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Effects of oral ingestion of sucralose on gut hormone response and appetite in healthy normal-weight subjects

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Running head (38 characters): sweet taste receptors and gut hormones

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1 Abstract (234 words)

2	Background: The sweet taste receptor (T1r2+T1r3) is expressed by enteroendocrine L-cells
3	throughout the gastrointestinal tract. Application of sucralose (a non-calorific, non-
4	metabolisable sweetener) to L-cells in vitro stimulates glucagon-like peptide (GLP)-1
5	secretion, an effect that is inhibited with co-administration of a T1r2+T1r3 inhibitor.
6	Objective: We conducted a randomised, single-blinded, cross-over study in eight healthy
7	subjects to investigate whether oral ingestion of sucralose could stimulate L-cell derived
8	GLP-1 and peptide YY (PYY) release in vivo.
9	Methods: Fasted subjects were studied on four study days in random order. Subjects
10	consumed 50ml of either water, sucralose (0.083% w/v), a non-sweet, glucose-polymer
11	matched for sweetness with sucralose addition (50% w/v maltodextrin + 0.083% sucralose)
12	or a modified sham feeding protocol (MSF = oral stimulation) of sucralose (0.083% w/v).
13	Appetite ratings and plasma GLP-1, PYY, insulin and glucose were measured at regular time
14	points for 120 minutes. At 120 minutes, energy intake at a buffet meal was measured.
15	Results: Sucralose ingestion did not increase plasma GLP-1 or PYY. MSF of sucralose did
16	not elicit a cephalic phase response for insulin or GLP-1. Maltodextrin ingestion significantly
17	increased insulin and glucose compared to water (p<0.001). Appetite ratings and energy
18	intake were similar for all groups.
19	Conclusions: At this dose, oral ingestion of sucralose does not increase plasma GLP-1 or
20	PYY concentrations and hence, does not reduce appetite in healthy subjects. Oral stimulation
21	with sucralose had no effect on GLP-1, insulin, or appetite.

22 Keywords: obesity, sucralose, sweetener, gut hormone, appetite

23 Introduction

43

44

24 Recently, there have been significant advances in our understanding of how hormonal signals 25 released from the gastrointestinal (GI) tract interact with circuits within the central nervous 26 system to control appetite and energy intake (Murphy and Bloom, 2006). The gut hormones 27 peptide YY (PYY) and glucagon-like peptide (GLP)-1 are co-secreted from intestinal 28 enteroendocrine L-cells and released post-prandially in proportion to the amount of energy 29 ingested (Adrian et al., 1985; Ghatei et al., 1983; Le Roux et al., 2006). PYY and GLP-1 have 30 both been shown to be satiety factors, reducing food intake when administered to rodents (Batterham et al., 2002; Challis et al., 2003; Chelikani et al., 2005a; Chelikani et al., 2005b; 31 32 Chelikani et al., 2006; Halatchev et al., 2004; Talsania et al., 2005) and to humans 33 (Batterham et al., 2002; Degen et al., 2005; Flint et al., 1998; Gutzwiller et al., 1999; Le 34 Roux et al., 2006). The incretin effect of GLP-1, augmentation of insulin secretion in 35 response to an oral glucose load, has been well characterised (Elrick et al., 1964). Secretion 36 of PYY and GLP-1 is regulated by a complex neuro-humoral system in addition to direct 37 nutrient contact with specific receptors expressed by intestinal L-cells. However, the 38 mechanisms by which luminal nutrients stimulate the release of GLP-1 and PYY from L-cells remain poorly understood. 39 40 The two proteins T1r2 and T1r3 form a heterodimer and function together as a general sweet-41 taste receptor (Li et al., 2002; Nelson et al., 2001). T1r2+T1r3 is coupled to the G-protein 42 gustducin, which mediates transduction of sweet taste signals (Wong et al., 1996). T1r, and

the alpha subunit of gustducin (α -gust), are co-localised with GLP-1 and PYY in

45 Rozengurt et al., 2006; Sutherland et al., 2007). Recently, a key role for α -gust and a

46 functioning sweet-taste receptor in glucose stimulated GLP-1 secretion from the L-cell has

enteroendocrine L-cells of the intestinal brush border membranes (Jang et al., 2007;

