate).

^c 0800 values on Days 8 and 9 were averaged for each subject eating each diet.

software, developed for Clinical Research Centers at the University of California (version 2.1, San Francisco, CA). Nutrient calculations were performed using the Minnesota Nutrition Data System (NDS) software, developed by the Nutrition Coordinating Center at the University of Minnesota (version 2.91, Minneapolis, MN). Meal plans were individualized for personal taste, yet conformed to the macronutrient distribution of the study design. (For example, an increased amount of chicken and rice was provided for a subject who did not drink milk, and substitutes were made for disliked vegetables.) Total energy for each day was distributed as 20% for breakfast, 25% for lunch, 35% for dinner, and 10% each for an afternoon and an evening snack. The International Table of Glycemic Index Foods was used to determine GIs of the foods (40). The published GI values for food are based on studies of blood glucose levels following the intake of equal carbohydrate portions of different foods. GI values of foods were determined by comparing blood glucose levels after the intake of each food to blood glucose levels after 50 g of glucose. The standard 50 g of glucose yields a score of 100, whereas sugars like sucrose and fructose produce mean scores of 60 and 23, respectively. The low GI CHO diets (B and D) contained foods with a GI score of ≤ 45 and the high GI CHO diets (A and C) contained foods with a GI score of > 65 . Inpatient diets on Day 8 followed the same menus with micro- and macro nutrient compositions similar to the outpatient diets. Subjects underwent a minimum washout period of 10 days between study diets.

Satiety Measurements. To assess satiety, subjective criteria such as the desire to eat, feeling of hunger, feeling of fullness, and prospective feeding intentions were measured using a 100-mm visual analogue scale (VAS) (41). The VAS was designed to obtain subjective satiety levels by asking the subjects to score their answers to four questions on a scale from 1 to 10 based on the level their perceived satiety. The questions were: "How strong is your desire to eat? How hungry do you feel? How full do you feel? and How much food do you think you could eat?". Due to the consistent responses to all four questions and the similar information gathered from each question, the mean scores for all four questions were combined (with the "How full do you feel?" question plotted in the reverse direction) to analyze the data for each of the four diets. Lunch was eaten between 1200 and 1230 hr. The questionnaire was administered at 1230 hr and every 30 min until 1600 hr when a standard test snack of canned peaches (300 g) in natural juice (GI = 30) was offered. Although we had hoped to measure satiety objectively by quantifying the amount of the test snack eaten, the snack offered was too small and all subjects ate 100% of all test snacks.

Leptin, Insulin, and Glucose Profiles. Blood was collected for glucose, insulin, and leptin concentrations beginning at 0800 hr on the eighth study day and at intervals throughout the next 30 hr. Intervals were every 30 min for 2 hr following meals, every 60 min at other times during the

day, and every 120 min between 2200 and 0800 hr. On the ninth day at 0800 hr, following a 12-hr fast, an oral GTT was performed using 75 g of glucose (Limondex). Serum glucose, insulin, and leptin were measured at 0755 hr (baseline), and at 0830, 0900, 0930, 1000, 1100, and 1200 hr during the GTT. Blood samples were centrifuged within 30 min of collection and the serum was aliquoted and stored at -20°C for insulin and leptin assays. Glucose was measured immediately by the University of North Carolina Hospitals clinical laboratory. Serum insulin and leptin concentrations were measured in duplicate using commercially available radio immunoassays from Diagnostic Systems Labs (Webster, TX [insulin]) and Linco Research (St. Charles, MO [leptin]). Technicians were blinded to the experimental conditions.

Statistical Analysis. Areas under the curve (AUC) were calculated for glucose, insulin, and leptin with a trapezoidal method using an algorithm that multiplies the mean serum concentration at a pair of adjacent time points by the corresponding time interval and takes the sum of the AUC. For each subject, the AUC for leptin, insulin, and glucose are calculated. The AUC values for glucose and insulin are calculated using milligrams per decaliter or micro-units per milliliter, respectively; for leptin, we used the percentage of the baseline levels taken at 0755 hr. AUC values are expressed as units per hour for the first 24 hr of sampling, for the interval between 1230 and 2400 hr, and during the 4-hr GTT.

