

1 **Weight loss-induced increase in fasting ghrelin concentration is a predictor of weight**
2 **regain: Evidence from the Diabetes Remission Clinical Trial (DiRECT)**

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4 Running title: Appetite-related predictors of weight regain in DiRECT

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51 **Aim:** To investigate whether appetite-related hormones were predictors of weight regain in the
52 Diabetes Remission Clinical Trial (DiRECT).

53 **Materials and methods:** DiRECT is a cluster-randomised clinical trial designed to assess the
54 effect of weight-loss on type 2 diabetes remission. For this *post hoc* analysis, data were
55 available for 253 (147 interventions, 106 controls) individuals with type 2 diabetes (aged
56 53.6 ± 7.5 years, BMI 34.7 ± 4.4 kg/m², 59% males). Intervention participants received a 24-
57 month weight-management programme and controls remained on usual diabetes care. Fasting
58 plasma concentrations of leptin, ghrelin, GLP-1, and PYY were measured at baseline, 12 and
59 24-months in all participants, and at 5-months in a subset of interventions (n=56) and controls
60 (n=22). Potential predictors were examined using multivariable linear regression models.

61 **Results:** The intervention group lost $14.3\pm 6.0\%$ body-weight at 5-months but regained over
62 time, with weight-losses of $10.0\pm 7.5\%$ at 12-months and $7.6\pm 6.3\%$ at 24-months. Weight-loss
63 in controls was $1.1\pm 3.7\%$ and $2.1\pm 5.0\%$ at 12 and 24-months, respectively. Body-weight
64 increased by 2.3% [95% CI: 0.4,4.1]; p=0.019) between 12 and 24-months for every 1 ng/ml
65 increase in ghrelin between baseline and 12-months, and weight regain between 12 and 24-
66 months was increased by 1.1% (95% CI: 0.2,2.0; p=0.023) body-weight for every 1 ng/ml
67 increase in ghrelin at 12-months.

68 **Conclusion:** The rise in ghrelin (but not any other measured hormone) during diet-induced
69 weight-loss was a predictor of weight regain during follow-up, and concentrations remained
70 elevated over time, suggesting a small but significant compensatory drive to regain weight.

71 Attenuating the effects of ghrelin may improve WLM.

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76 **Introduction**

77 Despite expert clinical guidelines and numerous drug therapies, type 2 diabetes substantially
78 reduces life expectancy (1) and is arguably the biggest concern with regards to the increasing
79 prevalence of overweight and obesity, which has become the norm in Western societies (2).
80 Encouragingly, 12-month results from the Diabetes Remission Clinical Trial (DiRECT)
81 demonstrated that short duration (<6 years) type 2 diabetes is reversible in 64% of people who
82 achieve weight-losses of 10kg (3), but clinical and economic benefits of remission are
83 dependent almost entirely on weight-losses being maintained (3, 4). Significant weight-loss is
84 possible across a range of dietary approaches (5), but the majority of people tend to regain
85 weight over time (6, 7), and in DiRECT we observed an average weight regain of 44% in
86 intervention participants between 5 and 24 months. Although weight-losses remained above
87 average for a behavioural intervention, rates of remission were reduced from 46% at 12-months
88 to 36% at 24-months (8).

89 Weight-loss maintenance is under researched (9), but the most difficult problem to tackle (10).
90 Weight regain after diet-induced weight-loss is considered to have a strong biological basis
91 (11, 12), and there appears to be distinct physiological differences in the mechanisms
92 regulating appetite, depending on whether an individual is at usual body weight or maintaining
93 weight-loss. The homeostatic control of food intake occurs primarily within the arcuate nucleus
94 of the hypothalamus, resulting from integration of hormonal signals from the gastrointestinal
95 tract (e.g. ghrelin, GLP-1, PYY) and adipose tissue (e.g. leptin) with each conveying
96 information regarding hunger, satiety and adiposity stores (13). It was reported in a landmark
97 trial by Sumithran et al that diet-induced weight-loss of 14% body weight was associated with
98 significant increases in the hunger hormone ghrelin and a reduction in satiety promoting
99 peptides (e.g. GLP-1, PYY), as well as increases in subjective appetite, changes which

100 persisted up to 1-year in the context of weight regain (14). These findings have been widely
101 interpreted as compensatory mechanisms encouraging weight regain, however this conclusion
102 remains somewhat speculative given that in this study (14) and others (15-17), correlations
103 between altered appetite hormones and weight regain were lacking. It is clear that appetite is a
104 strong biological driver of eating, or not eating (18) but whether appetite hormone changes are
105 simply a consequence of weight-loss, or a compensatory response opposing the maintenance
106 of lost weight requires further investigation in studies with larger sample sizes (19). The
107 objective of this *post-hoc* analysis of the DiRECT cohort was to investigate whether baseline,
108 post weight-loss, and within trial changes of several key appetite-related hormones (fasting
109 leptin, ghrelin, GLP-1, and PYY) were predictors of weight regain.

