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Effects of Carboxymethyl-Lysine in Heat Processed Foods on the Plasma Metabolome in Mice

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EFFECTS OF CARBOXYMETHYL-LYSINE IN HEAT PROCESSED FOODS ON

THE PLASMA METABOLOME IN MICE

by

Zhou Fang

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

in

Nutrition and Food Sciences

Approved:

Robert E. Ward Korry Hintze

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> > 2016

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ABSTRACT

Effects of Carboxymethyl-lysine in Heat Processed Foods on

the Plasma Metabolome in Mice

by

Zhou Fang, Master of Science Utah State University, 2016

Major Professor: Dr. Robert E. Ward Department: Nutrition Dietetics and Food Sciences

The effect of dietary carboxymethyl-lysine (CML) on the metabolite profile of plasma was investigated. Mice were fed one of five diets including: AIN93 diet (negative control), a 45% kcal from fat Diet Induced Obesity diet (DIO; positive control); CML0, Total Western Diet (TWD) with low CML; CML1, TWD with medium CML, and CML2, TWD with high CML. In addition, plasma glucose across the five diet groups was also quantitatively measured in this study.

According to the results, 93 compounds were detected in the mouse plasma samples using Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS). Among all 93 detected compounds, 49 of them were amino acids, fatty acids, organic acids, or other organic molecules, while 44 of them could not be identified and were considered to be "unknowns". Four identified metabolites and 10 unknown metabolites were significantly

different between the five diets. In addition, only one metabolite, lactic acid, was significantly different between the three CML diets. A principal component analysis (PCA) showed a clear separation of the CML2 diet, or the diet high in CML, from the other diets along the second principal component. The DIO and AIN93 diets were mostly separated by the third principal component. In addition, both PC1 and PC 3 affected CML0 and CML2.

Overall, the metabolic profile of plasma was affected by the amount of CML in diet more than the differences between diets. However, further study is warranted to elucidate the specific mechanisms involved in the changes to the metabolome.

(65 pages)

PUBLIC ABSTRACT

Effects of Carboxymethyl-lysine in Heat Processed Foods on

the Plasma Metabolome in Mice

Zhou Fang

Carboxymethyl-lysine (CML), an advanced glycation end product (AGEs), is formed during the cooking process and may induce toxic effects on human health. The effect of dietary CML on the plasma metabolite profile was investigated. Mice were fed with one of five different diets: AIN93 diet (negative control), a 45% kcal from fat Diet Induced Obesity diet (DIO; positive control); CML0, TWD (Total Western Diet) with low CML; CML1, TWD with medium CML, and CML2, TWD with high CML for 8 weeks, and the plasma metabolome was determined by Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS). In addition quantitative analysis of plasma glucose level across the five diet groups was also measured using internal standard.

In the mouse plasma samples 93 compounds were detected using GC-MS. Among all 93 detected compounds, 49 of them were identified, while 44 of them could not be identified and are considered as unknowns. Four identified metabolites and 10 unknown metabolites were significantly different between the five diets. Only one metabolite, lactic acid, was significantly different between three CML diets. A principal component analysis

(PCA) provided a clear separation of CML2 diet from the others. The DIO and AIN93 diets were mostly separated by PC3. Both PC1 and PC 3 affected CML0 and CML2. Glucose levels did not differ, however, CML0, CML1, and CML2 groups did showed higher glucose levels (CML0: 107.91 mg/dL, CML1: 108.46 mg/d, and CML2: 105.61 mg/dL) compared to AIN93 (104.85 mg/dL) and DIO (105.31 mg/dL).

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Zhou Fang

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Literature Review

Maillard Browning

Maillard reaction, which is also known as nonenzymatic browning or glycation, is the result of the reaction between a reducing sugar and a free amino group of a protein, or nucleic acid. Figure 1 shows a general overview of the Maillard reaction.

Figure 1. The pathways of Maillard reaction (Nursten, 2005).

The carbonyl group of the aldose sugar reacts with the amino group of the amino acid to form N-substituted glycosylamine and water. Then glycosylamine undergoes amadori rearrangement, forming ketosamine, which is also known as amadori rearrangement product (ARP). The ketosamine then either dehydrates into reductones and dehydro reductones, or results in short chain hydrolytic fission products such as acetol, diacetyl, or pyruvaldehyde which then undergo the strecker degradation (Nursten, 2005).