To determine the effect of diet on leptin, insulin, and glucose over time, mathematical models were developed using the General Linear Model procedure for regression analysis in SAS (SAS 6.12, Cary, NC). Mathematical models were used to fit changes in serum concentrations over time in order to allow for multiple bends in the curve. The shapes of the curves were fit by adding time exponentially to the linear models until a model was found in which the last time to the highest power was not significant. The model in which the highest power of time was significant was used to test the experimental manipulations. Individual models, including a term for subject effect, were created to analyze glucose, insulin, and leptin. For example, the first model for leptin analyzed values between 1230 and 2400 hr using time to the fifth power, the second model for leptin analyzed values during the first 24 hr using time to the fourth power, and the third model for leptin analyzed values during the 4-hr GTT using time to the third power. Tukey's *post hoc* test was used to determine which diets differed from each other in their effect on the serum concentrations of leptin, insulin, and glucose over time. Satiety levels were calculated by taking the mean score of four questions on the VAS questionnaire. Data were also analyzed using the General Linear Model procedure and Tukey's *post hoc* test in SAS. No significant differences were found except for the linear value of time. Results are presented as means \pm SE. Significance was defined as $P < 0.05$.

Results

Glucose, Insulin, and Leptin Profiles. Despite the differences in the percentage of CHO in each diet or the presence of high or low GI CHO, serum glucose and insulin profiles did not differ for each of the diets and there were no statistically significant differences for peaks or troughs (Fig. 1). The AUCs for insulin and glucose were not significantly different for the four diets (Table II). The basal leptin values were not significantly different for any of the diets (Table I). With the two low GI CHO diets, B and D, the 24-hr leptin profile (Fig. 2) was similar to that of other reports (25). As was previously shown in both lean and obese women (25), leptin concentrations remained low throughout the day, rose above the baseline (0800 hr) values after 2300 hr, peaked at 0200 hr, and returned to baseline by 0800 hr. In contrast, the high GI CHO diets, A and C, altered the 24-hr leptin profiles. Serum leptin rose above the 0800 hr baseline as early as 1300 hr, whereas leptin concentrations with diets B and D did not rise above baseline until 2400 hr. The leptin AUCs from 1230 hr to 2400 hr for diets A and C were significantly higher than for diets B and D ($P < 0.0001$; Table II) using the first model. Leptin AUCs for all diets peaked at 0200 hr, and there were no significant differences between the peak heights attained. Leptin AUCs for diets A and C began to decrease after 0200 to 0400 hr, yet did not fall as rapidly as did leptin AUCs on diets B and D. The 24-hr AUCs for leptin on diets A and C were significantly greater than the AUCs for leptin on diet B ($P < 0.003$) using the second model. We examined the effect of gender on leptin in response to the four different diets and found no statistically significant differences between males and females.

GTT. During the GTT, serum glucose and insulin concentrations rose similarly for subjects who had eaten each of the four diets during the preceding 8 days (Fig. 1), and the GTT AUC for insulin and glucose were not significantly different between diets (Table II). Diet C (high GI CHO, 20% fat) caused the leptin AUC to rise significantly higher than diet D (low GI CHO, 20% fat) during the GTT ($P < 0.01$) using the third model; however, the starting leptin value was also elevated.

Satiety Test. Satiety levels did not differ significantly after the four diet lunches (data not shown). Each subject felt minimally hungry immediately after lunch (score 2.5–3.3), and hunger increased moderately during the next 3.5 hr (final score 5.5–6.3).

Discussion

Although initially identified as a satiety hormone because of the gross obesity observed in genetic human and rodent leptin deficiencies, it has been hypothesized that leptin functions to alter energy metabolism during starvation (1) and that it has additional functions in reproduction and in the immune system (42). Thus, in nonobese people, an increase in serum leptin may signal that energy stores are