47	been demonstrated (Jang et al., 2007). Application of sucralose (a non-calorific, non-
48	metabolisable sweetener) to human L-cells in vitro stimulated GLP-1 secretion and this effect
49	was inhibited with co-administration of a T1r3 inhibitor. This evidence supports a new
50	signaling mechanism which regulates gut hormone secretion via the sweet-taste receptor
51	T1r2+T1r3 in the GI tract.
52	One proposed factor in the increasing prevalence of obesity and type 2 diabetes is an
53	increased consumption of processed foods containing high levels of sucrose and fructose
54	(Bray et al., 2004; Elliott et al., 2002; Raben et al., 2002). To offset this, the food industry has
55	attempted to replace sugars with artificial sweeteners. The ability of non-calorific sweeteners
56	to enhance endogenous gut hormone release would represent a potentially exciting
57	opportunity for their addition to foods as agents to control glucose homeostasis and appetite
58	regulation in populations at risk of type 2 diabetes and obesity.
59	The aim of this study is to investigate whether oral ingestion of sucralose, at a dose that
60	would be consumed in a normal diet, increases circulating GLP-1 or PYY concentrations in
61	man.
62	
63	Subjects and Methods
64	<u>Subjects</u>
65	Eight normal-weight, healthy volunteers were locally recruited. All were non-smokers, aged
66	22-27y (seven females and one male) with a stable body weight and a body mass index
67	ranging from 18.8 to 23.9 kg/m ² . Persons who disliked the study food, who had food allergies
68	or food restrictions, who were taking medication that was likely to affect taste, smell or
69	appetite or who reported recent weight loss or weight cycling were excluded. Subjects were

70	screened using the standard Dutch Eating Behaviour questionnaire (Van Strien et al., 1986)			
71	and SCOFF questionnaire (Morgan et al., 2000) and were excluded if they demonstrated			
72	abnormal eating behaviour. Female volunteers attended all study days within the follicular			
73	stage of the menstrual cycle.			
74	The study was conducted with local ethical approval (project registration number:			
75	07/Q0406/62). Written informed consent was obtained from all volunteers and the study was			
76	performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.			
77				
78	<u>Study design</u>			
79	The study had a randomised, single-blinded, cross-over design. Subjects were randomly			

assigned to receive one of four solutions on four separate study sessions. Study sessions
lasted from 0830h until 1230h with at least three days between sessions. Subjects were asked
to refrain from drinking alcohol and to keep evening meals and activity levels as similar as
possible the day before each test session and to fast from 2100h, consuming only water.

84 On arrival at the study centre subjects were asked to be seated and to relax for 30 minutes 85 following placement of the intravenous cannula. After two baseline blood samples subjects 86 completed one of four experimental manipulations. Subjects ingested, in a single swallow, 87 50mL of either water (W), sucralose (S; 0.083% w/v, 2mmol/L Splenda®, Tate and Lyle 88 PLC, Southampton, UK) or the positive control maltodextrin (MD) which was matched for 89 sweetness with sucralose (50% w/v Polycose[®], Abbott Laboratories Ltd, US, plus 0.083% 90 sucralose). Each was followed by a one minute period of modified-sham-feeding (MSF) 91 protocol of the same solution that was swallowed. The fourth experimental manipulation was 92 designed to ascertain the involvement of stimulation of the sweet-taste receptors within the

93 oral cavity independently of the sweet-taste receptors throughout the GI tract. In this instance 94 subjects consumed 50mL water followed by the one-minute MSF of the sucralose solution 95 (WS; 0.083% w/v sucralose). The test solutions used are described in Table 1. The MSF 96 protocol involved drawing the solution up into the mouth through a straw, moving it around 97 in the mouth and then spitting it out, doing so repeatedly until the entire volume of 200mL was finished and the one minute time limit was up. In order to investigate the cephalic effects 98 99 of sucralose, the MSF was performed after ingestion of the test solution to ensure that no 100 residual sucralose would be swallowed with the subsequent ingestion of water in the WS 101 manipulation.

102 The dose of sucralose was chosen to represent a normal dietary load and the total volume 103 ingested was kept to a minimum, as it is known that ingestion of large volumes of water 104 alone can induce a gut hormone response (Christofides et al., 1979). Maltodextrin (a five 105 polymer chain of glucose) was used to assess the effect of glucose on gut hormone release 106 without the potential confounder of high concentrations of glucose effecting gastric emptying. 107 The expectorate from the MSF was weighed to ensure compliance with the protocol. Blood 108 samples and visual analogue scores (VAS) pertaining to subjective feelings of appetite, were 109 taken for a further two hours. After the last blood sample at 120 minutes, a test meal of 110 known energy content was given in excess and subjects were asked to eat until comfortably 111 full. Energy intake was calculated from the weight of food eaten.