110 **Subjects and methods**

111 DiRECT was a cluster-randomised, clinical trial conducted within routine primary care
112 practice. Ethical approval was obtained from the West of Scotland Research Ethics Committee
113 (reference number: 13/WS/0314), and all participants provided written informed consent. The
114 trial was registered at Controlled-Trials www.controlled-trials.com/ISRCTN03267836. The
115 primary aim of the study was to assess the effect of weight-loss on type 2 diabetes remission,
116 with a target weight-loss of 15kg. The main inclusion criteria were type 2 diabetes diagnosed
117 <6 years, aged between 20-65 years, and body mass index of 27-45kg/m². Participants were
118 not recruited if they had achieved weight-losses of >5kg in the last 6 months or had serious
119 health problems (e.g. cancer, advanced kidney disease). The study protocol (20), recruitment
120 and baseline data (21) and primary outcome results have all been published (3, 8).

121 GP practices were randomised to intervention or control, and intervention participants received
122 the Counterweight-Plus weight management programme (22) delivered in their own GP
123 practice by the practice nurse or local dietitian. Briefly, weight-loss was initiated by ‘Total Diet

124 Replacement' which provided 825-853 kcal/day of liquid formula diet (shakes/soups) for
125 between 12-20 weeks during which time participants attended their practice nurse or dietitian
126 for fortnightly review. This was followed by reintroduction of food, which involved replacing
127 soups/shakes with calorie controlled meals and snacks over a 6-8 week period to meet energy
128 balance requirements. Monthly visits to support long term WLM were ongoing to 24-months.
129 Intervention group participants stopped all oral antidiabetes and antihypertensive drugs on
130 commencing the weight management programme. Diabetes management continued as per
131 current best practice clinical guidelines for control participants.

132 **Data collection**

133 For the purposes of this secondary analyses, weight (kg) and appetite hormone data from the
134 DiRECT database were obtained at baseline, 5, 12 and 24-months. Baseline, 5-months
135 (subgroup only), and 12-month fasting concentrations of plasma leptin, ghrelin, GLP-1 and
136 PYY and weight changes were examined to identify potential predictors of WLM at 12 and 24-
137 months in the majority of participants in the DiRECT study, and within a subgroup for whom
138 biochemical data was available at 5-months. The blood samples that were available at 5-months
139 for the study subgroup (56 intervention, 22 control) were obtained during food reintroduction
140 after the intensive low-calorie diet period had ended, and were collected primarily for detailed
141 metabolic studies to understand the mechanisms leading to type 2 diabetes remission, results
142 of which have been published (23).

143 **Appetite hormone measurements**

144 Venous blood samples were collected into EDTA vacuette tubes, centrifuged (4 °C, 2000g for
145 15 min), and stored at -80°C until analyses. Samples obtained from the Tyneside subgroup at
146 5-months had previously been defrosted and re-froze on one occasion. Fasting plasma leptin,
147 total ghrelin, total GLP-1 and total PYY were measured using the Meso Scale Discovery

148 human metabolic U-PLEX group assay (MSD, Rockville, MD), a multiplex assay kit, which
149 uses electrochemiluminescence detection technology to simultaneously quantify hormone
150 concentrations. All assays were performed according to manufacturers' instructions. The
151 median lower limits of detection of the assays was calculated as 0.65, 1.25, 0.15, and 0.49
152 pg/mL for leptin, ghrelin, GLP-1, and PYY, respectively. Intra-assay and inter-assay variation
153 were 7.2% and 10.7% respectively.

154 **Statistical analysis**

155 In this exploratory analysis, appetite hormones measured at baseline and 1-year, and changes
156 in their concentration from baseline to 5-month in the subgroup, and baseline to 12-months in
157 all participants were used to predict weight change. Weight change at the following time-points
158 was evaluated: baseline to 12-months, baseline to 24-months, 5 to 12-months, 5 to 24-months
159 and 12 to 24-months. Weight change during follow-up has been assessed from 5-months
160 onwards because weight-losses peaked around the end of TDR in the intervention group.
161 Changes in weight and appetite hormones were assessed by Wilcoxon signed rank tests, and
162 differences between intervention and controls by Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon tests. Potential
163 predictors of weight regain were investigated using multivariable linear regression models
164 adjusting for baseline weight, age, sex, treatment group (intervention or control) and the
165 stratification variables practice list size (≤ 5700 , > 5700) and study centre (Scotland, Tyneside)
166 and a random effect for practice. Models predicting weight change for study periods starting
167 after baseline additionally adjust for weight change from baseline to the start of the study period
168 analysed (e.g. models predicting weight change from 5 to 12 months adjust for weight change
169 from baseline to 5 months). Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$. All statistical analyses
170 have been carried out using R version 3.6.2.