Maillard reaction has an important role in food chemistry because of its unique contribution to form specific flavors and colors to foods (Waller & Feather, 1983). However, it may also lead to some toxic byproducts and can decrease the nutritional value of foods by degrading essential amino acids, such as lysine. Maillard reaction products (MRPs) usually are classified into three groups: early MRPs, advanced MRPs (also known as AGEs) and melanoidins (Furniss, Vuichoud, Finot, & Hurrell, 1989).

Advanced Glycation Endproducts

Advanced glycation end products (AGEs) are a complex group of compounds that are produced through the Maillard reaction. AGEs are also known as glycotoxins, which occur both exogenously in food and endogenously in the body (Foerster & Henle, 2003). In addition, AGEs naturally exist in uncooked animal-derived foods, and the formation of AGEs exists in all types of cooking, such as boiling, baking, and frying (Assar, Moloney,

Lima, Magee, & Ames, 2009). Modern diets are largely heat processed. These diets are potentially leading to the formation of high levels of AGEs (Uribarri et al., 2010). Dietary advanced glycation end products (dAGEs) are known as an important source of the total AGEs in the human body, which contribute to the risk of developing the increased oxidant stress and inflammation (Uribarri et al., 2005). The formation of AGEs is a part of normal metabolism, but if the content of AGEs are excessively high in tissues or the circulation they have possibilities to become pathogenic, which may cause the development and progression of chronic diseases, such as diabetes, Alzheimer's disease, cancer and aging (Vlassara H, 1994). Due to this fact, the scientific interest in AGEs has increased in recent years. N-carboxymethyl-lysine (CML) is one of the well-characterized AGEs that typically is measured in these investigations (Bosch et al., 2007). Some AGEs such as CML can be also formed via lipid peroxidation (Kanner, 2007).

In modern Western diets, there is a wide range of food products that are exposed to cooking or other heated processes to gain some sensory properties and to enhance food safety. The formation of AGEs is related to temperature used in products processing and methods of cooking applied as well as the nutrient composition of foods (Assar et al., 2009). Fats or meat-derived foods cooked under high temperature lead to more AGEs formation than carbohydrates boiled for a longer cooking time (Yamagishi, Ueda, & Okuda, 2007). Uribarri and et al, found using high temperature for cooking, such as frying,

broiling, grilling, and roasting foods produced a higher level of dAGEs compared to low or mild temperature, such as boiling, stewing, and steaming foods (Uribarri et al., 2010). Microwaving and dry heat cooking for short times had no significant effect on the formation of dAGEs. Hull et al (Hull, Woodside, Ames, & Cuskelly, 2012) found dairy products to have an extremely high CML concentration (5143.7 mg/kg protein) compared with the other foods products, such as bread (178.4 mg/kg protein) and cereals (281.3 mg/kg protein).

Dietary AGEs, Animal Studies

Animal studies have shown that high intakes of AGEs result in increased plasma levels of CML, carboxyethyllysine, and pentosidine. Dietary consumption of AGEs also significantly increased the renal excretion of CML compared with a diet with a lower AGE load (Somoza et al., 2005). In addition, rats fed high AGEs diets gained more weight and had higher liver, heart, kidney, and lung weights. Moreover, rats on AGE-rich diets showed signs of increased lipid peroxidation. Another mouse study showed that a high-fat, high-AGE diet increased plasma AGE levels and significantly increased body weight. Mice consuming the high AGE diet also had higher fasting glucose and fasting insulin and developed diabetes (Sandu et al., 2005).

Dietary AGEs, Human Studies

Some human studies also have been conducted to study the effect of dAGEs. It has been revealed that consumption of diets rich in AGEs results in significantly higher plasma AGEs levels (increased by 64.5% , $p = 0.02$) and increased mediators (tumor necrosis factor α, IL-1β, IL-6, and vascular adhesion molecule) of vascular dysfunction (Vlassara et al., 2002). In another study, 21 healthy volunteers were assigned for one week to consume either a heated or an unheated high protein diet (3 g/kg/day) with a 1 week wash-out period in between. The heated and unheated diets were comparable in regard of protein, carbohydrate, and energy intake. Daily CML intake of the heated diet was much higher than unheated diet group which was almost negligible. The results of this study showed that the fasting serum CML level and urinary excretion significantly increased on the heated diet group compared to unheated diet control In addition, volunteers on the heated diet gained more weight than the unheated diet group (Šebeková & Somoza, 2007).

