

# 

**Citation:** Apolzan JW, Carmichael OT, Kirby KM, Ramakrishnapillai SR, Beyl RA, Martin CK (2021) The effects of the form of sugar (solid vs. beverage) on body weight and fMRI activation: A randomized controlled pilot study. PLoS ONE 16(5): e0251700. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal. pone.0251700

**Editor:** Massimiliano Ruscica, Università degli Studi di Milano, ITALY

Received: May 3, 2020

Accepted: April 29, 2021

Published: May 17, 2021

**Copyright:** © 2021 Apolzan et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

**Data Availability Statement:** All relevant data are within the paper and its <u>Supporting Information</u> files.

**Funding:** This work was partially supported by a NORC Center Grant P30 DK072476 (CKM) entitled "Nutrition and Metabolic Health Through the Lifespan" sponsored by NIDDK and by U54 GM104940 (JWA) from the National Institute of General Medical Sciences of the National Institutes of Health, which funds the Louisiana Clinical and **RESEARCH ARTICLE** 

# The effects of the form of sugar (solid vs. beverage) on body weight and fMRI activation: A randomized controlled pilot study

John W. Apolzan<sup>1</sup><sup>®</sup>\*, Owen T. Carmichael<sup>1</sup>, Krystal M. Kirby<sup>1,2</sup>, Sreekrishna R. Ramakrishnapillai<sup>1,2</sup>, Robbie A. Beyl<sup>1</sup>, Corby K. Martin<sup>1®</sup>

1 Pennington Biomedical Research Center, Louisiana State University System, Baton Rouge, LA, United States of America, 2 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA, United States of America

So These authors contributed equally to this work.

\* John.Apolzan@pbrc.edu

## Abstract

## Objective

To test if sugar sweetened beverages (SSBs) and sugar sweetened solids (SSSs) have differential effects on body weight and reward processing in the brain.

## Methods

In a single blind randomized controlled pilot trial (RCT), twenty participants with BMI between 20 and 40 kg/m<sup>2</sup> were randomized to consume a 20 fluid ounce soda (SSB, 248 kcal) or the equivalent in solid form (SSS; similar to thick gelatin or gummy candy) daily. At baseline and day 28, fasting body weight and fed-state BOLD fMRI of the brain were assessed. Differences in fMRI signals between views of low-fat (LF (<30%)) high sugar (HS (>30%)) food, and non-food images were calculated in brain regions implicated in energy homeostasis, taste, and reward.

## Results

All participants in the SSB (6F 4M; 8 Caucasian;  $36\pm14 \text{ y}$ ,  $28.2\pm5.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ; Mean $\pm$ SD) and SSS (3F 7M; 6 Caucasian;  $39\pm12$ ;  $26.3\pm4.4$ ) groups completed the study. Weight change was  $0.27\pm0.78$  kg between SSB and SSS participants. Changes in the fMRI response to LF/HS foods in reward, homeostatic and taste regions tended to not be different between the groups over the four weeks. However, activation of the right substantia nigra increased following the SSB but decreased activation following the SSS in response to LF/HS foods over 28 days (-0.32\pm0.12). Ratings of wanting for LF/HS foods were correlated with activation in several brain regions, including the OFC.

## Conclusions

Change in weight was modest between the groups in this study. Daily consumption of a SSB over 28 days led to mixed responses to LF/HS foods in areas of the brain associated

Translational Science Center. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health. This work was also supported by Pennington Biomedical Research Center institutional research funds (JWA). Owen Carmichael's work on this project is partially supported by the Pennington Biomedical Research Foundation and a gift from John Turner and Jerry Fischer. The funders had no role in aspect of the study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

**Competing interests:** The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

with reward. Ratings of wanting are correlated with fMRI activation inside an MRI scanner.

## Introduction

Food form refers to the physical state of foods, i.e., if food is in beverage (liquid) or solid form. Compared to solid foods, adults do not fully compensate for calories consumed in beverages in short-term preload studies [1-4], suggesting that food form may have an independent effect on energy intake and body weight [4-6]. However, short-term intake studies may fail to accurately capture compensatory behavior over the longer term. Previously it has been shown that in humans, compensatory changes in food intake typically occur over 2-6 days [7, 8], which questions the validity of preload studies. To our knowledge, only one study to date has investigated the effect of food form ingested as carbohydrate on energy intake and body weight, though the foods differed slightly on other parameters than liquid vs. solid [5]. That study found that over four weeks, there was no difference in body weight change between carbohydrate beverage and isoenergetic solid food form [5]. In another four-week study, participants who consumed sugar-sweetened beverages (SSBs) gained far less weight than expected should no compensation have occurred [9]. It is clear from the small number of studies in this area that the effects of food form on energy intake and weight gain are underexplored, particularly when the products are identical except for their form. Addressing this question is important given the strong interest in additional research on the extent to which compensation occurs over the long-term in response to energy from SSBs [10].

In addition to a relative lack of data on body weight, there is a paucity of data on the effects ingesting foods of differing forms, particularly carbohydrate, may have on brain responses to visual food cues. Responses to visual food cues in reward- and motivation-processing regions of the brain are elevated in individuals with obesity compared to normal weight individuals [11] and also fail to decrease in individuals with obesity after feeding [12]. Additionally, prolonged exposure to highly palatable energy-dense food has been shown to reduce brain responses to visual food cues in reward-related regions [13, 14]. Initial research also suggests that greater reward activation responses to visual food cues may predict weight gain and success of weight loss [15]. Repeated exposure (over 3 weeks) to SSBs decreases response to frontostriatal brain regions suggesting alterations in reward pathways [16] which could lead to hyperphagia, but whether this response is specific to SSBs, as opposed to solid sugar, is under-explored.