171 **Results**

172 **Participants**

173 Participant characteristics for the DiRECT study have been published previously (21). In this
174 separate analysis, 253 participants (aged 53.6 ± 7.5 [mean \pm SD], BMI 34.7 ± 4.4 kg/m², 59%
175 male) were included (n=147 interventions, n=106 controls) and summary characteristics are
176 reported in Table 1. Blood sample data were available for 243 participants at baseline (n=144
177 interventions, n=99 controls), 219 participants at both baseline and 12-months (n=121
178 interventions, n=98 controls) and 201 participants at both baseline and 24-months (n=111
179 interventions, n=90 controls). Blood samples were also available at 5-months for a subgroup
180 of participants (n=56 intervention, n=22 controls).

181 **Changes in body weight and appetite-related hormones**

182 **Body weight**

183 For all participants, mean weight change is displayed within Figure 1 and individual variability
184 in weight change is shown in Figure 2. There were no significant differences in body-weight
185 between intervention and control groups at baseline ($p=0.470$) but differences in weight-
186 change from baseline to 12 and 24-months were highly significant ($p<0.001$). Mean (SD) body-
187 weight change at 5-months in the intervention group (n=128) following total diet replacement
188 and food reintroduction was 14.4 ± 6.8 kg/ 14.3 ± 6.0 % ($p<0.001$). Weight regain (n=123)
189 between 5 and 12-months was 3.4 ± 4.7 kg/ 4.1 ± 5.6 % ($p<0.001$), and 6.4 ± 5.8 kg/ 7.7 ± 6.8 %
190 ($p<0.001$) between 5 and 24-months, representing a regain of 24% and 44% of the initial body
191 weight-loss, respectively. Overall, in the intervention group weight-loss at 12-months was
192 10.1 ± 8.0 kg/ 10.0 ± 7.6 % ($p<0.001$) with a mean weight regain of 2.6 ± 5.1 kg/ 3.1 ± 5.6 % ($p<0.001$)
193 between year 1 and 2. On average, control participants lost 1.1 ± 3.6 kg/ 1.1 ± 3.7 % ($p=0.003$) at
194 12-months and 2.1 ± 5.2 kg/ 2.1 ± 5.0 % ($p<0.001$) at 24-months.

195 **Appetite-related hormones**

196 Baseline and within-trial changes in fasting appetite hormones are displayed in Figure 1 for the
197 intervention and control groups. At baseline there were no significant differences in any of the
198 plasma hormone concentrations between intervention and control groups. For intervention
199 participants, weight-losses at 12 and 24-months were associated with significant reductions in
200 leptin (12m, $p<0.001$; 24m $p=0.002$) and GLP-1 ($p<0.001$ at 12 and 24m), and ghrelin
201 increased ($p<0.001$ at 12 and 24m) in comparison to baseline. The reduction in PYY was not
202 significant at 12 ($p=0.057$) or 24-months ($p=0.428$). In the control group, at 12 and 24-months
203 leptin did not change significantly from baseline but increases were observed in ghrelin
204 ($p<0.001$), PYY ($p<0.001$) and GLP-1 ($p<0.001$). In the intervention group, leptin increased
205 ($p=0.011$) between 12 and 24-months in correlation with weight regain, and in controls ghrelin
206 increased ($p=0.003$) in association with a small mean weight-loss ($1.0\pm 4.2\text{kg}/1.0\pm 4.2\%$;
207 $p=0.038$) but other peptide levels remained stable. Baseline concentrations and within trial
208 hormone changes did not have any associations with change in glycaemic control or diabetes
209 remission status (data not shown).

210 *Subgroup analyses*

211 In the intervention subgroup, weight-loss at 5-months was associated with significant reduction
212 in fasting plasma concentration of leptin ($p<0.001$) and GLP-1 ($p<0.001$) and significant
213 increase in ghrelin ($p=0.002$) but PYY remained similar ($p=0.098$). In the control subgroup, at
214 5-months leptin concentration was reduced ($p=0.009$) in association with modest weight loss
215 but concentrations of other hormones were not different from baseline. Figures displaying
216 subgroup data are contained within the online appendix.

217 **Predictors of weight regain**

218 Baseline and within-trial hormone predictors of weight change are summarised in Table 2.
219 There was a 2.3% (95% CI: 0.4, 4.1; $p=0.019$) increase in body-weight between 12 and 24-

220 months for every 1 ng/ml increase in ghrelin between baseline and 12-months, and for every 1
221 ng/ml increase in leptin, body-weight increased by 0.5% (95% CI: 0.140, 0.835; p=0.007).
222 Changes in concentration of GLP-1 and PYY between baseline and 12-months were not
223 significant predictors of weight regain. Weight regain at 24-months was increased by 1.1%
224 (95% CI: 0.2, 2.0; p=0.023) body weight for every 1 ng/ml increase in ghrelin at 12-months.
225 No other predictors at 12-months were identified. In a subgroup of participants (n=56
226 intervention, n=22 controls) for whom blood samples were available for at 5-months, changes
227 in appetite hormones between baseline and 5-months were not predictive of weight change at
228 12 or 24-months.

