Single vegetable meal content equivalence as an alternative to fat for satiety: a randomised trial in Japanese women

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INTRODUCTION

The prevalence of obesity and overweight has been increasing worldwide.¹ The fundamental cause of overweight and obesity has been established as an energy imbalance between calories consumed and calories expended; therefore, eating less and controlling appetite is the most effective method for controlling weight.² Furthermore, a well-balanced and sensory-pleasing diet is important for preventing obesity and overweight. Recently, it was reported that dietary energy density (ED) plays an important role in maintaining energy balance and influences energy intake. The energy density (ED) of food is greatly affected by the amount of water and fat it contains.³ Low energy density (LED) foods include vegetables, fruits, and soups.⁴ The addition of LED foods can decrease ED of meals,⁵ elevate satiety levels, and lower energy intake.⁶ The Japanese government recommends that adults should consume at least 350 g of vegetables per day to maintain good health, and it sets 1950 kcal as the estimated energy requirement for 18–29-year-old women.⁷ However, most individuals, especially young adults, do not achieve their daily recommended vegetable intake.⁸ A high energy density (HED) diet with few vegetables, which readily raises energy intake, leads to imbalanced eating habits and obesity.

Sensory-specific satiety is associated with increased food intake.⁹ A strategy to increase vegetable intake is to increase the variety of vegetables in a meal.¹⁰,¹¹ Previous research has shown that an increased variety of foods leads to excessive consumption¹² and that the presence of a variety of vegetables in a meal leads to greater consumption compared with the presence of a single vegetable.¹³ Therefore, we examined how the portion size of a single vegetable with different EDs served at lunch influences fullness and satisfaction in order to determine the minimum amount of vegetable intake required to achieve satisfaction after consuming a low-energy and low-fat meal.

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METHODS

Subjects
Forty-two healthy, normal-weight Japanese women aged 21–26 years participated in the study. Individuals were questioned in advance whether they disliked any of the food items to be offered in the experimental meals. Half-way through the study, we excluded individuals who were unable to tolerate the test food items (n=1) and those who were unexpectedly unavailable on the test dates (n=1). Eventually, a total of 40 subjects successfully completed the study.

All subjects were provided with detailed written and verbal explanations of the general purpose and procedures of the study before written consent was obtained from them. All aspects of the study were approved by the Ethics Committee of the Tokushima University Hospital.

Study design
A randomized crossover design was used to investigate study in lunch. In this trial, control (C) or high-fat (HF) lunches were served to participants twice a week for 6 weeks. The amount of vegetable and ED varied, whereas the amount of hamburger, soybean, and rice remained the same. Control lunches containing 80 g (C80), 120 g (C120), 160 g (C160), 200 g (C200), 240 g (C240), or 280 g (C280) of vegetable, with EDs of 1.25, 1.14, 1.06, 0.99, 0.93, or 0.89 kcal/g, respectively, were provided. HF lunches containing 38.1 g of oil in addition to the same ingredients as those in control lunches were provided. Therefore, HF lunches contained 80 g (HF80), 120 g (HF120), 160 g (HF160), 200 g (HF200), 240 g (HF240), or 280 g (HF280) of vegetable, with EDs of 2.33, 2.11, 1.93, 1.78, 1.66, or 1.56 kcal/g, respectively. The order of 12 meals was randomized across subjects. Subjects were asked to refrain from skipping meals or drinking excessive alcohol and maintain exercise at a consistent level before each scheduled session.

Test meals
An overview of the nutritional information of the test meals is shown in Table 1. With rice as the staple food, the main course comprised hamburger (Prima Meat Packers, Ltd., Japan) with aurora sauce which mixed mayonnaise (Kewpie Co., Ltd., Japan) and tomato sauce (Hikari Foods Co., Ltd., Japan), boiled soybean (Fujico Co., Ltd., Japan), and broccoli (Ajinomoto Frozen Foods Co., Ltd., Japan) with soy sauce-based salad dressing (Kewpie Co., Ltd., Japan). The composition of C and HF meals was the same except that ED of HF meals was increased by the addition of oil (38.1 g). Subjects were provided with 1.1 L of chilled water that they could consume ad libitum throughout the test. If requested, additional water was supplied, but additional food and other drinks were not allowed. The vegetable was boiled broccoli, which varied consistently in portion size in control and HF meals. The smallest vegetable portion (80 g) was chosen to provide approximately one-third of 233.2 g, which is the mean amount of vegetable consumed per eating session in this age group in a nationally representative sample.5 The fixed amounts of rice (150 g), hamburger (60 g) with aurora sauce (51.3 g), and boiled soybeans (6 g) was served with all meals. Only the amount of boiled broccoli with soy sauce-based salad dressing was varied. ED of the foods was calculated using the manufacturers’ nutrition labels, except those for fiber, which was determined from a food composition table.