Lastly, there is little data on the effects food form may have on cravings and preferences for food items. Our previous work utilizing self-report scales has found that repeatedly consuming certain types of foods conditions the body to prefer and crave those foods, while restricting intake of foods conversely reduces cravings for the types of foods that are restricted [17–22]. This is consistent with Burger [16] who found that consuming a specific, novel SSB for 3 weeks resulted in decreased pleasantness ratings and desire to consume other beverages that were not consumed. Further, people have higher reward sensitivity for foods that are more frequently consumed and, interestingly, this effect is specific to less healthy foods, including sweet snacks and SSBs [23].

The effect of long-term consumption of SSBs or Sugar Sweetened Solids (SSSs) on body weight and fMRI activation are not well understood. This study allowed us to engineer our products and evaluate acceptability ratings for the SSB and SSS. The purpose of the current

pilot study was to address these knowledge gaps by pilot testing if weight, brain responses to food cues in the fed state, and food cravings and preferences over 4 weeks of consumption of a specific food item changed differentially in groups that consumed the same food in different form.

## Materials and methods

#### Ethics

The study reported herein was conducted according to the guidelines in the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants were given verbal and written explanations about the study, provided written informed consent, and received a monetary stipend. The study was approved by the Pennington Biomedical Institutional Review Board (IRB; FWA 00006218). The study was registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT 03190993). Since it was a pilot study, only the primary outcome of body weight was reported in the NCT registry. After the study was initiated, BMI was expanded from 35 kg/m<sup>2</sup> to 40 kg/m<sup>2</sup>.

#### Participants

Men and women without diabetes aged 21 to 65 years with a BMI range of 20 to 40 kg/m<sup>2</sup> were recruited. All inclusion/exclusion criteria were based upon self-reported medical history/ checklist except for body mass index (BMI). Other key inclusion criteria included participants being willing to consume study foods and willingness to archive their neuroimaging data. Participants were asked to maintain their regular SSB consumption (> 7, 12 oz. sugar-sweetened beverages per week) in addition to consuming the foods provided during the study (i.e., either a daily SSB or SSS). Exclusion criteria included prediabetes, Type I or II diabetes, smoking (former smokers must be smoke free for 6 months), cancer not in remission, serious digestive disorders, uncontrolled thyroid disorder, non-weight stable, conditions that affect metabolism or body weight, intentions of becoming pregnant or current pregnancy, uncorrected vision problems, color blindness, left handedness, current or past alcohol or drug abuse (> 3 drinks/ day of any alcoholic beverage), or contraindications to magnetic resonance imaging (MRI).

Recruitment at Pennington Biomedical Research Center (PBRC) was centralized. PBRC communications and marketing specialists created advertisements for our studies and media coverage to boost recruitment efforts. Our recruitment strategies used targeted advertisements on social media (Craigslist as well as paid ads on Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter) and e-mail blasts through our e-mail listserv. We also used traditional methods of face-to-face recruiting and flyer drops that target community venues including branches of the local public library, commercial retail outlets (YMCA, restaurants, etc.), and community parks and recreational facilities.

#### Study design

This pilot study was a single-blinded parallel arm randomized controlled trial examining SSB and a nutritionally equivalent SSS with a 1:1 allocation ratio performed at Pennington Biomedical Research Center in Baton Rouge, Louisiana from July 2017 till June 2018. Stratified block randomization was performed by the biostatistician using SAS v9.4 within each BMI group (normal weight, overweight, or obese) with randomized blocks of size 2. Investigators and clinic staff obtaining outcome assessments (i.e. body weight) were blinded to participant treatment. Due to the nature of the study, participants could not be blinded. Thus participants and intervention staff providing the product and checking compliance were not blinded. The Consort Diagram is shown in Fig 1. Participants consumed products daily for 28 days with



Fig 1. CONSORT diagram.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0251700.g001

assessments occurring at baseline and day 28. During a screening visit, participants were consented and a fasting weight and height were obtained. Also participants completed a taste test to ensure that they would be willing to consume the study foods. The taste test relied on a 9-point Likert scale, anchored from 1 (Dislike Extremely) to 9 (Like Extremely), and asked participants to rate the texture, flavor, and overall acceptability of both products, as well as the ability to eat the product for 28 days (answered as 'yes' or 'no'). Then, individuals were excluded if they stated they were unable to eat the product for 28 days.

At the study assessment visits, participants arrived at the biomedical research center well rested following a 10–12 hour fast. Fasting body weight was obtained by a trained clinic coordinator. A series of psychological assessments were performed including:

The Retrospective VAS (RVAS) is used to measure subjective ratings of hunger, satiety, desire to eat, fullness, and prospective food consumption over the past week. When completing RVAS, participants rate the intensity of these subjective states on a line anchored from "not at all" to "extremely." The line is divided into 100 equal units. Research supports the reliability and validity of RVAS for measuring subjective states related to food intake [24].

The Food Craving Inventory (FCI) is a 33-item measure of specific food craving. The FCI assesses the frequency with which an individual experiences a craving for a particular food. The measure consists of 5 empirically-derived factors: High fats, Sweets, Carbohydrates/ starches, Fruits/Vegetables, and Fast food fats. All items are scored in a 1 (Never) to 5 (Always) multiple choice format. The measure has demonstrated good reliability and validity [25, 26].

The Barratt Impulsiveness Scale (BIS) is a 30-item self-report measure describing impulsive or non-impulsive behaviors and preferences. The scale consists of 6 first order factors:

Attention, Cognitive Stability, Motor, Perseverance, Self-Control, and Cognitive Complexity; and 3 second order factors: Attentional, Motor and Non Planning. The items are rated on a 4-point scale with responses ranging from 1 (Rarely/Never) to 4 (Almost Always /Always). The measure assesses the personality/behavioral construct of impulsiveness [27], and has demonstrated good psychometric properties in multiple populations [28].

The Yale Food Addiction Scale (YFAS) [29] is a 27-item self-report questionnaire used to identify individuals showing tendencies for addictive-like behaviors towards certain types of foods, such as those high in fat or sugar. The measure also allows subjects to subjectively identify specific problem foods.