229 **Discussion**

230 Characterising the potential role of appetite hormones in the weight-reduced state is an
231 important research objective given that they represent potential targets for anti-obesity
232 treatments (24). After diet-induced weight-loss, appetite hormones change in a direction that
233 seems to favour increased hunger and reduced satiety, but in the absence of evidence
234 correlating these changes with weight regain, the significance of these changes has remained
235 unclear. In this large cluster-randomised trial, the increase in fasting ghrelin that was observed
236 alongside weight change between baseline and 12-months was a predictor of weight regain
237 between 12 and 24 months, lending some support to the widely held view that hormonal
238 adaptations oppose long-term WLM. Concentration of ghrelin at 12-months also predicted
239 subsequent weight regain. Although effect sizes were modest and explain only a small
240 proportion of weight regain, attenuating the sustained rise in ghrelin in response to weight-loss
241 may have therapeutic benefit, the extent to which is likely mediated by the wide individual
242 variability in hormonal responses to weight-loss.

243 Ghrelin is the only gut hormone known to increase food intake and correlates with subjective
244 hunger (25). Ghrelin stimulates food intake by activating neurons within the hypothalamic
245 arcuate nucleus which co-express agouti-related protein (AgRP) and neuropeptide-Y (NPY),
246 both of which are potent appetite stimulating peptides (24). In this study, fasting ghrelin
247 increased by >40% in the intervention group following a 10% body weight-loss at 12-months
248 and this increase was sustained to 24-months even in the context of weight regain. In the control
249 group modest weight-loss between baseline and 24-months led to ghrelin levels matching those
250 in the intervention group suggesting that ghrelin is highly responsive to even small weight-
251 losses. Ghrelin appears more sensitive to weight change than satiety peptides, which were
252 reduced in intervention participants but increased in controls throughout. Although increases
253 in fasting ghrelin and subjective hunger after weight-loss have been reported by several
254 research groups, significant correlations with weight regain have generally been lacking (14-
255 17, 19, 26). It is possible that elevations in ghrelin reflect changes in adiposity and a
256 normalisation of the ghrelin profile since it negatively correlates with body mass index in
257 people with and without type 2 diabetes (19, 27), however in the context of the available
258 evidence we believe it is more likely that changes represent a compensatory drive to regain
259 weight. The effects of increasing circulating ghrelin have been established, with significant
260 increases in appetite and food intake observed in healthy individuals with and without obesity
261 (28), as well as people with cancer and loss of appetite (29). Therapeutic strategies aimed at
262 neutralising or blocking ghrelin activity remains a target for obesity treatments and promising
263 preclinical trials show that inhibiting ghrelin O-acyltransferase, the enzyme responsible for
264 acylating ghrelin (and therefore its hunger promoting effects), may have potential for reducing
265 energy intake and body weight (30).

266 Despite important roles in maintaining energy homeostasis, we did not find evidence that
267 changes in satiety hormones after weight-loss contribute to weight regain, and several

268 explanations are possible. In the weight-reduced state the brain is more sensitive to hunger
269 signals than satiety (11), and satiety results from the cumulative action of several appetite
270 hormones (31) making GLP-1, PYY and leptin less likely to be singularly predictive. In
271 addition, our analyses were restricted to the fasting period, though effects of satiety hormones
272 are greatest following a meal. Although not the ‘gold standard’ in appetite research, fasting
273 measurements may have value in predicting treatment outcomes (32) and evidence suggests
274 fasting and postprandial appetite hormones are positively correlated, in particular for ghrelin
275 (33). Despite the lack of evidence implicating GLP-1 and PYY in weight regain, clear
276 differences between intervention and control participants were evident, consequent to weight-
277 loss. GLP-1 was surprisingly increased in controls but significantly reduced at 12 and 24-
278 months in the intervention group. The reduction in PYY observed in intervention participants
279 at 12-months did not reach statistical significance, but like GLP-1, in the subgroup there is a
280 suggestion that changes would have been greater at 5-months (see online appendix). Fasting
281 GLP-1 (14, 34, 35) and PYY (14, 36, 37) concentrations are usually reduced after weight-loss,
282 though sometimes levels are unchanged (30). No effects were found to support the role of
283 fasting GLP-1 or PYY in predicting weight regain, in agreement with other studies
284 investigating fasting and postprandial response (17, 19). An unresolved question relates to the
285 relevance of appetite hormones in the weight-reduced state. The circulating blood levels of
286 hormones may not necessarily reflect the concentrations that reach brain neurons, or their
287 physiological activities (38). Some, such as leptin, require an active transport mechanism to
288 enter the brain, which may be subject to other influences. As a result, one should not rule out
289 the possibility that changes in satiety hormones may indeed have an effect on WLM, however
290 our results suggest that at best, only small effects carrying little clinical implication would be
291 identified in any future studies with larger numbers.

292 As expected, leptin reduced after weight-loss and increased with regain, reflecting changes in
293 adiposity (39). Although regressions were corrected for changes in body weight, a higher
294 increase in leptin between baseline and 12-months was a predictor of regain 12-24 months. The
295 reasons for this finding are unclear but could be related to changes in body composition, though
296 this cannot be verified and requires further investigation.