Determining the content of AGEs and finding methods to reduce the content of AGEs during food processing is becoming important to food and nutritional scientists. However, not many studies have investigated AGEs, and there are few reports in the literature concerning the effect of food processing on AGEs formation.

Total Western Diet

Many studies using rodent models have investigated the effect of AGEs on health. The diets used in most of these studies, however, does not accurately reflect the American diet pattern which contains high calories and a suboptical micronutrient profile. Thus, Dr. Ward and colleagues developed a new diet, Total Western Diet (TWD), which matches the macronutrient and micronutrient profile of American Diets (Hintze, Benninghoff, & Ward, 2012). Compared to diets used in previous studies, the TWD has a higher content of sugar and fat, which likely favors the formation of AGEs with heat treatment. Moreover, TWD contains low levels of some micronutrients, such as thiamin, choline, vitamin D, and vitamin K, which may exacerbate the pathological effects of ingested AGEs.

Effect of Heat Processing Foods on Protein Digestibility

Although the Maillard reaction is important in food chemistry, such as giving foods color and flavor, it may also form toxic by-products and reduce the nutritive value of protein by degrading essential amino acids. And the loss of protein value includes a reduced protein digestibility and biological value (Oste, Dahlqvist, Sjoestroem, Noren, & Miller, 1986).

Seiquer (Seiquer et al., 2006) conducted a crossover trial to investigate the effect of diets rich in MRP on protein digestibility in adolescent males. They found that higher intakes of MRP negatively affects protein digestibility. Compared with control group, a

higher fecal nitrogen excretion and lower absorption of nitrogen were detected in high MRP diet group.

Fasting Glucose and Insulin Sensitivity

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) currently is the most prevalent type of diabetes and it is considered to be influenced by the intake of dietary AGE (Ames, 2007). The association between dietary AGE and diabetes has caught the attention of scientists and several studies have been conducted to investigate the role of dietary AGEs in T2DM etiology. Recent studies have demonstrated that dietary patterns have a correlationare to insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome (Kellow, Coughlan, Savige, & Reid, 2014). The Western dietary pattern which is considered to contain a significantly higher frequency of processed food is found to be associated with a higher risk of insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome (Esmaillzadeh et al., 2007). Birlouez-Aragon fed 62 human volunteers with either a high or a low CML diet for 1 month in a randomized, crossover experimental design. Diet with high-heat treatment significantly reduced insulin sensitivity, plasma concentration of vitamins C and E, and omega-3 fatty acids (Birlouez-Aragon et al., 2010).

Typically rodent studies with CML have been conducted with either a chow or a high fat diet background. However, these diets are not accurately representative of the US dietary pattern, and may miss possible interactions of the dietary pattern with CML and

T2D development. In the Ward Lab, an investigation into the metabolic effects of CML on the TWD background diet was conducted. Mice were randomly assigned to one of five experimental diets and feeding for 8 weeks ($n = 10$ mice/diet group). These diets included the AIN93 diet (negative control), a 45% kcal from fat Diet Induced Obesity diet (DIO; positive control); CML0, TWD with low CML; CML1, TWD with medium CML, and CML2, TWD with high CML. Figure 2 showed the content of CML in CML0, CML1 and CML2 compared to a human study (Birlouez-Aragon et al., 2010) and an animal study (Somoza et al., 2006). At week 6 and 8 of feeding process, oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) and insulin tolerance test (ITT) were performed. After 8 weeks of feeding, mice were euthanized via carbon dioxide. Plasma, liver, gastrocnemius muscle, epididymal adipose tissue, cecal contents, colon, ileum, duodenum, and jejenum were collected for further studies.

Figure 2. CML content in the AIN, DIO, CML0 (TWD low), CML1 (TWD med), and CML2 (TWD high) diets compared to previous human and rat studies. The comparison was based on the amount of total CML in the diets divided by the calorie content of the diets.

An OGTT was administered at weeks 6 of feeding. Figure 3A shows the fasting glucose levels in mice prior to the OGTT. Mice fed the CML2 diet had the highest fasting glucose compared to other four diets, and there were significant differences between the CML2 diet and CML1 and AIN93 diets ($p < 0.05$). In Figure 3B the area under the curve (AUC) for the OGTT is shown. This analysis indicates the CML2 diet led to significantly better glucose metabolism compared to the DIO diet. In a second analysis, the statistical comparisons were limited to the three CML diets as they are identical with the exception that the CML1 and CML2 diets had increased the level of CML compared to the CML0

diet. In Figure 3C it is clear that high CML diet was associated with a higher fasting glucose. In Figure 3D the incremental AUC is shown for the CML diets. Incremental AUC normalizes the OGTT to the fasting glucose level. Interestingly, this analysis indicates that dietary CML appears to simultaneously increase fasting glucose and increase glucose sensitivity.