Urine pregnancy test was performed on females (and read by medical investigator prior to MRI). Lastly, functional MRI (fMRI) was performed.

The baseline clinic visit occurred approximately within one month after the screening visit. For females, the baseline visit, and the follow-up visit 28 days later, occurred during the luteal phase of the menstrual cycle. Participants were stratified based on BMI class and treatment. Each group had at least 3 participants with normal weight, overweight, and obesity based on BMI. Participants returned to the center weekly for adherence checks and provision of study foods.

#### Treatments

The SSB was a 20 fluid oz. Coca-Cola® without a label. It was augmented with 2.1 g of whey protein powder (ProCel, Global Health Products, Inc., Rochester, NY) to match the additives in the gelatin (Knox; E.D.Smith® Foods, Ltd.) that was used to make the SSS. The SSB was 248 kcal. The SSS was made with Coca-Cola® syrup concentrate (i.e. fountain syrup) and provided equal energy content to the 20 oz. SSB (248 kcal). It included 3.0 g of gelatin to produce the solid form (Fig 2). It also included 3.5 mg sodium from NaCl, 11.1 mg potassium from KCl, and 11.5 mg calcium from CaCl (all from Letco Medical, Wayne, PA), which were included to make it nearly identical to the SSB (energy, macronutrients, and micronutrients). Thus, the difference between products was the fluid (i.e. water content) between the SSB and SSS.

#### Intervention

Consumption of the product associated with participants' random assignment began during the baseline assessment. At this time, participants consumed their randomized group assignment (either a SSB or SSS) prior to their fMRI scan. At the end of this study visit, 7 days' worth of products were provided. A few rescue products were also provided in case they could not return to the center in 7 days to receive additional product. The SSS rescue products were provided frozen. Participants were instructed to consume their randomized product daily, but each day it could be consumed *ad libitum* (e.g. timing of product consumption was chosen by participant). Participants came to the center weekly thereafter (approximately day 7, 14, and 21) for product pick-up as well as an adherence check with the study interventionist. Daily adherence was quantified over the prior week based on multiple pass questioning of the participant and counting empty bottles and containers.

#### Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI)

MRI scanning was completed on a 3T General Electric Discovery 750W with 32-channel head coil. Blood-oxygen-level-dependent (BOLD) fMRI acquisition parameters include repetition time of 3000ms, echo time of 30 ms, flip angle of 90, slice thickness of 3.5mm, and 64x64



Fig 2. The Sugar Sweetened Solid (SSS). The golf ball provides scale.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0251700.g002

image matrix. As in prior work [30], a T1-weighted magnetization prepared rapid gradient echo (MPRAGE) was collected as an anatomical reference for functional data.

fMRI was used to assess brain responses to food and non-food control images. Scans were conducted 30 min after ingesting the participants randomized food product (i.e., either the SSB or SSS) at baseline and day 28, and food product ingestion followed an overnight fast. The fMRI food image task was developed using images from the Food-pics database [31], to which we applied a previously described macronutrient categorization [32]. Foods were classified as low fat (LF, <30%) and high sugar (HS, >30%). This resulted in 15 images in the food category. Fifteen (15) non-food control images of everyday household objects were also shown. Each  $600 \times 450$  color photo showed one food on a white background.

Images were shown in an event-related design. In each trial of the fMRI task, one food image was displayed for 5s followed by 0.5s of a fixation crosshair. The foods in the LF/HS category were divided into 1) fruits and vegetables: apple, watermelon, green pepper, grapes, banana, carrot, green beans, orange, pickle, tomato; and 2) sweets: lollipop, gummies, cola gummies, gummy bears, chocolate marshmallows, and gumdrops. Next, the same image scaled to 80% of the original size was shown with the words "How much do you want to eat this?" for 2.5 s. A slider bar with "Not at all" and "Want very much" on the left and right ends appeared. The participant moved a joystick to select a slider bar position and clicked a joystick button to finalize the response. The response was recorded as the wanting rating for that image. A fixation crosshair displayed for a minimum of 1.5 s before the next trial. The task consisted of consecutive trials, with all images shown in a counterbalanced order that was the same across participants.

#### fMRI activation analysis

Responses to the 15 food images in the LF/HS category (to match the macronutrient profile of the foods consumed herein) along with the 15 non-food control images were included in the analysis. Preprocessing of fMRI data in Statistical Parametric Mapping (SPM) version 8 included slice timing correction, head motion correction, smoothing, and warping to a standard coordinate frame. The sources of artifacts in time series data including spiking and motion were identified and removed during the first level analysis. Time points (image volumes) with head rotation greater than 2° or translation greater than 2 mm or z-normalized global brain activation (standard deviations away from the mean) above 2.3 were considered as outliers. These bad time points were omitted in the General Linear Model (GLM) by including a single regressor for each outlier volume. Artifact Detection Toolbox (ART) was used to identify outliers and create regressors. Data were entered into a first-level voxel-wise analysis with each trial modeled as a boxcar function that covers the period of time when the large image is viewed. The boxcar function was convolved with the canonical hemodynamic response function. The BOLD signal contrast between LF/HS and control conditions (hereafter, "fMRI activation") was calculated at a set of 3D ROI coordinates taken from a recent metaanalysis [33]. The fMRI activations at all ROIs located inside a specific hemisphere of an anatomical area (such as the right hypothalamus) were averaged together to create two estimates for that anatomical area, right and left. The ROIs were in anatomical areas implicated in energy homeostasis (hypothalamus), reward and motivation (amygdala, dorsal striatum, ventral striatum, inferior orbitofrontal cortex or OFC, lateral OFC, prefrontal cortex, putamen, substantia nigra, caudate, cingulate gyrus, medial OFC, and insula). Coordinates are shown in S1 Table. Secondarily, regions associated with taste (thalamus, postcentral gyrus, frontal operculum / anterior insula, operculum) were examined. Since a set of a priori defined brain regions were tested in this pilot study, fMRI analyses were exploratory and no multiple comparisons adjustment was performed.