297 Weight regain is multi-factorial and the overarching message of this paper is not to diminish
298 the role played by other non-homeostatic factors, which may be of equal or even greater
299 importance. The ‘voluntary choice’ versus ‘biological determinism’ debate regarding food
300 intake is interesting from an academic perspective (40), but in practice, behaviour results from
301 interactions between biology, environment and psychosocial factors. Our findings may have
302 practical implications for WLM. Despite an apparent biological response opposing WLM,
303 weight regain should not be viewed as inevitable (41), and behavioural interventions may
304 benefit from drawing on specific strategies known to have benefit in modifying appetite.
305 Carbohydrate appears to be the most effective macronutrient in suppressing ghrelin due to
306 postprandial insulin and glucose release whereas fat has a weak effect (42), and higher protein
307 meals are more satiating and help to attenuate postprandial rises in ghrelin (43), possibly
308 mediated by increasing concentrations of satiety peptides (44). People consume food by weight
309 or volume so counselling individuals to incorporate more low-energy dense foods (e.g. soups,
310 vegetables, fruits, legumes) helps to increase meal size whilst reducing hunger and energy
311 intake (45). Physical activity is ineffective as a stand-alone weight-loss intervention but is an
312 important WLM strategy (46). This may be explained partly because exercise acutely
313 suppresses ghrelin, and increases GLP-1 and PYY (47), actions which reduce appetite and
314 energy intake and do not seem to stimulate compensatory eating above the energy expended,
315 as is often believed (48).

316 There are several limitations to this study. We focussed on the ‘central players’ involved in
317 appetite regulation but many other hormones (38, 49) and pathways are involved in WLM,
318 such as changes in energy expenditure (50), and may have provided additional insights. This
319 is an exploratory analysis, the study was not designed to investigate the relationship between
320 WLM and appetite hormone changes. Studies specifically designed to investigate the
321 relationship between appetite hormones and weight changes may provide more definitive
322 answers, and would enable subjective appetite measurements to be collected, though their
323 reliability has been questioned (51). Biochemical measurements were undertaken using
324 validated methods but multi-plex assays may provide less accurate and precise measurements
325 when compared with optimised assays for individual hormones but low inter and intra-assay
326 variation was re-assuring. It would have been beneficial to have had blood samples available
327 for the full study cohort at 5-months but data available at this time-point for the subgroup are
328 indicative of the changes that take place in response to weight-loss (interventions) and relative
329 stability (controls). Finally, it was not possible to obtain postprandial samples and therefore
330 analyses were restricted to fasting only measurements.

331 This study provides some further important evidence to the hypothesis that compensatory
332 changes in appetite hormones contribute to weight regain following diet-induced weight-loss.
333 The rise in ghrelin that was observed in response to weight-loss remained elevated over time
334 and predicted weight regain during follow-up. Although effect sizes are modest, attenuating
335 the rise in ghrelin during diet-induced weight loss may improve long-term WLM outcomes.
336 With a large sample size, inclusion of a control group and follow-up over a 2-year period,
337 results from this dataset build on previous studies and shed new light on the relevance of
338 appetite hormone changes for WLM.

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346 **Conflict of interest**

347 GT reports funding of PhD fees and conference expenses from Cambridge Weight Plan. WSL
348 reports conference expenses from Cambridge Weight Plan. ACB reports lecture fees from
349 Novo Nordisk and Napp Pharmaceuticals. NB was previously employed by Counterweight Ltd
350 and reports personal fees for freelance work and shareholdings from Counterweight Ltd and
351 funding of PhD fees and conference attendance from Cambridge Weight Plan. LM was
352 previously employed by Counterweight Ltd and reports research funding from Cambridge
353 Weight Plan and consultancy fees from Counterweight Ltd. NS reports research grants and
354 speaker's honoraria from Boehringer Ingelheim and speaker's honoraria from Amgen,
355 AstraZeneca, Eli Lilly, Janssen, Napp Pharmaceuticals, Novo Nordisk, and Sanofi. RT reports
356 educational lecture fees from Eli Lilly and Novartis and advisory board fees from Wilmington
357 Healthcare. MEJL reports research grants and personal fees for lecturing and consultancy from
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359 authors declare no competing interests.