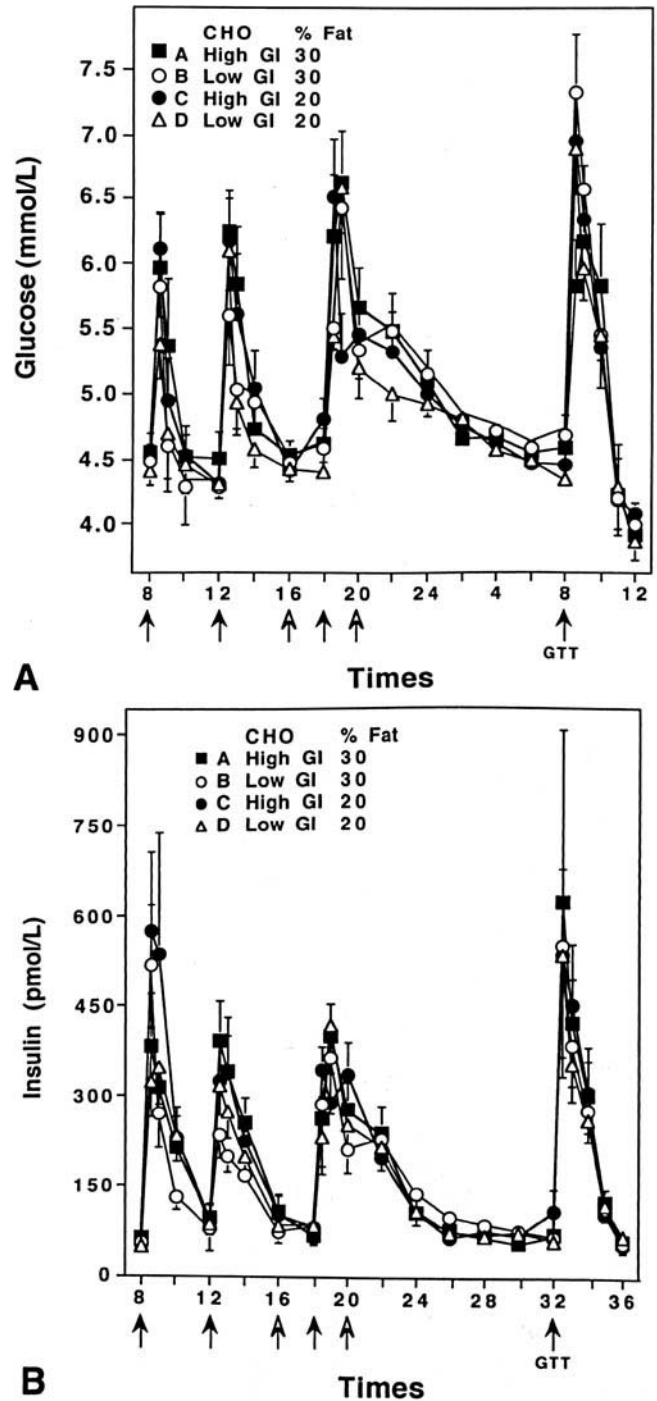


Figure 1. Serum glucose (A) and insulin (B) concentrations for healthy adults eating each of four experimental diets during a 28-hr period. Each point represents the mean \pm SE for eight to nine samples. Solid arrows indicate meals and ingestion of glucose for the GTT. Open arrows indicate snacks.

replete, whereas a decrease in leptin may signal the need for food intake (43). Although leptin secretion is positively related to adipose tissue mass, serum leptin decreases markedly with minor fasting that has little effect on total adipose mass, (20) suggesting that leptin secretion depends on factors that signal recent energy intake (18, 20, 21). Insulin is one of these factors, but independent of insulin's effect on

Table II. Glucose, Insulin, and Leptin Areas Under the Curve (AUC) for Four Experimental Diets Given to Healthy Adults