Figure 3. Fasting glucose (A), area under the curve (AUC) for the oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT; B) for all five diet groups. Fasting glucose (C) and incremental AUC (D) for the mice fed the TWD with increasing levels of CML*.*

Figure 4. Fasting glucose (A) and area under the curve (AUC) for the insulin tolerance test (ITT; B) for all five diet groups. Fasting glucose (C) and incremental AUC (D) for mice fed the TWD diets with different CML levels.

An ITT was performed in week 7 and the results are shown in Figure 4. In the ITT, mice are fed injected with insulin and plasma glucose is monitored for 120 min. The test is designed to induce hypoglycemia, and the goal of homeostasis is the return the glucose to pretest levels. As can be seen in Figure 4A, mice fed the CML2 diet had higher fasting glucose than mice fed the AIN93 and DIO diets ($p < 0.05$). The AUC for the ITT was not different (4B), but there did appear to be a trend with mice in the CML0, CML1, and

CML2 diets compared to the AIN93 and DIO diets. When restricted to the TWD diets (CML0, CML1, and CML2; Figure 4C), there was a trend for mice fed the CML2 diet to have a higher fasting glucose ($p = 0.09$). In addition, mice fed the differences in incremental AUC for the ITT test approached statistical significance for mice fed the TWD diets (Figure 4D). This data indicates that mice fed high levels of CML were less able to restore glucose to pretest levels after insulin injection.

Short Chain Fatty Acids

Short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) are organic fatty acids with less than six carbon atoms, such as acetic acid, propionic acid, butyric acid, and valeric acid (Wong, de Souza, Kendall, Emam, & Jenkins, 2006). The production of SCFAs is typically associated with many factors. The composition of the microflora in colon, source of substrate, and gut transit time are three major factors. SCFAs are produced via bacterial fermentation of carbohydrates in colon, especially dietary fiber, to decrease intestinal pH and inhibit the growth of pathogenic microorganisms to protect the colon (Kellow et al., 2014). Different SCFA have different functions in the colon. Acetate is considered to be the primary substrate for cholesterol synthesis and can increase the colonic blood flow. Butyrate one of the most important SCFAs, provides energy for colonic epithelial cells, reduces inflammation and maintains colon health (Scheppach, 1994). One study investigated the

effect of dietary glycated protein the colonic microbiota and production of SCFA. The result showed that the SCFA levels were significantly decreased by heated and glycated bovine serum albumin (BSA) compared to the control (Mills et al., 2008).

Figure 5. Cecal short chain fatty acid content (SCFA) from mice fed AIN, DIO and TWD diets with differing amounts of CML. SCFA are arranged in highest to lowest concentration. SCFA with different letter designation are significantly different.

SCFA were measured in the cecal contents of the mice fed the different diets described below and the results are shown in Figure 5. There were no differences in acetic, butyric or isobutyric acids among the mice, but there were differences in proprionic, valeric and isovaleric acids. More specifically, there was more proprionic acid in the cecal contents of mice fed the CML2 diet than the AIN, DIO and CML0 diets (Figure 5). In addition, there was also more valeric acid and isovaleric acid in the ceceal contents of mice fed the CML2 diet compared to the AIN and DIO diets (Figure 5).

Metabolomics Analysis

Metabolomics is the study of the small molecules in biological samples and has become an important tool to identify and quantify all metabolites in many disciplines (Lawton et al., 2008). Recently, it has been performed in order to identify biomarkers for dietary assessment and diseases (Deng, Jones, & Swanson, 2014). For instance, the glucose level is usually used to diagnose diabetes and the cholesterol content is associated with cardiovascular disease. To investigate whether the metabolites profiles could help the prediction of diabetes, Wang and colleges (Wang et al., 2011) conducted a study based on 2422 normoglycemic individuals followed for twelve years. The result showed 201 people who developed diabetes in this study had a significantly greater plasma concentration of five branched-chain amino acids which were tryrosine, isoleucine, leucine, valine and

phenylalanine. The effect of diets can also be revealed when studying the metabolites (Bruce et al., 2009). To perform metabolomics studies analytical techniques are often utilized, such as gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (GC-MS), or liquid chromatography (LC) or nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR).