#### Data and statistical analysis

Parts of these study data were collected and managed using REDCap electronic data capture tools hosted at Pennington Biomedical Research Center. REDCap (Research Electronic Data Capture) is a secure, web-based application designed to support data capture for research studies, providing: 1) an intuitive interface for validated data entry; 2) audit trails for tracking data manipulation and export procedures; 3) automated export procedures for seamless data downloads to common statistical packages; and 4) procedures for importing data from external sources [34].

Sample size was based on previous published literature suggesting at least 10 participants a group and about 10% of future sample is sufficient for pilot studies [35]. Analyses were carried out using SAS, Version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). Linear models modeling change (Day 28 –Baseline) were used to test if treatment groups differed. Normality of the residuals from the mixed model were checked and observations with a residual value of  $\pm$  3 were investigated. Similar models were used with fMRI activation. Pearson correlation between average wanting ratings for fruits/vegetables and sweets versus energy homeostasis, reward and motivation,

and taste fMRI activation contrasts were calculated. Data are reported as mean ± SD and/or 95% confidence intervals.

#### Results

#### Participants

Participant characteristics are shown in <u>Table 1</u>. Adherence during the 28 day study was similar between groups (SSB, 99.3  $\pm$  1.5%; SSS, 100.4  $\pm$  3.3%) and retention was 100%. Taste test ratings of texture, flavor, and acceptability were similar between SSB and SSS.

#### Anthropometrics

Change in body weight over 28 days was  $0.27 \pm 0.78$  kg [-0.49, 1.03] between the SSB and SSS conditions. This was driven by a weight increase in the SSB group ( $0.38 \pm 0.94$  kg; -0.29, 1.05) and very smaller increase in the SSS group ( $0.11 \pm 0.56$  kg; -0.31, 0.54).

#### Self-report questionnaires

Changes in ratings of perceived appetite on the RVAS did not suggest differences between the two groups over time (S2 Table). The fruits/vegetables subscore slightly increased in the SSB group and slightly decreased in the SSS group for a between group change of  $0.5 \pm 0.4$ . High fats, carbohydrates, and the total score increased in the beverage group and the solid group resulting in group change differences of  $-0.2 \pm 0.3$ ,  $0.1 \pm 0.3$ , and  $0.1 \pm 0.2$ , respectively. With the BIS, cognitive complexity increased in the SSB group but decreased in the SSS group resulting in a difference of  $1.1 \pm 1.1$ . In the motor  $1^{st}$  order factors, SSB and SSS were increased at the 28 day follow-up time point, with SSB and SSS increasing its score leading to a between group change of  $-2.0 \pm 2.2$ . No other impulsiveness factors suggested differences between groups. YFAS did not differ between groups over time.

#### fMRI

Changes in fMRI activation over the four weeks of treatment within energy homeostasis, reward, and taste areas are reported in the <u>S3 Table</u>.

With reward, the insula and substantia nigra in the SSB group increased activation and the SSS group decreased activation over 28 days leading to a changes of  $0.83 \pm 0.7$  and  $0.39 \pm 0.31$ ,

	SSB	SSS
Sex	3 F, 7 M	6 F, 4 M
Race	6 White, 3 Black, 1 Asian	8 White, 1 Black, 1 Asian
Age (y)	36 ± 14	39 ± 12
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	28.2 ± 5.5	$26.3 \pm 4.4$
Weight (kg)	79.0 ± 16.9	81.4 ± 15.9
Taste Test		
Texture	7.6 ± 0.8	7.0 ± 1.3
Flavor	$7.4 \pm 1.1$	6.6 ± 01.5
Acceptability	7.5 + 0.8	7.0 + 01.2

#### Table 1. Participant characteristics.

Mean ± SD. SSB, Sugar Sweetened Beverage; SSS, Sugar Sweetened Solid. No significant differences were detected between groups.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0251700.t001

respectively. With energy homeostasis, the hypothalamus decreased activation in the SSB group but increased activation in the SSS group leading to a change of  $-0.4 \pm 0.43$ .

#### Wanting

At baseline, associations between average wanting ratings for LF/HS foods and fMRI activation to the same images were seen. In the right hemisphere, fMRI activation for LF/HS foods in the cingulate gyrus was associated with wanting of fruits and vegetables ( $\rho = 0.51$ ). In the left hemisphere, fMRI activation for LF/HS foods in the insula and medial OFC were positively associated with wanting for sweets ( $\rho = 0.33$ ;  $\rho = 0.40$ , respectively), whereas the fMRI activation for LF/HS foods in the hypothalamus was positively associated with wanting for fruits and vegetables ( $\rho = 0.33$ ).

The association between the change in average wanting for LF/HS foods and change in fMRI activation over 28 days was limited. In the right hemisphere, change in fMRI activation for LF/HS foods in the inferior OFC was negatively correlated with change in wanting for sweets ( $\rho = -0.37$ ). In the left hemisphere, change in fMRI activation for LF/HS foods in the lateral OFC was negatively correlated with change in wanting for fruits and vegetables ( $\rho = -0.31$ ). No other medium effect sizes were seen.

#### Discussion

In this study, individuals were randomized to consume nutrient-identical SSS or SSB products daily for 28 days. Participants exhibited a modest change in body weight between groups. Also, the consumption of added sugar in beverage or solid form led to limited differential group changes in brain activation to visual food cues. As shown in the <u>S3 Table</u>, some of the fMRI activation findings had large variability, including at baseline, thus the potential for significance was greatly reduced. However, the majority of reward regions demonstrated decreased (blunted) reward suggesting this is in line with previous data responses to SSBs [16]. Nevertheless, our data were somewhat mixed. With SSB consumption fMRI activation in some reward regions tended to increase, and fMRI activation in response to LF/HS foods in the substantia nigra tended to demonstrate some changes in fMRI activation over 28 days of SSB vs. SSS consumption. Lastly, wanting ratings given within the scanner were associated with simultaneous fMRI activation in homeostatic and reward regions of the brain. To the authors' knowledge, this is the first time this effect has been shown.