	Diet A	Diet B	Diet C	Diet D	P value ^b
Glucose, Day 8					
0800–0800 hr	16.9 ± 0.6	16.5 ± 0.6	16.6 ± 0.6	16.1 ± 0.6	NS
AUC mmol/L/hr (mg/dl/hr)	[304 ± 11]	[297 ± 11]	[298 ± 11]	[290 ± 11]	
Glucose, glucose tolerance test (GTT)					
0800–1200 hr	63.3 ± 3.4	66 ± 2.4	64.4 ± 2.4	63.7 ± 2.6	NS
AUC mmol/L/hr (mg/dl/hr)	[1141 ± 61]	[1189 ± 43]	[1161 ± 44]	[1147 ± 47]	
Insulin, Day 8					
0800–0800 hr (AUC μ IU/ml/hr)	79 ± 4	70 ± 4	83 ± 5	74 ± 4	NS
Insulin, GTT					
0800–1200 hr (AUC μ IU/ml/hr)	474 ± 61	429 ± 49	459 ± 55	414 ± 43	NS
Leptin, Day 8					
0800–0800 hr (% baseline–AUC/hr)	368 ± 17 ^c	328 ± 15 ^d	377 ± 18 ^c	340 ± 16 ^{c,d}	<i>P</i> < 0.003
Leptin					
1230–2400 hr (% baseline–AUC/hr)	731 ± 47 ^c	624 ± 49 ^d	751 ± 47 ^c	643 ± 41 ^d	<i>P</i> < 0.0001
Leptin, GTT					
0800–1200 hr (% baseline–AUC/hr)	1192 ± 66 ^{c,d}	1157 ± 55 ^{c,d}	1243 ± 61 ^c	1082 ± 47 ^d	<i>P</i> < 0.01

Note. Diet A, high GI CHO, 30% fat; Diet B, low GI CHO, 30% fat; Diet C, high GI CHO, 20% fat; and Diet D, low GI CHO, 20% fat.^a

^a Values are reported as the mean ± SE.

^b General Linear Models procedure in SAS.

^{c,d} Tukey's post hoc test for differences between diets with $\alpha = 0.05$.

leptin, energy-producing substrates and fluxes of calcium and potassium are also required (22).

If a rise in leptin suppresses appetite, the higher serum leptin levels between 1200 and 1600 hr for diets A and C should have increased satiety compared with diets B and D. However, the results from the VAS satiety scale demonstrated that satiety did not differ between diets. These data are consistent with another study that showed that leptin did not have an acute effect on satiety (44).

Neither the satiety nor the starvation prevention hy-

potheses address the question of why leptin values peak nocturnally or what molecular mechanism regulates leptin's diurnal rhythm. Leptin's 24-hr pattern shows a nadir between 0900 and 1400 hr, and a peak between 2400 and 0200 hr (25, 45). However, most studies that have examined diet influences on leptin levels have relied on a single fasting measurement obtained around 0800 hr when serum leptin concentrations are declining from their nocturnal peak, but are still 20% higher than their lowest daily value.

Basal leptin values in our subjects were similar for all

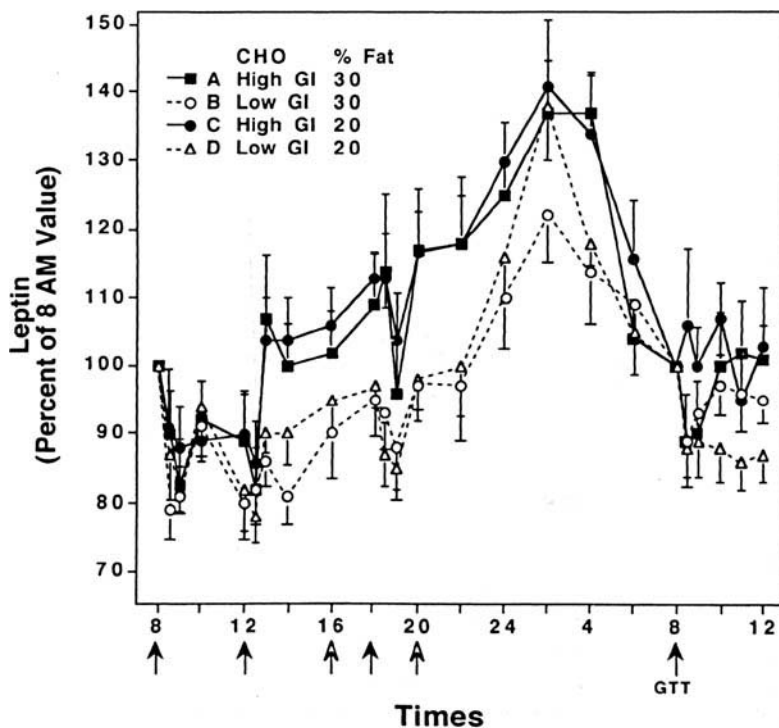


Figure 2. Percent change in serum leptin concentrations for healthy adults eating each of four experimental diets during a 28-hr period. Leptin values are plotted as percentages because of the marked differences between values from men and women. The two 0800-hr values were averaged and taken as 100%. Each point represents the mean ± SE for eight to nine samples. Solid arrows indicate meals and ingestion of glucose for the GTT. Open arrows indicate snacks.