360

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541 **Table 1:** Baseline characteristics

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	Intervention group (n=147)	Control group (n=106)	Intervention subgroup (n=56)	Control subgroup (n=22)
Sex:				
Male	82 (56%)	67 (63%)	31 (55%)	13 (59%)
Female	65 (44%)	39 (37%)	25 (45%)	9 (41%)
Age	52.9±7.5	54.6±7.4	53.1±7.4	54.2±7.8
Weight (kg)	101.1±16.8	99.0±14.8	101.6±17.2	95.9±10.3
BMI (kg/m ²)	35.1±4.6	34.2±4.2	35.4±4.7	33.5±3.5

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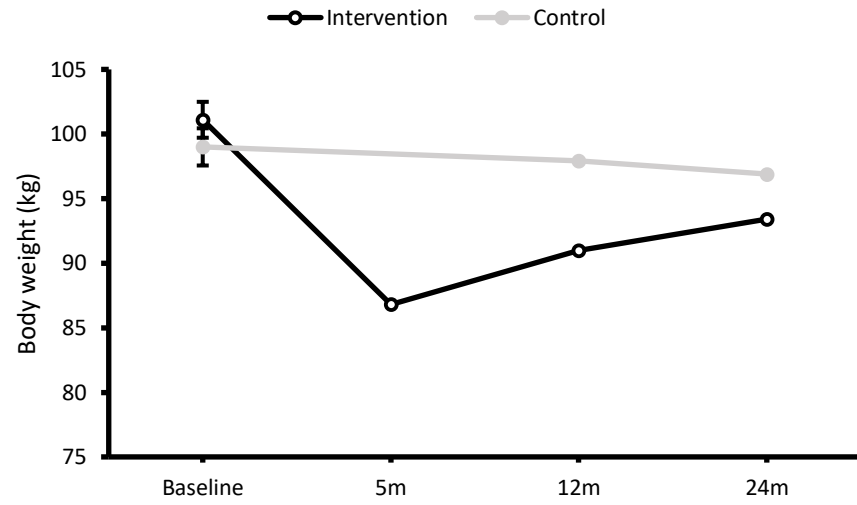
545 **Table 2:** Baseline and within-trial predictors (leptin, ghrelin, GLP-1 and PYY) of weight change (%)

	Weight change effect (β , 95% CI) 5-12 months	Weight change effect (β , 95% CI) 5-24 months	Weight change effect (β , 95% CI) 12-24 months
Baseline leptin	0.150 (-0.218 , 0.541) ; p=0.446	0.047 (-0.382 , 0.458) ; p=0.830	-0.021 (-0.284 , 0.241) ; p=0.875
Δ Leptin 0-5 months*	0.329 (-0.386 , 1.044) ; p=0.394	0.662 (0.007 , 1.317) ; p=0.065	n/a
Δ Leptin 0-12 months	n/a	n/a	0.488 (0.140 , 0.835) ; p=0.007
12 month leptin	n/a	n/a	0.253 (-0.006 , 0.512) ; p=0.061
Baseline ghrelin	-0.264 (-1.861 , 1.507) ; p=0.756	0.778 (-0.947 , 2.664) ; p=0.401	0.985 (-0.262 , 2.232) ; p=0.129
Δ Ghrelin 0-5 months*	-2.534 (-7.407 , 2.338) ; p=0.336	0.749 (-4.048 , 5.546) ; p=0.772	n/a
Δ Ghrelin 0-12 months	n/a	n/a	2.276 (0.417 , 4.134) ; p=0.019
12 month ghrelin	n/a	n/a	1.109 (0.178 , 2.040) ; p=0.023
Baseline GLP-1	0.029 (-0.087 , 0.141) ; p=0.620	0.050 (-0.076 , 0.172) ; p=0.440	-0.033 (-0.105 , 0.040) ; p=0.389
Δ GLP-1 0-5 months*	-0.013 (-0.254 , 0.228) ; p=0.921	-0.088 (-0.321 , 0.145) ; p=0.482	n/a
Δ GLP-1 0-12 months	n/a	n/a	0.021 (-0.052 , 0.093) ; p=0.583
12 month GLP-1	n/a	n/a	-0.009 (-0.090 , 0.072) ; p=0.826
Baseline PYY	-9.737 (-34.007 , 15.697) ; p=0.450	7.019 (-19.974 , 35.096) ; p=0.624	4.538 (-11.368 , 20.445) ; p=0.583
Δ PYY 0-5 months*	-28.592 (-66.560 , 9.377) ; p=0.166	-12.927 (-48.904 , 23.050) ; p=0.506	n/a
Δ PYY 0-12 months	n/a	n/a	-9.666 (-27.234 , 7.903) ; p=0.291
12 month PYY	n/a	n/a	-2.157 (-17.862 , 13.547) ; p=0.792