112

113 <u>Blood samples</u>

Two baseline blood samples were taken at -15 and 0 minutes before consumption of test
solutions, then further samples were taken at 15, 30, 45, 60, 90 and 120 minutes after

116	consumption of test solutions. For analysis of the cephalic phase insulin release (CPIR) and
117	the cephalic phase GLP-1 response, blood samples were also taken at 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10
118	minutes for insulin and GLP-1 analysis only. Blood was collected in lithium heparin tubes
119	containing 5000 kallikrein units of aprotinin (200µL; Trasylol; Bayer) and immediately
120	centrifuged at 4°C. Plasma was separated and stored at -20°C until analysis.
121	

122 Appetite ratings

Subjective feelings of appetite were assessed at -15, 0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 90 and 120 minutes using VAS (Flint et al., 2000) with questions pertaining to desire to eat, hunger and prospective food consumption. Subjects were also asked to score the palatability and sweetness of the test solutions. Subjects marked their answers to the questions on scales of 100mm in length anchored at either end with the most positive and the most negative response. The distance along the scale that the subjects placed their mark was measured from one end and the reading in millimeters was recorded.

130

131 <u>Biochemical analyses</u>

All samples were assayed in duplicate and in a single assay to eliminate inter assay variation.

133 Plasma PYY and GLP-1 were assessed using an established in-house radioimmunoassay

134 (RIA) described previously (Adrian et al., 1985; Kreymann et al., 1987). The detection limit

of the PYY and GLP-1 assays was 2.5pmol/L and 7.5pmol/L with an intra-assay coefficient

variation (CV) of 5.8% and 5.4% respectively. Insulin was measured using Axsym analyser

137 (Abbott Diagnostics, Maidenhead, UK). Sensitivity was 7 pmol/L with an intra-assay CV of

138	2.6%. Plasma glucose was measured using an Abbott Architect ci8200 analyser (Abbott
139	Diagnostics, Maidenhead, UK). Sensitivity was 0.3mmol/L and intra-assay CV was 1%.
140	
141	<u>Statistics</u>
142	All data are represented as mean values ± SEM. Plasma hormone and glucose concentrations
143	were adjusted from baseline and represented as time course from change from baseline.
144	Incremental area under the curve (iAUC) was calculated over baseline by the trapezoidal rule.
145	Data for energy intake and iAUC were tested for normality and analysed using repeated
146	measures one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's test for post hoc comparisons (GraphPad
147	Prism 4.03 Software, San Diego, USA). In all cases P<0.05 was considered to be statistically

148 significant.

149

150 **Results**

151 <u>Validation of MSF</u>

152 After all test solutions, the expectorate weight was greater than the weight of the MSF

solutions sipped due to the addition of saliva indicating a successful MSF with minimum

- swallowing of test solutions.
- 155 The water solution was significantly less sweet than the remaining three test solutions $(70.9 \pm$

156 3 mm [WS], P<0.001; 65.9 \pm 10.8 mm [S], P<0.01; 73.1 \pm 8 mm [MD], P<0.001 vs. 5.9 \pm 2

157 mm [W]; n=8). The WS, S and MD solutions were rated as having the same sweetness and

palatability $(42.8 \pm 8.9 \text{ mm [WS]}; 36.8 \pm 10 \text{ mm [S]}; 38.1 \pm 8.5 \text{ mm [MD]}, 26.1 \pm 6 \text{ mm [W]};$

159 n=8).

160

161 <u>Appetite and food intake</u>

162	For the two hour period following administration of the test solutions, there was no			
163	significant difference in the $iAUC_{(0-120min)}$ of subjective feelings of appetite (Table 2). Two			
164	hours after consumption of test solutions, there was no significant difference in energy intake			
165	or water intake at the buffet meal (Table 2).			
166				
167	Hormones and glucose			
168	Plasma insulin and GLP-1 did not show any significant change during the first 10 min after			
169	the MSF of any solution (Table 2). $iAUC_{(0-120min)}$ for plasma GLP-1 and PYY concentrations			
170	were similar in all four groups. The MD group had a significantly higher $iAUC_{(0-120min)}$ of			
171	insulin and glucose concentrations compared with water, but there was no difference between			
172	any other solution tested (Figure 1 and Table 2).			