Table III. CHO Content of Meals for Each of Four Diets from the Evening before the Study Day and the Breakfast and Lunch of the Study Day^a

A. Dinner/evening snack, Day 7: CHO intake (g)											
Diet	Fat (%)	Glycemic index	Starch	Sucrose	Glucose	Fructose	Lactose	Total glucose	Glucose from sugars	Total fructose	Total CHO
A	30	High	31	51	5	6	8	65.5	34.5	31.5	101
B	30	Low	89	3	6	12	0.4	96.7	7.5	13.5	110.4
C	20	High	30	54	10	10	12	73	43	37	116
D	20	Low	122	2	3	3	0.3	126	4	4	130.3
B. Breakfast, Day 8: CHO intake (g)											
Diet	Fat (%)	Glycemic index	Starch	Sucrose	Glucose	Fructose	Lactose	Total glucose	Glucose from sugars	Total fructose	Total CHO
A	30	High	26	3	5	4	11	38	12	5.5	49
B	30	Low	12	2	14	12	11	32.5	20.5	13.0	51
C	20	High	24	16	4	2	10	41	17	10.0	56
D	20	Low	22	1	12	11	11	40	18	11.5	57
C. Lunch, Day 8: CHO intake (g)											
Diet	Fat (%)	Glycemic index	Starch	Sucrose	Glucose	Fructose	Lactose	Total glucose	Glucose from sugars	Total fructose	Total CHO
A	30	High	43	20	7	3	0.1	60	17	13	73
B	30	Low	11	12	11	22	0.3	28	17	28	56
C	20	High	11	49	14	6	0.1	49.5	39	30.5	80
D	20	Low	11	5	18	31	0.3	31.5	21	33.5	65
D. Total CHO intake for 24 hr before the 1300 hr rise in leptin concentration: Day 7 dinner/evening snack plus Day 8 breakfast and lunch (g)											
Diet	Fat (%)	Glycemic index	Starch	Sucrose	Glucose	Fructose	Lactose	Total glucose	Glucose from sugars	Total fructose	Total CHO
A	30	High	100	74	17	13	19	163.5	63.5	50	223
B	30	Low	112	17	31	46	11	157	45	54.5	217
C	20	High	65	119	28	18	22	163.5	98.5	77.5	252
D	20	Low	155	8	33	45	12	198	43	49	253
E. Total CHO intake: Day 8 (g)											
Diet	Fat (%)	Glycemic index	Starch	Sucrose	Glucose	Fructose	Lactose	Total glucose	Glucose from sugars	Total fructose	Total CHO
A	30	High	132	60	15	13	21	187.5	57	43	241
B	30	Low	82	31	38	53	12	141.5	59	68.5	216
C	20	High	108	122	27	22	11	201.5	93.5	83	290
D	20	Low	105	26	44	71	12	168	63	84	258

Note. Diet A, high glycemic index (GI) carbohydrate (CHO), 30% fat; Diet B, low GI CHO, 30% fat; Diet C, high GI CHO, 20% fat; Diet D, low GI CHO, 20% fat.

^a CHO amounts are given in grams (Minnesota Data system 2.91). Total fructose, free fructose plus one-half sucrose in grams. Total glucose, starch + one-half sucrose and one-half lactose in grams. Glucose from sugars, glucose + one-half sucrose + one-half lactose in grams. For Total CHO, apparent differences in summing the individual CHO components arise because not all diet carbohydrates are included (e.g., maltose). Note that the Total CHO reflects individual meals, not daily totals.