The mechanism for the potential differential response to food intake and body weight is not definitively known. However there are a variety of theories including that human adults do not to fully compensate for energy consumed in beverages, which leads to a positive energy balance and weight gain, is largely supported by short-term preload studies [1–4, 36]. The lack of dietary compensation could be due to cognitive factors [37] (also including fMRI activation), GI transit time and gut hormones [37–39], differences in intake (i.e. snacking behaviors) [40], and requires further study. Some longer-term previous studies examined the effects of beverages vs. solid food on body weight in animals [41, 42] as well as humans. The human work included examining the effects of food form on consumption of fruit and vegetables [43], meal replacement products [44], and sugars [5]. The work on sugar also spanned 28 days and demonstrated similar effects to our own. In that study [5], jelly beans and caffeine free soda were provided so the products were similar but not identical like our products. The study foods were isocaloric and 450 kcal was provided daily. The study was a within-subjects crossover design in 15 younger participants who on average had a normal BMI. There was no difference between groups with the solid group gaining 0.3 kg, the beverage group gaining 0.5 kg. Thus a

0.2 kg difference was present between the groups [5]. This suggested that the beverage may lead to greater weight gain than the solid but the results were modest. We utilized identical products and a stratified study design that recruited a similar number of persons whom were normal weight, overweight, and obese. Interestingly the results were similar with a 0.27 kg difference between groups found in the current study. Based on the current and previous studies it is unclear if beverages lead to greater weight gain than solid foods, particularly foods high in added sugar, over the long-term. A well-powered follow-up study powered based on these pilot data is needed to examine if there are differential effects of the consumption of various forms of added sugar on body weight.

The SSBs (and SSS) incorporate both sugars (glucose and fructose) since high fructose corn syrup is utilized in the food products. Ingestion of glucose and fructose previously caused differences in regional cerebral blood flow with glucose, but not fructose, activating brain regions shown to regulate reward and appetite [45]. Thus, we speculate that glucose may be playing a stronger role in causing these differential changes in brain reward compared to fructose.

Despite body weight being similar over 28 days, we saw trends for differences in brain activation in areas of the brain associated with reward in the SSB group. Brain activation to LF/HS foods predominantly decreased following the ingestion of the SSB for 28 days. This finding is similar to previous studies showing reduced reward response to a milkshake following frequent consumption of ice cream [13]. However, the SSS, which only differed from SSB in the water content and the way it was ingested, resulted in limited changes to brain activation to the LF/HS images. Specifically, the addition of the fat content along with the carbohydrate in previous studies [13, 16] may have led to the slightly differential responses compared to the current study. The substantia nigra, right insula, and hypothalamus may be responsive to either the form of energy ingested (i.e. beverage vs. solid) or the macronutrient content. The LF/HS food images included foods that are similar to the SSS (i.e. lollipops, gummy bears, gum drops) which may have played a role in this response. This is important as it identifies possible brain mechanisms that explain why chronic consumption of certain food products, such as SSSs or SSBs, affects preference and possibly selection and intake of specific food groups. This suggests that the form of food may influences activation in areas of the brain which have been associated with eating behavior and body weight.

It is critical to better understand if beverages lead to differential effects on body weight and health compared to solid foods. Public health policies are specifically targeting SSB intake [46–49], but not solid foods that are high in added sugar (e.g., candy, cakes, cookies, pies, pastries). This suggests that regulation of SSBs rather than sugar in all forms may be viewed as an especially effective means to prevent weight gain and poor cardiometabolic health [50, 51]. However, there is little to no definitive evidence indicating that added sugar from SSBs is more harmful than added sugar from solid foods. This knowledge gap is particularly concerning given the focus on taxing SSBs. For example, the Society for Behavioral Medicine has chosen to recommend an excise tax of at least 20% specifically on SSBs [49]. Yet, more evidence is needed [52–54] to inform policy directives and decisions and perhaps the lack of empirical data in this area has led to seemingly disparate recommendations by organizations and local policy makers.

Some strengths and innovation of the pilot study included products that were created. This study utilized a stratified study design thereby incorporating persons of normal weight, overweight, and obesity. It also tested visual images that had a similar macronutrient composition as study foods and examined fMRI activation of wanting the visual images inside the scanner. This study did have some limitations. These included a small sample size and subsequent low power, and the lack of a control group. However, future studies can utilize the 95% confidence intervals to power future work. Also, the LF/HS images included foods in solid form thus were

representative of the macronutrient composition but not necessarily the food form of the SSB exposure (i.e. beverages). Lastly, psychological assessments were provided but no specific exclusion criteria was provided for persons with reported eating disorders.

Following 28 days of ingesting an equivalent product that only differed in food form, no statistical differences in body weight between groups were shown. However, brain activation in response to LF/HS foods diverged over the 28 days in the SSB group within brain regions associated with reward and motivation. Understanding the neural and physiological consequences of consuming added sugar in different forms will better inform current efforts to reduce its consumption.

#### Supporting information

S1 Checklist. CONSORT 2010 checklist of information to include when reporting a pilot or feasibility trial<sup>\*</sup>.

(DOC)

**S1 Table.** Coordinates for each region of interest. (DOCX)

S2 Table. Change in appetitive sensations, food craving, and impulsiveness in adults consuming isocaloric beverages and solids for 28 days.

(DOCX)

S3 Table. Change in fMRI activation in adults consuming isocaloric beverages and solids for 28 days.