Visual analog scale (VAS) ratings
Subjects were asked to rate their fullness, satisfaction, prospective food consumption, and desires to eat savory, sweet, salty, or fatty foods on VAS questionnaires with 100-mm lines for each question.19 For example, fullness was rated on a 100-mm line preceded by the question “How full are you right now?” and anchored on the left by “not at all” and on the right by “very much”. The ratings were filled before intake and 0.5, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 h after consuming the meals.

Data analyses
Ratings of fullness, satisfaction, prospective food consumption, and desire to eat savory, sweet, salty, or fatty foods before and at various time points after consuming the test meals were evaluated for specific groups using repeated measures ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests. Ratings for control and HF meals with the same amount of vegetable but different EDs were compared using paired t-tests. All statistical analyses were performed using Statistical Package for Social Science software (version 16.0, 2007, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The results are expressed as mean±SE. A p value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Subjects
Forty women with an average age of 22.6±0.2 years, average weight of 51.5±1.0 kg, average height of 159±1.0 cm, and average body mass index (BMI) of 20.4±0.3 kg/m² participated in this study.

VAS ratings after consuming control meals with different amounts of vegetable (Figure 1)
With regard to fullness ratings, C80 scored significantly lower than C200 (p=0.007), C240 (p=0.03), and C280 (p=0.05) at 0.5 h, 1 h, and all time points, respectively, after meal consumption. With regard to satisfaction ratings, C80 scored significantly lower than C200 (p=0.037) and C280 (p=0.02) at 4 h after meal consumption. There were no significant differences in VAS ratings for fullness and satisfaction between C80 and C160 at any time point. With regard to prospective consumption ratings, C80 scored significantly higher than C160 at 0.5 h (p=0.005) and 2 h (p=0.034) after meal consumption, C200 at 0.5 h (p=0.000) and 4 h (p=0.014) after meal consumption, C240 at 0.5 h (p=0.001), 1 h (p=0.002), 2 h (p=0.004), and 4 h (p=0.011) after meal consumption, and C280 at all time points after meals (p<0.05). With regard to ratings for the desire to eat savory food, C80 scored significantly higher than C160 at 3 h (p=0.014) after meal consumption, C200 at 1 h (p=0.008), 3 h (p=0.009), and 5 h (p=0.022) after meal consumption, C240 at 0.5 h (p=0.036), 3 h (p=0.000), 4 h (p=0.003), and 5 h (p=0.029) after meal consumption, and C280 all time points after meal consumption (p<0.05). With regard to ratings for the desire to eat sweet food, C80 scored significantly higher...
Table 1. Energy and macronutrient composition of the test meals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>C80</th>
<th>C120</th>
<th>C160</th>
<th>C200</th>
<th>C240</th>
<th>C280</th>
<th>HF80</th>
<th>HF120</th>
<th>HF160</th>
<th>HF200</th>
<th>HF240</th>
<th>HF280</th>
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<tr>
<td>Broccoli (g)</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>280</td>
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<td>Soy sauce-based salad dressing (g)</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>28.0</td>
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<td>Rice (g)</td>
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<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>150</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>Chicken hamburger (g)</td>
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<td>Aurora sauce (g)</td>
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<td>Adding oil (g)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32.1</td>
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<td>32.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Boiled soybean (g)</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>535</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>363</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>497</td>
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Control (C) and high-fat (HF) lunches contained 80 g (C80, HF80), 120 g (C120, HF120), 160 g (C160, HF160), 200 g (C200, HF200), 240 g (C240, HF240), or 280 g (C280, HF280) of vegetable. HF lunches also contained 38.1 g oil.
Figure 1. Levels of fullness, satisfaction, prospective food consumption, and desire to eat savory, sweet, salty, or fatty foods on a 100-mm visual analog scale before intake (0 h) and at the indicated time points (0.5, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 h) after intake of control meals with different amounts of vegetable. Meals contained 80 g (C80; open circles), 120 g (C120; crosses), 160 g (C160; open triangles), 200 g (C200; closed rhombi), 240 g (C240; closed squares), or 280 g of vegetable (C280, closed circles). Significant differences (p<0.05) at each time point were determined using repeated measures ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests and are indicated as follows: a, C80 vs C160; b, C80 vs C200; c, C80 vs C240; d, C80 vs C280; e, C120 vs C200; f, C120 vs C240; g, C120 vs C280; i, C160 vs C280; k, C200 vs C280.
than C160 at 0.5 h ($p=0.031$) and 1 h ($p=0.006$) after meal consumption, C200 at 1 h ($p=0.033$), 3 h ($p=0.018$), and 4 h ($p=0.017$) after meal consumption, C240 at 0.5 h ($p=0.018$), 1 h ($p=0.012$), 3 h ($p=0.003$), and 4 h ($p=0.001$) after meal consumption, and C280 from 0.5 h ($p=0.016$) to 4 h ($p=0.001$) after meal consumption. With regard to ratings for the desire to eat salty food, C80 scored significantly higher than C280 at 0.5 h ($p=0.016$) and 3 h ($p=0.011$) after meal consumption. With regard to ratings for the desire to eat fatty food, there were no significant differences in scores for any of the test meals at any time point. In addition, there was no significant difference in VAS ratings for fullness, satisfaction, desire to eat salty food, or desire to eat fatty food among C200, C240, and C280 at any time point.