Gas Chromatography and Mass spectrometry

Gas Chromatography and Mass Spectrometry is a commonly used method for studies of metabolic profiling. Chemicals are separated in GC based on their gas volatility and affinity for the stationary phase of the column utilized in the GC system, followed by identifying them in MS depending on breaking molecules into ionized fragments and detecting the fragments with mass to charge ratio.

Automated Mass Spectral Deconvolution and Identification System

Automated Mass Spectral Deconvolution and Identification System (AMDIS) is a free computer program that was designed for extracting spectra of individual component that is detected in a GC-MS data file. It deconvolutes the GC-MS data file for detecting all separate components followed by comparing them in a target library such as National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) Mass Spectral Database, or the library that the user built from GC-MS data files.

SpectConnect

SpectConnet is a freely available analytical service at [http://spectconnect.mit.edu.](http://spectconnect.mit.edu/) In general, analysis of profiling metabolites from GC-MS data files depends on reference libraries, however, SpectConnect can systematically find components that are conserved across samples without using manual curation or reference library. SpectConnet compares each spectrum in each sample to each spectra in every other sample to ensure which components are conserved across the replicate samples. Components are conserved and identified by comparing the retention time and spectra. If the chromatogramic peak is a real peak and not noise, the mass spectrum in difference samples will be pairwise similar to each other (Styczynski et al., 2007). The process of how SpectConnect works is showed in Figure 6.

Figure 6. SpectConnect working process (Styczynski et al., 2007).

Hypotheses and Objectives

The Hypotheses of This Study:

- 1. Increased dietary CML will affect the plasma metabolite profile.
- 2. Increased dietary CML will result in an increase level of short chain fatty acids in plasma.
- 3. Increased dietary CML will result in an increase glucose level in plasma.
- 4. Increased dietary CML will result in an increase in the branched chain fatty acids in plasma.

The Objectives of This Study:

- 1. Determine the effect of dietary CML on the plasma metabolites profile.
- 2. Determine and compare the glucose levels in different experimental diet groups.

Materials and Methods

GC-MS Analysis of Mouse Plasma Metabolites

Plasma samples were collected from the mice experiment in the Ward Lab. Metabolites extraction and derivatization protocols were carried out as mentioned in Dunn et al (Dunn et al., 2011). Succinic acid (0.5 mg/mL, Sigma-Aldrich, Co) and sorbitol (0.5 mg/mL) were used as internal standards. Frozen plasma samples were thawed on ice for 30 to 60 min. Fifty micro liters of plasma were taken into 2 mL centrifuge tube followed by the addition of 10 μ L of each internal standard. Then 300 μ L of methanol was added and vortexed for 15 seconds to extract the metabolites. The mixture was centrifuged at room temperature and at 13,000 g for 15 min. Three hundreds microliters of the extraction mixture was transfer to a new 2 mL centrifuge tube. Then the mixture was completely dried in a centrifugal vacuum evaporator (SVC100H, Hicksville, NY) for 2 h. Twenty five micro liters of 20 mg/mL methoxyamine hydrochloride was added to the 2 mL centrifuge tube with dried sample and heated in the block heater (Fisher Scientific, Waltham, WA) at 80 °C for 15 min. The sample was removed from the block heater and 25 μ L of N-Methyl-N-(trimethylsiyl) trifluoroacetamide (MSTFA) was added to each sample and vortexed for 15 s, then mixture was heated in the block heater for 15 min. Samples were cooled down after incubation and centrifuged at room temperature (13,000 g for 15 min).

One micro liter sample was injected into the GC-MS. Analysis was performed with a Shimadzu GC-2010 coupled with a Shimadzu GC-MS (QP2010S, Kyoto, Japan). A ZB-5 MSI column (35 m length, 0.25 mm diameter and 0.25 µm film thickness) was used. Helium was used as the carrier gas. Injection was carried out with a split ratio of 5:1. The injector and detector temperature were 250 °C. The oven temperature ramped from 70 °C (1 min) to 110 °C at 40 °C/min, followed by a 5 °C/min-ramp to 350 °C. Metabolites were identified using AMDIS software and SpectConnect, and NIST library. Peak area was normalized by internal standard and expressed with the normalized value.