(DOCX)

**S1 Protocol.** The Diet composition and Energy Balance Pilot Study (The DEB Pilot Study). (PDF)

**S1 Dataset.** (XLSX)

#### Acknowledgments

The authors thank the volunteers for their time and effort. We also thank S. Nicole Fearnbach for her help in the fMRI design and Kishore M. Gadde, MD, for being the medical investigator of the trial. Also, the authors thank the Pennington Biomedical Research Center Outpatient Clinic, Metabolic Research Kitchen, Imaging Core, and Data Management Staff. Lastly, the authors thank the Ingestive Behavior, Weight Management & Health Promotion laboratory and the Clinical Nutrition laboratory members for their assistance. Protocol available upon request.

#### **Author Contributions**

Conceptualization: John W. Apolzan, Corby K. Martin.

Data curation: Krystal M. Kirby.

Formal analysis: Sreekrishna R. Ramakrishnapillai, Robbie A. Beyl.

Funding acquisition: John W. Apolzan.

Investigation: John W. Apolzan, Owen T. Carmichael, Corby K. Martin.

Methodology: John W. Apolzan, Owen T. Carmichael, Krystal M. Kirby, Sreekrishna R. Ramakrishnapillai, Corby K. Martin.

Project administration: John W. Apolzan, Corby K. Martin.

Resources: Owen T. Carmichael.

Software: Krystal M. Kirby, Sreekrishna R. Ramakrishnapillai.

Supervision: John W. Apolzan, Owen T. Carmichael, Corby K. Martin.

Writing – original draft: John W. Apolzan.

Writing – review & editing: John W. Apolzan, Owen T. Carmichael, Krystal M. Kirby, Sreekrishna R. Ramakrishnapillai, Robbie A. Beyl, Corby K. Martin.

#### References

- Stull AJ, Apolzan JW, Thalacker-Mercer AE, Iglay HB, Campbell WW. Liquid and solid meal replacement products differentially affect postprandial appetite and food intake in older adults. J Am Diet Assoc. 2008; 108(7):1226–30. Epub 2008/07/01. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2008.04.014 PMID: 18589034; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC2556245.
- Mourao DM, Bressan J, Campbell WW, Mattes RD. Effects of food form on appetite and energy intake in lean and obese young adults. Int J Obes (Lond). 2007; 31(11):1688–95. Epub 2007/06/21. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ijo.0803667">https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ijo.0803667</a> PMID: 17579632.
- Tournier A, Louis-Sylvestre J. Effect of the physical state of a food on subsequent intake in human subjects. Appetite. 1991; 16(1):17–24. Epub 1991/02/01. https://doi.org/10.1016/0195-6663(91)90107-4 PMID: 2018401.
- Mattes RD. Dietary compensation by humans for supplemental energy provided as ethanol or carbohydrate in fluids. Physiol Behav. 1996; 59(1):179–87. Epub 1996/01/01. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-</u> 9384(95)02007-1 PMID: 8848479.
- DiMeglio DP, Mattes RD. Liquid versus solid carbohydrate: effects on food intake and body weight. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord. 2000; 24(6):794–800. Epub 2000/07/06. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ijo.</u> 0801229 PMID: 10878689.
- Almiron-Roig E, Palla L, Guest K, Ricchiuti C, Vint N, Jebb SA, et al. Factors that determine energy compensation: a systematic review of preload studies. Nutr Rev. 2013; 71(7):458–73. Epub 2013/07/ 03. https://doi.org/10.1111/nure.12048 PMID: 23815144; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3746122.
- Bray GA, Flatt JP, Volaufova J, Delany JP, Champagne CM. Corrective responses in human food intake identified from an analysis of 7-d food-intake records. Am J Clin Nutr. 2008; 88(6):1504–10. Epub 2008/12/10. 88/6/1504 [pii]. https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.2008.26289 PMID: 19064509.
- 8. Saris WHM. Limits of human endurance: lessons from the Tour de France. In: Kinney JM, Tucker HN, editors. Physiology, stress, and malnutrition: functional correlates, nutritional intervention Philadelphia: Lippincott-Raven Publishers; 1997. p. 451–62.
- Reid M, Hammersley R, Duffy M, Ballantyne C. Effects on obese women of the sugar sucrose added to the diet over 28 d: a quasi-randomised, single-blind, controlled trial. The British journal of nutrition. 2013:1–8. Epub 2013/10/30. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114513002687 PMID: 24164779.
- Kaiser KA, Shikany JM, Keating KD, Allison DB. Will reducing sugar-sweetened beverage consumption reduce obesity? Evidence supporting conjecture is strong, but evidence when testing effect is weak. Obes Rev. 2013; 14(8):620–33. Epub 2013/06/08. https://doi.org/10.1111/obr.12048 PMID: 23742715.
- Stoeckel LE, Weller RE, Cook EW 3rd, Twieg DB, Knowlton RC, Cox JE. Widespread reward-system activation in obese women in response to pictures of high-calorie foods. Neuroimage. 2008; 41(2):636– 47. Epub 2008/04/17. S1053-8119(08)00163-8 [pii]. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2008.02.031 PMID: 18413289.
- Farr OM, Mantzoros CS. Obese individuals with more components of the metabolic syndrome and/or prediabetes demonstrate decreased activation of reward-related brain centers in response to food cues in both the fed and fasting states: a preliminary fMRI study. Int J Obes (Lond). 2017; 41(3):471–4. Epub 2016/12/27. https://doi.org/10.1038/ijo.2016.231 PMID: 28017966; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5340581.
- Burger KS, Stice E. Frequent ice cream consumption is associated with reduced striatal response to receipt of an ice cream-based milkshake. Am J Clin Nutr. 2012; 95(4):810–7. Epub 2012/02/18. <a href="https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.111.027003">https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.111.027003</a> PMID: 22338036; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3302359.