173

174 **Discussion**

175 In the present study, we show that oral ingestion of a common dietary dose of the non-

calorific, artificial sweetener sucralose does not increase plasma GLP-1 or PYY

177 concentrations nor does it affect subjective feelings of appetite or energy intake at the next

178 meal in healthy volunteers. This study mimics the physiological intake of a sweetened

solution. Our data are in accord with recently published human data (Ma et al., 2009) and *in*

180 *vivo* rat data (Fujita et al., 2009) in which sucralose ingestion failed to stimulate a rise in two

181 circulating incretin hormones, GLP-1 and the K cell derived glucose-dependent

182 insulinotropic polypeptide (GIP). Ma et al. administered sucralose nasogastrically to healthy, 183 normal weight volunteers and observed no effect on plasma GLP-1 or GIP concentrations 184 (Ma et al., 2009). Similarly, Fujita *et al.* demonstrated in rats that in contrast to sucrose 185 gavage, oral gavage of sucralose did not induce a rise in plasma GLP-1 (Fujita et al., 2009). 186 The only other published study to investigate the acute effect of oral sweetener ingestion on 187 gut hormone release in humans used the sweetener aspartame. Although, ingestion of 188 encapsulated aspartame was associated with a reduction in subsequent food intake, this effect 189 did not seem to be mediated by GLP-1 release (Hall et al., 2003). We chose not to 190 encapsulate sucralose in our study, as it remains intact throughout the GI tract and very little 191 is absorbed (Grice and Goldsmith, 2000). Therefore, sucralose may stimulate receptors on 192 more distal L cells throughout the GI tract. 193 We did not observe a plasma GLP-1 response following ingestion of maltodextrin plus 194 sucralose. GLP-1 response to glucose seems to be dependent on glucose been present in the

194 suchalose. OLI -1 response to gracose seems to be dependent on gracose been present in the 195 distal duodenum where L-cells are present (Parker et al., 2010). In this experiment we used 196 relatively low amount of a glucose polymer which is cleared efficiently in the proximal

197 duodenum before it can elicit a gut hormone response.

198 Oral ingestion of two non-calorific sweeteners, sucralose plus acesulfame K, followed by an 199 oral glucose tolerance test, produces higher plasma peak GLP-1 concentrations compared to 200 ingestion of water followed by an oral glucose tolerance test in healthy normal weight 201 subjects (Brown et al., 2009). Consistent with this sucralose plus glucose has an additive 202 stimulatory effect on GLP-1 secretion from murine primary L-cells compared to sucralose or 203 glucose alone (Reimann et al., 2008). Taken together these studies suggest that non-calorific 204 sweeteners and sugars may act synergistically to stimulate GLP-1 release from L-cells. In the 205 current study, the maltodextrin solution was matched for sweetness by addition of sucralose.

Therefore we cannot exclude a synergistic effect of maltodextrin and sucralose on plasma gut hormone concentrations, if a gut hormone response had occurred. It would be interesting to compare the effects of maltodextrin alone, without any match for sweetness, to the combination of maltodextrin plus sucralose to assess any additive effect of sucralose and maltodextrin on GLP-1 release.

Furthermore, we show that sucralose ingestion does not affect plasma glucose and insulin.

212 This is consistent with previous human studies in which no effect on plasma glucose and

insulin was observed following ingestion of encapsulated sucralose in diabetic patients (Grotz

et al., 2003) or following intragastric infusion of sucralose in healthy subjects (Ma et al.,

2009). Similarly, oral gavage of sucralose in rats did not improve glucose homeostasis

following an intraperitoneal glucose tolerance test (Fujita et al., 2009), suggesting that there

217 was no incretin effect mediated by the sucralose gavage.

218 Our study is the first to investigate the cephalic phase GLP-1 and insulin responses to 219 sucralose. We demonstrate that stimulation of the oral cavity with a sucralose-sweetened 220 solution does not lead to an early (0-10 min) increase in plasma GLP-1 and does not affect 221 subsequent food intake. This is in keeping with previous studies which have not demonstrated 222 a cephalic phase GLP-1 response to either ingestion of a mixed meal (Ahren and Holst, 2001) 223 or to a sham fed meal (Luscombe-Marsh et al., 2009). Furthermore, we show that sucralose 224 does not elicit a preabsorptive insulin response. This is consistent with previous studies using 225 a similar MSF protocol to assess the ability of non-calorific sweeteners such as aspartame and 226 saccharin to induce a CPIR in humans (Abdallah et al., 1997; Teff et al., 1995).