Statistical Analysis

IBM SPSS (version 22.0, Armonk, NT) was used to conduct all statistical analysis. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to evaluate the statistical differences of metabolites between all treatments. Tukey was used as post hoc to determine which of these treatments differ from each other based on the result of one-way ANOVA. P value < .05 was applied to determine the statistical difference. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using SPSS to provide a visual way to analyze the correlation between all experimental treatments and metabolites in plasma.

Results

Metabolomics Analysis of Mouse Plasma

GC-MS analysis of mouse plasma samples for AIN93, DIO, CML0, CML1, and CML2 diet groups detected 93 compounds, of which 49 were identified based on the retention index (RI) and NIST library (Table $4 \& 5$). Most of the identified metabolites fall under the categories of amino acids, fatty acids, organic acids, and organic molecules. Table 1 and Table 2 showed in 93 detected compounds, 44 of them could not be identified and were considered as unknown compounds since those compounds could not positively match the RI to the AMDIS library, NIST database (Table $4 \& 5$). The result of one-way ANOVA showed in Figure 6 that these five diets had a significant different on lactic acid, phosphoric acid, 2-Pyrrolidome-5-carboxylic acid, oleic acid and 10 unknown metabolites $(p < .05)$.

In addition, one-way ANOVA was also performed for comparing three CML diets since they had identical formula except the difference of CML levels. The result revealed there was only one metabolite, lactic acid, had a significant difference $(p = .048)$ and none of unknown metabolites showed significant difference (Table 3 and Table 6 & 7).

Identified metabolites significantly different in AIN93, DIO, CML0, CML1, CML2

a,bDifferent lettered superscripts within a row indicate significant difference between mean values ($p < .05$) determined by one-way ANOVA and Tukey HSD post hoc analysis

¹Rentention index

Compound	RI ¹	AIN 932	DIO ²	CMLO ²	CML1 ²	CML2 ²	SEM	p value
unknown 1	1056	568720 ^a	839625 ^a	1504718 ^b	971021^{ab}	1339147 ^b	378271	0.004
unknown 3	1310	780858 ^a	947557 ^{ab}	1677585 ^b	1135334 ^{ab}	1399501 ^{ab}	357343	0.022
unknown 11	2281	1798909 ^a	2697041 ^{ab}	3901549 ^b	2799166 ^{ab}	3033786 ^{ab}	753363	0.041
unknown 22	3419	17022486 ^a	20792622 ^{ab}	25782969ab	21199359 ^b	25869116 ^b	3743877	0.028
unknown 24	3478	646177 ^a	1115902 ^{ab}	1270658 ^b	1010912^{ab}	1045417^{ab}	230475	0.032
unknown 33	1063	103188 ^{ab}	106484 ^a	152891ab	128040 ^{ab}	212932 ^b	45011	0.01
unknown 34	1171	156406^a	337288 ^{ab}	409558 ^b	301084 ^{ab}	336571 ^{ab}	93563	0.032
unknown 35	1678	38930 ^a	74121^{ab}	119274 ^{ab}	77441^b	104856^{ab}	31005	0.024
unknown 37	1807	277381ª	468470^{ab}	479697ab	408516^{ab}	651873 ^b	135310	0.007
unknown 43	2090	5501303 ^a	10673806 ^b	14450702 ^b	14061218 ^b	14136041 ^b	3825312	0.004

Unknown metabolites significantly different in AIN93, DIO, CML0, CML1, CML2

a,bDifferent lettered superscripts within a row indicate significant difference between mean values ($p < .05$) determined by one-way ANOVA and Tukey HSD post hoc analysis

¹Rentention index

Identified metabolites significantly different in CML0, CML1, CML2

a,bDifferent lettered superscripts within a row indicate significant difference between mean values ($p < .05$) determined by

one-way ANOVA and Tukey HSD post hoc analysis

¹Rentention index

Identified metabolites in AIN93, DIO, CML0, CML1, CML2

 $\sqrt[1]{1}$ Rentention index;

¹Rentention index; 2Values are expressed after normalized by internal standard

Identified metabolites in CML0, CML1, CML2

¹Rentention index

Unknown metabolites in CML0, CML1, CML2

¹Rentention index; 2Values are expressed after normalized by internal standard

Metabolites Principal Component Analysis

The principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using all positively identified metabolites. The eigenvalues of the correlation matrix (Table 8) and the scree plot (Figure 8) were used to determine that the first three principal components were able to sufficiently explain 76.18% of the variation in the data.