- Stice E, Yokum S, Blum K, Bohon C. Weight gain is associated with reduced striatal response to palatable food. J Neurosci. 2010; 30(39):13105–9. Epub 2010/10/01. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI. 2105-10.2010 PMID: 20881128; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC2967483.
- Murdaugh DL, Cox JE, Cook EW 3rd, Weller RE. fMRI reactivity to high-calorie food pictures predicts short- and long-term outcome in a weight-loss program. Neuroimage. 2012; 59(3):2709–21. Epub 2012/02/15. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2011.10.071 PMID: 22332246; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3287079.
- Burger KS. Frontostriatal and behavioral adaptations to daily sugar-sweetened beverage intake: a randomized controlled trial. Am J Clin Nutr. 2017; 105(3):555–63. Epub 2017/02/10. https://doi.org/10. 3945/ajcn.116.140145 PMID: 28179221; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5320411.
- Martin CK, O'Neil PM, Pawlow L. Changes in food cravings during low-calorie and very-low-calorie diets. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2006; 14(1):115–21. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2006.14</u> PMID: 16493129.
- Martin CK, O'Neil PM, Tollefson G, Greenway FL, White MA. The association between food cravings and consumption of specific foods in a laboratory taste test. Appetite. 2008; 51:324–6. <u>https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.appet.2008.03.002</u> PMID: 18417253.
- Martin CK, McClernon FJ, Chellino A, Correa J. Food cravings: A central construct in food intake behavior, weight loss, and the neurobiology of appetitive behavior. In: Preedy VR, Watson RR, Martin C, editors. Handbook of Behavior, Diet, and Nutrition. New York: Springer; 2011. p. 741–55.
- Martin CK, Rosenbaum D, Han H, Geiselman PJ, Wyatt HR, Hill JO, et al. Change in Food Cravings, Food Preferences, and Appetite During a Low-Carbohydrate and Low-Fat Diet. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2011; 19:1963–70. PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3139783.
- Apolzan JW, Myers CA, Champagne CM, Beyl RA, Raynor HA, Anton SA, et al. Frequency of Consuming Foods Predicts Changes in Cravings for Those Foods During Weight Loss: The POUNDS Lost Study. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2017; 25(8):1343–8. https://doi.org/10.1002/oby.21895 PMID: 28618170; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5529244.
- Myers CA, Martin CK, Apolzan JW. Food cravings and body weight: a conditioning response. Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes. 2018; 25(5):298–302. Epub 2018/07/27. <u>https://doi.org/10.1097/MED.</u> 00000000000434 PMID: 30048258.
- Nansel TR, Lipsky LM, Eisenberg MH, Haynie DL, Liu D, Simons-Morton B. Greater Food Reward Sensitivity Is Associated with More Frequent Intake of Discretionary Foods in a Nationally Representative Sample of Young Adults. Front Nutr. 2016; 3:33. Epub 2016/09/03. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2016. 00033 PMID: 27588287; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC4989129.
- Womble LG, Wadden TA, Chandler JM, Martin AR. Agreement between weekly vs. daily assessment of appetite. Appetite. 2003; 40(2):131–5. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0195-6663(02)00170-8 PMID: 12781162.
- White MA, Grilo CM. Psychometric properties of the Food Craving Inventory among obese patients with binge eating disorder. Eat Behav. 2005; 6(3):239–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eatbeh.2005.01.001 PMID: 15854870.
- White MA, Whisenhunt BL, Williamson DA, Greenway FL, Netemeyer RG. Development and validation of the food-craving inventory. Obes Res. 2002; 10(2):107–14. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2002.17</u> PMID: 11836456.
- 27. Patton JH, Stanford MS, Barratt ES. Factor structure of the Barratt impulsiveness scale. J Clin Psychol. 1995; 51(6):768–74. https://doi.org/10.1002/1097-4679(199511)51:6<768::aid-jclp2270510607>3.0. co;2-1 PMID: 8778124.
- Reid RC, Cyders MA, Moghaddam JF, Fong TW. Psychometric properties of the Barratt Impulsiveness Scale in patients with gambling disorders, hypersexuality, and methamphetamine dependence. Addict Behav. 2014; 39(11):1640–5. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2013.11.008 PMID: 24314714.
- Gearhardt AN, Corbin WR, Brownell KD. Preliminary validation of the Yale Food Addiction Scale. Appetite. 2009; 52(2):430–6. Epub 2009/01/06. S0195-6663(08)00622-3 [pii]. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2008.12.003</u> PMID: 19121351.
- King JL, Fearnbach SN, Ramakrishnapillai S, Shankpal P, Geiselman PJ, Martin CK, et al. Perceptual Characterization of the Macronutrient Picture System (MaPS) for Food Image fMRI. Front Psychol. 2018; 9:17. Epub 2018/02/13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00017 PMID: 29434559; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5790788.
- Blechert J, Meule A, Busch NA, Ohla K. Food-pics: an image database for experimental research on eating and appetite. Front Psychol. 2014; 5:617. Epub 2014/07/11. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2014. 00617 PMID: 25009514; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC4067906.