four diets, showing that reliance on this one measure would have suggested that the diets had no effect. By measuring leptin over a 24-hr period, however, our data revealed that both diets that contained high-GI CHOs altered the 24-hr leptin profile and increased the 24-hr leptin AUC. Instead of serum leptin concentrations remaining low throughout most of the day, with both the high GI diets, leptin increased above the 0800 hr baseline by 1300 hr and, aside from a dip at 1900 hr, remained elevated until 0400 hr the next morn-

ing. This early and prolonged rise resulted in leptin AUCs that were 12% higher for the 24-hr period and 17% higher between 1230 and 2400 hr for diets A and C compared with diets B and D. However, basal and meal-related serum glucose and insulin concentrations were similar when the percentage of energy from fat was 20% or 30% and the corresponding CHO was 65% or 55%, or when the diets contained high or low GI CHOs.

Although fasting for as little as 24 hr eliminates leptin's

nocturnal rise (18), only two studies have demonstrated that meal timing or diet composition can alter leptin's diurnal rhythm. Delaying meals for 6.5 hr shifts the plasma leptin pattern by 5–7 hr within 3 days (45). The three meals given were isocaloric, and the authors speculated that providing more calories early in the day caused the nocturnal rise in leptin to occur earlier than had been previously reported (25). The second study that altered leptin's 24-hr pattern provided three isocaloric meals that contained either 60% of energy as CHO and 20% of energy as fat or 20% of energy as CHO and 60% of energy as fat (38). As would be expected with diets that vary greatly in their CHO content, serum glucose and insulin values were higher after each of the high CHO meals and the AUC for both glucose and insulin were higher with the 60% CHO diet. For leptin, the 24-hr AUC for the 24-hr leptin profile was 38% larger and was attributed to the marked increase that had occurred in serum insulin.

In our study, neither the amount of CHO in the diet nor the serum insulin response are responsible for the altered 24-hr leptin profile because the same amount of CHO was present in diets A and B (55%) and in diets C and D (65%), and insulin profiles after meals and insulin AUC did not differ for the four diets. In the context of mixed meals, some studies have shown differences in insulin following high and low GI CHO, whereas other studies have not (46). Because our study provided only 20% of the day's calories at 0800 hr, early provision of increased calories did not play a role. Thus, it seems that factors other than insulin might regulate the 24-hr leptin profile.

If high GI CHO alter the 24-hr serum leptin pattern and amount without affecting serum glucose or insulin values, what is the mediator? The hexosamine biosynthetic pathway is believed to sense energy availability and mediate the effects of glucose on the expression of gene products such as growth factor- α in vascular smooth muscle cells (47, 48). A direct signaling link between UDP-*N*-acetylglucosamine (UDP-GlcNAc) and leptin mRNA expression was demonstrated in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes, adipose tissue, skeletal muscle, and L6 myocytes (23). In this study, glucosamine, glucose, and fatty acids, which increase the hexosamine pathway, promoted leptin expression.

Analysis of the carbohydrates used in our study showed two differences between diets A and C and diets B and D: the sucrose content and the content of glucose provided from sugars (glucose, sucrose, and lactose; Table III). For example, on Day 8 for a representative 55-kg woman, diets A and C contained 60 and 122 g of sucrose, respectively, whereas diets B and D contained 31 and 26 g, respectively (Table III). Similar marked differences in sucrose content were present in all diets eaten by our study participants. Thus, during the 19 hr preceding the leptin rise, diets A and C provided 4.4–14.8 times more sucrose than did diets B and D. A study of diets that differed markedly in starch and sucrose showed large differences in serum glucose, insulin, and related metabolites (49), but we did not observe similar

changes. Although total fructose was similar for each of the diets, the Day 7 dinner and evening snack for diets A and C contained considerably more fructose than was present in diets B and D, and in terms of glucose provided from sugars, the dinner plus evening snack on Day 7 (Table IIIA) provided 34.5 and 43 g for diets A and C, respectively, and 7.5 and 4 g from diets B and D, respectively. Further study is required to determine whether sucrose or simple sugars alter leptin secretion, independent of their effect on insulin.

Our results highlight three issues. That a single 0800 hr leptin value may not be sufficient to reveal a diet-induced change in leptin secretion; that high GI foods may have little or no effect on serum insulin in the context of a mixed meal; and that the diurnal pattern of leptin secretion may be altered by diet.

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