**VAS ratings after consuming HF meals with different amounts of vegetable (Figure 2)**

VAS scores for fullness were significantly lower for HF80 than for HF240 at 0.5 h ($p=0.036$) and 1 h ($p=0.019$) after meal consumption and HF280 at 0.5 h ($p=0.003$) and 1 h ($p=0.027$) after meal consumption. VAS scores for prospective consumption were significantly higher for HF80 than for HF240 at 2 h ($p=0.035$) and HF280 at 0.5 h ($p=0.004$) and 1 h ($p=0.042$) after meal consumption. With regard to ratings for the desire to eat sweet food, HF80 scored significantly higher than HF240 at 0.5 h ($p=0.018$) after meal consumption. With regard to ratings for the desire to eat fatty food, HF80 scored significantly higher than HF280 at 1 h ($p=0.014$) after meal consumption. There were no significant differences in VAS ratings for satisfaction and the desire to eat savory or salty food among any of HF meals at any time point.

**VAS ratings for preprandial and postprandial fullness and satisfaction between control and HF meals with the same amount of vegetable**

There were significant differences in VAS ratings for fullness between C80 and HF80 ($p<0.01$), C160 and HF160 ($p<0.01$), and C240 and HF240 ($p<0.05$) at all time points after meal consumption and between C120 and HF120 ($p<0.05$) at all time points except 0.5 h after meal consumption. From 1 h to 4 h after meal consumption, there was no significant difference in VAS ratings for fullness between C200 and HF200, and at 2 h and 3 h after meal consumption, there was no significant difference between C280 and HF280 (Figure 3-A).

There were significant differences in VAS ratings for satisfaction between C80 and HF80 ($p<0.05$), C160 and HF160 ($p<0.05$), and C240 and HF240 ($p<0.05$) at all time points from 0.5 h to 5 h after meal consumption and between C120 and HF120 at all time points ($p<0.05$) except 2 h after meal consumption. At 0.5, 1, 2, 3, and 5 h after meal consumption, there were no significant differences in VAS ratings for satisfaction between C200 and HF200. At 0.5 and 3 h after meal consumption, there were no significant differences in VAS ratings for satisfaction between C280 and HF280 (Figure 3-B).

**DISCUSSION**

The addition of fat improves the overall palatability of food, however, dietary fat leads to overeating because of high ED and insensitivity to the satiety value of fat. In the present study, we focused on a single vegetable to identify the minimum amount that could provide a high degree of fullness and satisfaction in an easily prepared lunch with or without fat content.