227 The concentration of sucralose used in the present study (2mmol/L) was chosen to be both

228 palatable and within the dose range (1-5mmol/L) previously shown to trigger GLP-1 release

from intestinal L-cells *in vitro* (Jang et al., 2007). However, with ensuing dilution in the gut

230	lumen post-ingestion, it is possible that the concentration of sucralose reaching the small
231	intestine was below 2mmol/l, which may have been insufficient to stimulate GLP-1 secretion.
232	An alternative explanation for our findings is that sucralose does not stimulate GLP-1 release
233	from intestinal enteroendocrine cells. In support of this, recent in vitro studies failed to
234	demonstrate an effect of sucralose on GLP-1 (Reimann et al., 2008) from enteroendocrine
235	cells using a similar sucralose concentration to that used in the current study. Furthermore, a
236	recent in vivo study has shown that intragastric infusion of up to 40mmol/L sucralose does
237	not induce GLP-1 secretion in humans (Ma et al., 2009). Together with our data, these studies
238	suggest that there is no measurable acute enhancement of GLP-1 or PYY release in vivo
239	following oral ingestion of sucralose. The reason for the apparent disparity of the effect of
240	sucralose on gut hormone release in vitro and in vivo is not clear and requires further
241	investigation.
242	In summary, we have shown that oral ingestion of sucralose does not elicit a cephalic phase
243	GLP-1 or insulin response nor increase post-ingestive plasma GLP-1 or PYY concentrations,
244	and therefore does not subsequently affect appetite. Our findings, using a dietary dose of
245	sucralose, do not support the proposal that stimulation of the sweet taste receptor in the GI
246	tract can stimulate release of GLP-1 and PYY from enteroendocrine L-cells.

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Contributions of the authors:

H.E.F. and V.P. designed the experiment, collected and analysed data and wrote the manuscript. N.M.M. helped with the writing of the manuscript. M.S. contributed to the data analysis. M.A.G, G.S.F and S.R.B. provided significant advice.

Conflict of interest:

The authors do not declare any conflict of interest.

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Study day	Test solution ingested (Volume=50ml)	Test solution used for the one-minute MSF (Volume=200ml)
water (W)	water	water
cephalic sucralose (WS)	water	sucralose dissolved in water
sucralose (S)	sucralose dissolved in water	sucralose dissolved in water
maltodextrin+sucralose (MD)	maltodextrin plus sucralose dissolved in water	maltodextrin plus sucralose dissolved in water

Table 1. Description of the test solutions used on the four study days.

	W	WS	S	MD
Insulin _(0-10min) (pmol.min/L)	171 ± 60	235 ± 83	70 ± 25	68 ± 24
GLP-1 _(0-10min) (pmol.min/L)	882 ± 113	948 ± 171	922 ± 132	658 ± 78
Glucose (mmol.min/L)	33.5 ± 6.9^{a}	51 ± 12.5^{b}	25.3 ± 20.4^{c}	122.3 ± 17.5
Insulin (pmol.min/L)	$287 \pm 331^{\mathbf{c}}$	-471 ± 132^{c}	-459 ± 352^{c}	5669 ± 519
GLP-1 (pmol.min/L)	-675 ± 1610	-248 ± 784	-359 ± 401	415 ± 610
PYY (pmol.min/L)	-179 ± 119	-128 ± 119	-56 ± 192	283 ± 185
Hunger (mm.min)	1724 ± 322	1641 ± 336	1993 ± 199	2017 ± 472
Desire to eat (mm.min)	1376 ± 216	1128 ± 275	1330 ± 458	1441 ± 461
Prospective food consumption (mm.min)	1318 ± 305	1623 ± 266	2002 ± 247	1676 ± 441
Energy intake (kJ)	2355±227	2417±222	2597±277	2460±167
Water intake (mL)	267.0±69.0	250.7±45.1	291.8±49.8	305.0±49.6

Table 2. Incremental AUC data for plasma hormones, glucose and appetite scores measured

 between 0 and 120 minutes (unless specified) and energy and water intake at the buffet meal.

W=water, WS= cephalic sucralose, S=sucralose, MD=maltodextrin+sucralose. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. **a** = p<0.05 compared to MD, **b** = p<0.01 compared to MD, **c** = p<0.001 compared to MD. n=8.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Change in plasma A) GLP-1, B) PYY, C) insulin and D) glucose from baseline following administration of test solutions (n=8). ●=water, ○=cephalic sucralose, ■=sucralose, □=maltodextrin+sucralose. Data are represented as mean ± SEM.



Figure 1