Figure 8. Scree plot for the metabolites principal component analysis.

Component Initial Eigenvalues Total $\%$ of Variance Cumulative % 14.33 31.152 31.152 10.732 23.33 54.482 9.981 21.698 76.18 2.896 6.295 82.475 1.507 3.276 85.75 6 1.292 2.81 88.56 1.044 2.269 90.829 0.792 1.723 92.551 0.683 1.484 94.035 0.503 1.094 95.129 0.369 0.802 95.93 0.308 0.67 96.601 0.261 0.567 97.168 0.191 0.414 97.582 0.167 0.363 97.945 0.141 0.307 98.252 0.119 0.258 98.51 18 0.108 0.235 98.745 19 0.099 0.216 98.961 20 0.088 0.192 99.152 0.067 0.146 99.299 22 0.06 0.13 99.429 0.043 0.094 99.523 24 0.042 0.092 99.615 0.032 0.07 99.685 0.027 0.059 99.744 0.022 0.049 99.793 28 0.019 0.041 99.834 0.017 0.038 99.872

 0.013 0.029 99.901 0.01 0.022 99.923 0.009 0.019 99.942

Eigenvalues of the correlation matrix for the metabolites principal component analysis

Using 0.3 as a cut off for the eigenvectors (Table 9), the result indicated CML2 replicates were clustered on the positive side of component 2 and were clearly separated by component 2. CML0 and CML1 replicates were separated by both component 1 and component 3. Most of DIO and AIN93 replicates were located on the positive side of component 3, which means component 3 contributed most to separate DIO and CML1 from other diets (Figure 9).

Eigenvectors of principal component 1, principal component 2, and principal component 3 for the metabolites principal component analysis

Component	Prin1	Prin2	Prin3
DIO_1	0.989	-0.022	-0.064
$CML0_6$	0.974	-0.006	-0.156
$CMLO_2$	0.973	-0.037	-0.19
$CML1_2$	0.97	-0.028	-0.225
$CML1_5$	0.969	-0.002	0.08
AIN93_7	0.964	-0.038	0.025
AIN93_8	0.964	-0.043	-0.117
$CML1_6$	0.959	0.003	0.101
$CMLO_7$	0.947	0.011	0.08
DIO_4	0.935	0.07	-0.06
AIN93_2	0.934	-0.029	-0.289
$CML0_3$	0.919	-0.066	0.087
$CML1_7$	0.898	-0.092	0.274
AIN93_4	0.718	-0.062	0.595
$CML0_1$	0.66	-0.111	0.574
DIO_9	0.456	0.016	0.035
$CML1_10$	-0.011	0.996	0.002
$CML2_4$	-0.017	0.992	0.009
$CML2_5$	-0.011	0.99	-0.007
$CML1_8$	-0.026	0.987	-0.006
$CML2_6$	-0.027	0.985	-0.011
$CML2_2$	-0.016	0.985	0.009
$CML2_1$	-0.034	0.982	0.005
$CML2_7$	-0.032	0.981	-0.029
$CML1_9$	-0.024	0.981	0.02
$CML2_8$	-0.024	0.977	0.002
$CML2_3$	-0.037	0.943	-0.023
DIO_8	0.113	-0.013	0.958
$CMLO_10$	-0.043	-0.062	0.955
$CML0_9$	-0.193	-0.098	0.921
$CML0_4$	-0.022	-0.052	0.912
$CMLO_8$	-0.181	-0.04	0.891

Figure 9. Three-dimension score plot for metabolites principal component analysis (PC1, PC2, and PC3).

Glucose content in plasma

Glucose content was quantified using internal standard and a standard curve based on the GC-MS results. According to result (Figure 10), CML diets had no effect on the glucose level in plasma (CML0: 107.91 mg/dL, CML1: 108.46 mg/dL, and CML2: 105.61 mg/dL) compared to DIO (105.31 mg/dL) and AIN93 (104.85 mg/dL). However, statistical analysis using one-way ANOVA was performed and the result showed no significant difference in all five diets as well as only in three CML diets (Figure 10 $\&$ 11).

Figure 10. Mean plasma glucose content in AIN93, DIO, CML0, CML1, and CML2 \pm standard error. Different lettered columns indicate a significant difference between diets (*p* < .05), which were determined by one-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc analysis.