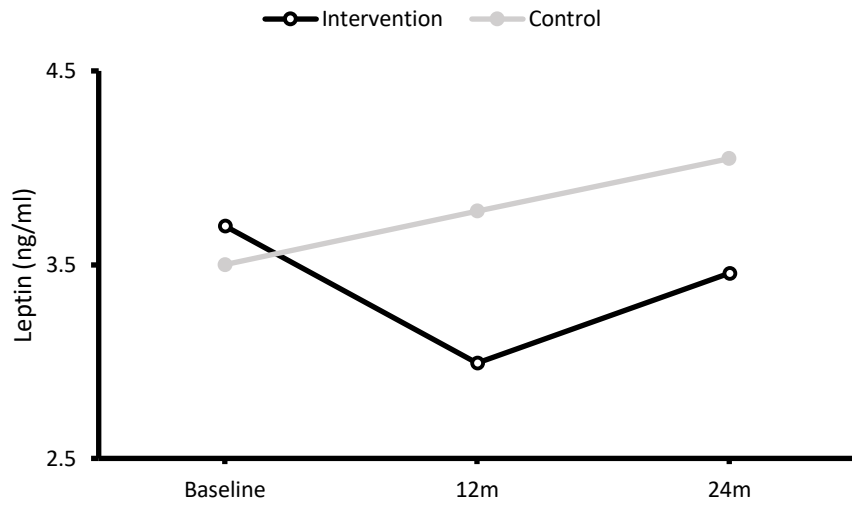
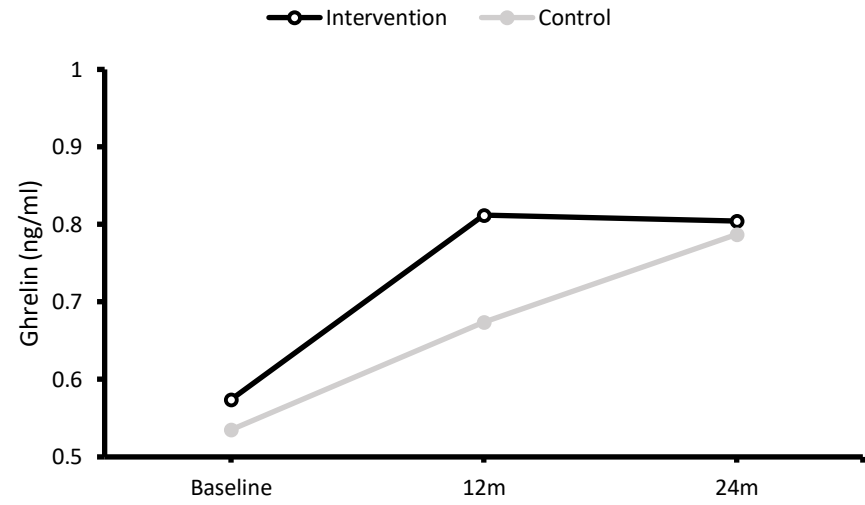
546 GLP-1, glucagon like-peptide 1; PYY, peptide YY. *Hormone change between 0-5 months is for the subgroup only.

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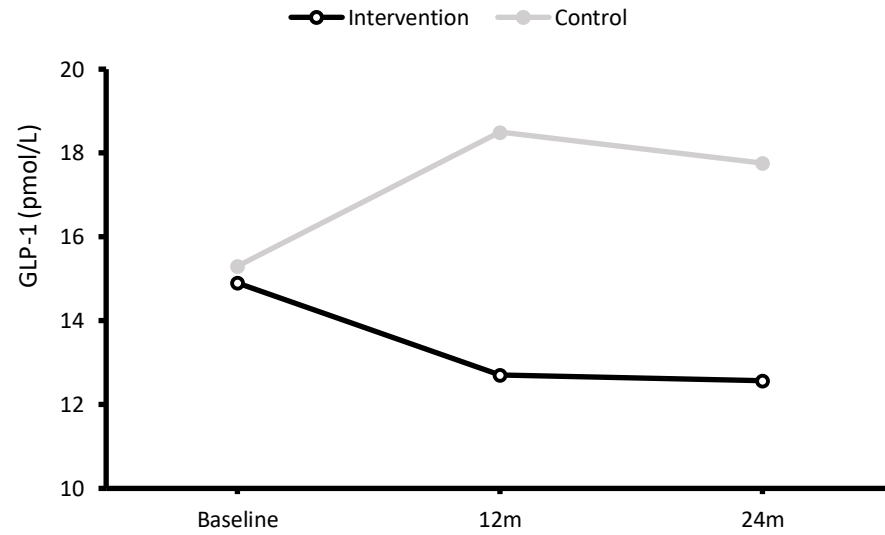
548 Results are presented as regression coefficients (β) and 95% CI for multivariate regression analyses of weight change between 5-12, 5-24 and 12-24 months
 549 after adjusting for age, sex, treatment group (intervention or control) and weight change between 0-5 months for the 5-12 and 5-24 month predictions, and
 550 weight change 0-12 months for 12-24 month predictions. Positive values indicate weight gain and negative values indicate weight loss for weight change effects.
 551 Statistically significant findings are shown in bold.