- Geiselman PJ, Anderson AM, Dowdy ML, West DB, Redmann SM, Smith SR. Reliability and validity of a macronutrient self-selection paradigm and a food preference questionnaire. Physiol Behav. 1998; 63 (5):919–28. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0031-9384(97)00542-8 PMID: 9618017.
- Tang DW, Fellows LK, Small DM, Dagher A. Food and drug cues activate similar brain regions: a metaanalysis of functional MRI studies. Physiol Behav. 2012; 106(3):317–24. Epub 2012/03/28. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2012.03.009 PMID: 22450260.</u>
- Harris PA, Taylor R, Thielke R, Payne J, Gonzalez N, Conde JG. Research electronic data capture (REDCap)—a metadata-driven methodology and workflow process for providing translational research informatics support. J Biomed Inform. 2009; 42(2):377–81. Epub 2008/10/22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. jbi.2008.08.010 PMID: 18929686; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC2700030.
- Hertzog MA. Considerations in determining sample size for pilot studies. Res Nurs Health. 2008; 31 (2):180–91. Epub 2008/01/10. https://doi.org/10.1002/nur.20247 PMID: 18183564.
- Almiron-Roig E, Palla L, Guest K, Ricchiuti C, Vint N, Jebb SA, et al. Factors that determine energy compensation: a systematic review of preload studies. Nutrition Reviews. 2013; 71(7):458–73. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/nure.12048">https://doi.org/10.1111/nure.12048</a> PMID: 23815144
- Cassady BA, Considine RV, Mattes RD. Beverage consumption, appetite, and energy intake: what did you expect? Am J Clin Nutr. 2012; 95(3):587–93. Epub 2012/01/20. https://doi.org/10.3945/ajcn.111. 025437 PMID: 22258267; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3278240.
- Apolzan JW, Leidy HJ, Mattes RD, Campbell WW. Effects of food form on food intake and postprandial appetite sensations, glucose and endocrine responses, and energy expenditure in resistance trained v. sedentary older adults. The British journal of nutrition. 2011; 106(7):1107–16. Epub 2011/04/16. https:// doi.org/10.1017/S0007114511001310 PMID: 21492495.
- Leidy HJ, Apolzan JW, Mattes RD, Campbell WW. Food form and portion size affect postprandial appetite sensations and hormonal responses in healthy, nonobese, older adults. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2010; 18(2):293–9. Epub 2009/07/25. https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2009.217 PMID: 19629055.
- 40. De Castro JM. The effects of the spontaneous ingestion of particular foods or beverages on the meal pattern and overall nutrient intake of humans. Physiol Behav. 1993; 53(6):1133–44. Epub 1993/06/01. https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-9384(93)90370-u PMID: 8346296.
- Togo J, Hu S, Li M, Niu C, Speakman JR. Impact of dietary sucrose on adiposity and glucose homeostasis in C57BL/6J mice depends on mode of ingestion: liquid or solid. Mol Metab. 2019. Epub 2019/07/01. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molmet.2019.05.010 PMID: 31255519.
- Apolzan JW, Harris RB. Differential effects of chow and purified diet on the consumption of sucrose solution and lard and the development of obesity. Physiol Behav. 2012; 105(2):325–31. Epub 2011/09/ 07. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.physbeh.2011.08.023 PMID: 21893075; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3225510.
- Houchins JA, Burgess JR, Campbell WW, Daniel JR, Ferruzzi MG, McCabe GP, et al. Beverage vs. solid fruits and vegetables: effects on energy intake and body weight. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2012; 20 (9):1844–50. Epub 2011/07/02. https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2011.192 PMID: 21720441.
- 44. Campbell WW, Armstrong CLH, Mattes RD, Apolzan JW. Effects of Beverage vs. Solid Nutritional Supplements on Body Mass, Body Composition, and Energy Intake in Older Adults Who Were Either Untrained or Performed Resistance Exercise Training. Obesity (Silver Spring); November 2009; Washington D.C. 2009, p. S139–40.
- 45. Page KA, Chan O, Arora J, Belfort-Deaguiar R, Dzuira J, Roehmholdt B, et al. Effects of fructose vs glucose on regional cerebral blood flow in brain regions involved with appetite and reward pathways. JAMA: the journal of the American Medical Association. 2013; 309(1):63–70. Epub 2013/01/03. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2012.116975 PMID: 23280226.
- 46. Brownell KD, Farley T, Willett WC, Popkin BM, Chaloupka FJ, Thompson JW, et al. The public health and economic benefits of taxing sugar-sweetened beverages. N Engl J Med. 2009; 361(16):1599–605. Epub 2009/09/18. https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMhpr0905723 PMID: 19759377; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC3140416.
- Powell LM, Maciejewski ML. Taxes and Sugar-Sweetened Beverages. Jama. 2018; 319(3):229–30. Epub 2018/01/18. https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2017.19522 PMID: 29340686.
- Silver LD, Ng SW, Ryan-Ibarra S, Taillie LS, Induni M, Miles DR, et al. Changes in prices, sales, consumer spending, and beverage consumption one year after a tax on sugar-sweetened beverages in Berkeley, California, US: A before-and-after study. PLoS Med. 2017; 14(4):e1002283. Epub 2017/04/ 19. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1002283 PMID: 28419108; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5395172.
- 49. Taber DR, Dulin-Keita A, Fallon M, Chaloupka FJ, Andreyeva T, Schwartz MB, et al. Society of Behavioral Medicine (SBM) position statement: Enact taxes on sugar sweetened beverages to prevent chronic

disease. Transl Behav Med. 2019; 9(1):179–83. Epub 2018/04/13. https://doi.org/10.1093/tbm/iby035 PMID: 29648617.

- Bray GA, Popkin BM. Dietary sugar and body weight: have we reached a crisis in the epidemic of obesity and diabetes?: health be damned! Pour on the sugar. Diabetes Care. 2014; 37(4):950–6. Epub 2014/03/22. https://doi.org/10.2337/dc13-2085 PMID: 24652725.
- Malik VS. Sugar sweetened beverages and cardiometabolic health. Curr Opin Cardiol. 2017; 32 (5):572–9. Epub 2017/06/24. https://doi.org/10.1097/HCO.00000000000439 PMID: 28639973.
- Deshpande G, Mapanga RF, Essop MF. Frequent Sugar-Sweetened Beverage Consumption and the Onset of Cardiometabolic Diseases: Cause for Concern? J Endocr Soc. 2017; 1(11):1372–85. Epub 2017/12/22. https://doi.org/10.1210/js.2017-00262 PMID: 29264461; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC5686631.
- Pereira MA. Sugar-sweetened and artificially-sweetened beverages in relation to obesity risk. Adv Nutr. 2014; 5(6):797–808. Epub 2014/11/16. https://doi.org/10.3945/an.114.007062 PMID: 25398745; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC4224219.
- Allison DB. Liquid calories, energy compensation and weight: what we know and what we still need to learn. Br J Nutr. 2014; 111(3):384–6. Epub 2013/10/30. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114513003309 PMID: 24164833; PubMed Central PMCID: PMC4973863.