Figure 11. Mean plasma glucose content in CML0, CML1, and CML2 \pm standard error. Different lettered columns indicate a significant difference between diets ($p < .05$), which were determined by one-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc analysis.

Discussion

There were no significant differences in glucose content between five experimental diets ($p > .05$). The result is not in accordance with previous studies that consumption of diet high in CML increased the glucose concentration and would lead to the development of diabetes compared to diet low in CML or CML-restricted diet. Since some SCFAs were higher in the cecal contents of the mice fed the CML2 diet, we hypothesized a higher CML content in diet would increase the SCFA level. However, we did not see any significant difference in SCFAs detected by GC-MS, which were acetic acid and butanoic acid.

According to plasma metabolomics analysis, we found there was a significant difference in lactic acid ($p < .05$). The result of Tukey HSD post hoc indicated that there was a significant difference between AIN93 and CML2 diets. And the lactic acid content was increased with the increasing CML levels in diets. We can conclude that dietary CML did play a role in increasing the plasma lactic acid concentration. Studies have been conducted to investigate the correlation between plasma lactate concentration and T2D. The results of these studies demonstrated that plasma lactate was strongly associated with T2D and higher fasting glucose among nondiabetics (Crawford et al., 2010). From the OGTT data in our study, we saw that mice fed CML2 diet had the highest fasting glucose compared to the other four diets. Furthermore, the statistical comparison applied limited to the three CML diets indicated that high CML diet, CML2, was associated with a higher

fasting glucose. In another study, plasma lactate was higher in non-diabetics as well as in obese diabetics compared to lean subjects (Chen, Varasteh, & Reaven, 1992). In our study, the result of mice body weight was similar to Chen's study. Mice fed the CML diets and DIO diet were higher in weight compared to AIN93 control diet (Figure 12). Overall, plasma lactic acid content lead to higher body weight, the development of T2D and is associated with obesity and higher fasting glucose.

Figure 12. Mice final body weight after 8 weeks feeding for Temoin (AIN93), Hight fat (DIO), CML0, CML1, and CML2 diet groups. Different lettered columns indicate a significant difference between diets ($p < .05$), which were determined by one-way ANOVA and Tukey post hoc analysis.

2-Pyrrolidone-5-carboxylic acid was detected to have significant difference between diets ($p < .05$), and the Tukey HSD post hoc showed the CML2 diet had a significantly higher level of 2-Pyrrolidone-5-carboxylic acid compared to AIN93 control diet. Another study found that in the cereborospinal fluid (CSF) the concentration of 2-Pyrrolidone-5-carboxylic acid correlated with hepatic encephalopathy and liver disease. And 2-Pyrrolidone-5-carboxylic acid concentration in CSF reported in this study was comparable to that reported previously for normal plasma (Cooper, Dhar, Kutt, & Duffy, 1980). Further research can be performed to investigate whether a higher consumption of CML would affect the concentration of 2-Pyrrolidone-5-carboxylic acid in plasma and have association to liver disease. Oleic acid was the other metabolites that showed a significant difference between treatments. The oleic acid content was significantly higher in CML0 diet compared to AIN93. The reason that CML0 had the highest oleic acid among the three CML diets was unclear since they are identical with the exception that the CML1 and CML2 diets had increased the level of CML compared to the CML0 diet.

In summary, mice fed diets with a higher CML content diet did affect the metabolites profile to some extent, and an increased intake of dietary CML may lead to a higher body weight as well as the development of T2D. Further research is needed to elucidate the mechanisms involved in the metabolomics profile changes.

Conclusion

To investigate the effect of CML, we had hypothesized the diets with different CML levels would lead to changes in the metabolite profile. From the experiment results, lactic acid, phosphoric acid, and 10 unknown metabolites showed significant differences between the five experimental diets. When only CML diets were compared, lactic acid was the only metabolite that was significant difference. From the study we can conclude that higher CML consumption can affect the metabolite profile, but further studies can be performed to investigate specific mechanism involved in such metabolic profile changes.

Glucose content in plasma was not significantly different according to the one-way ANOVA analysis.

The metabolites PCA provided a separation of CML2 diet on PC2. Moreover, DIO and AIN93 diets were mostly separated by PC3. In addition, both PC1 and PC 3 affected CML0 and CML2. The further studies may focus on how these three principal components affect the diet and metabolites.

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