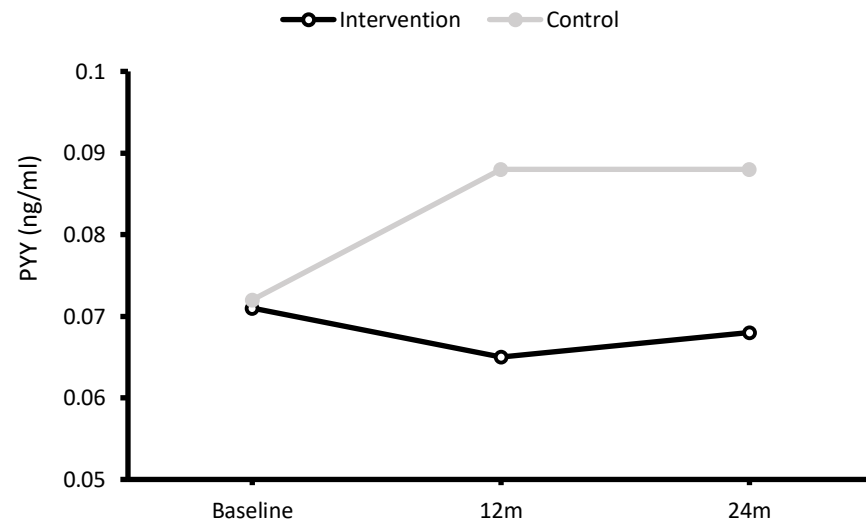


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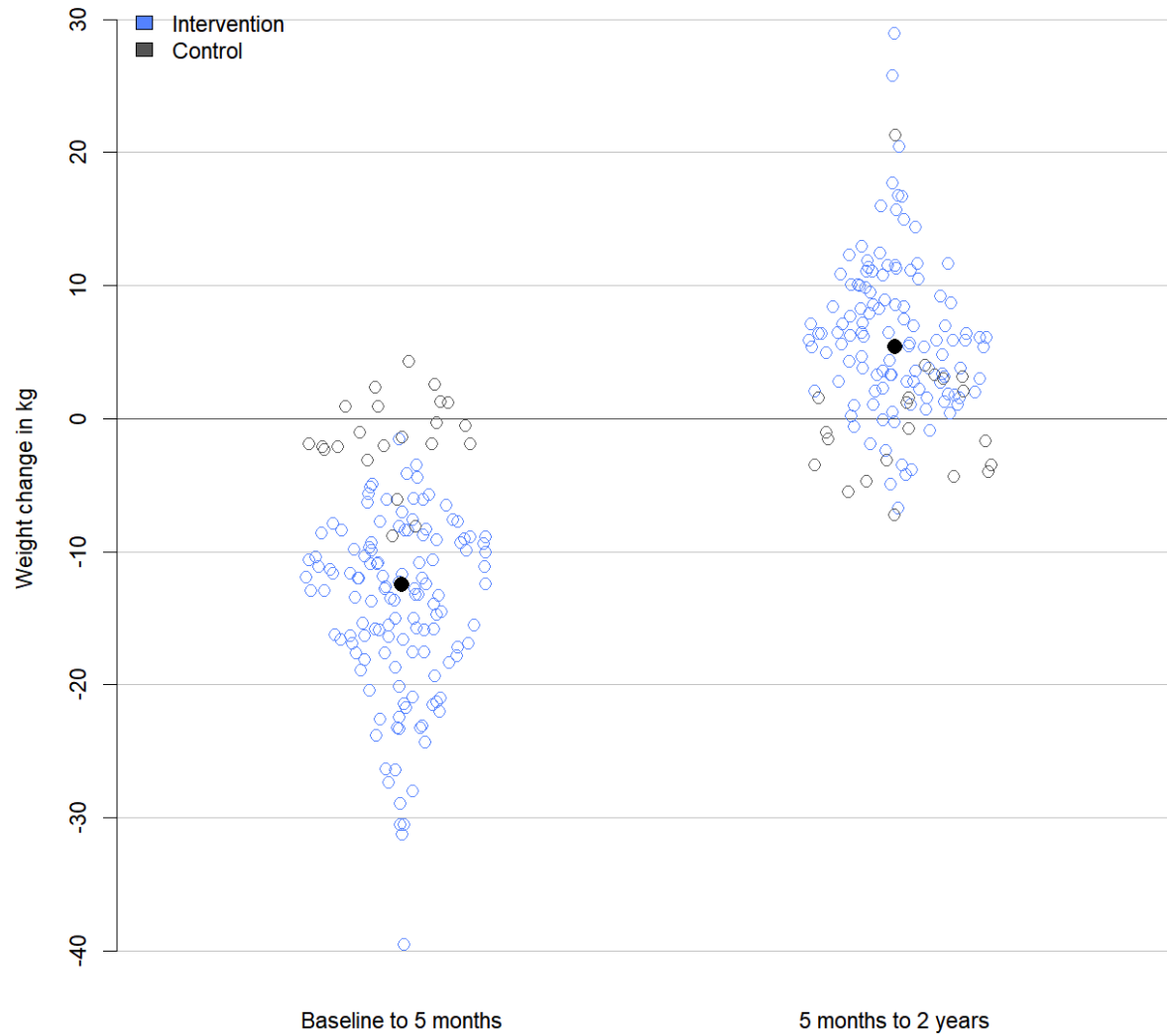
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Figure 1: Baseline and within trial changes of body-weight and appetite-related hormones for intervention and control groups in DiRECT
Martina/Alasdair are working on figures with error bars - to be added later.



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Figure 2: Individual variability in weight-loss between baseline and 5-months and between 5 and 24-months for the intervention and control groups.