Provision of a variety of foods has been shown to increase food intake in children as well as adults, where as foods with similar sensory properties decline in perceived pleasantness during consumption. Among control meals, the diet that was highest in vegetables provided fullness and suppressed the desire for prospective consumption and consumption of savory food at all time points after intake; this was in agreement with the conclusion of a recent review that vegetables can decrease dietary ED by adding water-based weight but not energy to foods. Therefore, the weight and, typically, volume of LED foods are more than those of HED foods. The volume of food consumed affects satiety irrespective of ED. With regard to HF meals with 38.1 g of fat content, there were very few significant differences among the VAS ratings for the seven variables at any time point, and this was irrespective of the amount of vegetable. Therefore, the results of the present study do not support the hypothesis that the volume of vegetables has the maximum effect on satiety. However, they do demonstrate that the effects of fat on food intake are related to enhanced palatability, consistent with previous study findings. Earlier investigations indicated that HED foods tend to be more palatable than LED foods because they often contain fat and/or sugar. However, in comparisons between meals containing the same amount of vegetable but different EDs because of varying oil content, few significant differences in VAS ratings for fullness and satisfaction were observed among meals with 200 g of vegetable, suggesting that meals with high vegetables as 200 g might reach similar fullness and satisfaction regardless of addition fat content.

A recent study has reported that the consumption of 240 g of a variety of vegetables in a 500-kcal lunch could achieve and maintain satiety without the addition of oil in the LED model. Taken together, the findings of our study and previous studies indicate that a diet based on LED meals with a high vegetable content 200-240 g might achieve sufficient satiety.

Limitations of our study include the subject demographics and the use of a single vegetable. Individuals tire easily of a single vegetable. Results could be different in a situation of various vegetables. Marked gender and age differences have been reported with regard to food choice and eating habits. In particular, women are more sensitive to taste than men, and younger subjects are more sensitive to appetite sensations than older subjects. Of late in Japan, young adults have not been eating sufficient vegetables, resulting in a habit of LED food consumption HED foods, which contain fat instead of water or dietary fiber, encourage overconsumption because they are readily available, highly palatable, and inexpensive. Furthermore, it can be difficult for some individuals to consume the daily recommended intake of vegetables, which comprises approximately one-third of every meal, be cause the time spent on cooking and eating varies with mealtime. Further studies are hence required.
Figure 2. Levels of fullness, satisfaction, prospective food consumption, and desire to eat savory, sweet, salty or fatty foods on a 100-mm visual analog scale before intake (0 h) and at the indicated time points (0.5, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 h) after intake of high-fat (HF) meals with different amounts of vegetable. Meals contained 80 g (HF80; open circles), 120 g (HF120; crosses), 160 g (HF160; open triangles), 200 g (HF200; closed rhombi), 240 g (HF240; closed squares), or 280 g of vegetable (HF280; closed circles). Significant differences ($p<0.05$) at each time point were determined using repeated measures ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests and are indicated as follows: c, HF80 vs HF240; d, HF80 vs HF280; f, HF120 vs HF240; g, HF120 vs HF280; h, HF160 vs HF240; j, HF200 vs HF240; k, HF200 vs HF280.
Figure 3. (A) Preprandial and postprandial fullness on a 100-mm visual analog scale before intake and at various times after control (solid lines) and high-fat (HF; added oil) meal (dotted lines) consumption. Differences between control and HF meals with the same amount of vegetable but different energy densities were assessed by paired \( t \)-tests: \(* p<0.05\) for control vs. HF. (B) Preprandial and postprandial satisfaction for control and HF meals compared as in A.
to investigate the effects of a variety of vegetables in conjunction with the effects of gender, age, BMI, and eating habits in order to determine the effects of vegetable portion size on intake over longer periods of time.

In conclusion, a 500-kcal meal containing at least of 200 g of single vegetable provides sufficient fullness and satisfaction without additional fat content in a Japanese lunch. The consumption of even one meal that is high in vegetable content every day may be effective in preventing individuals from becoming overweight. We suggest that specific identification of the amount of vegetable intake capable of providing satisfaction after a meal can be a practical dietary guideline for weight management.

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AUTHOR DISCLOSURES
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Kennzai: 单一蔬菜膳食含量作为脂肪替代物的饱腹感等效性：一项在日本女性中的随机试验

背景与目的：虽然高能量密度食物非常可口，由于脂肪含量高，过度消费会导致肥胖。低能量密度的食物是防止个人超重的更有效方法。我们研究了不同数量的单一蔬菜如何影响不同能量密度食物的感官特性。方法与研究设计：在一项随机交叉设计中，40 名年轻的日本妇女摄入正常或高脂肪（HF）午餐。正常饮食含有相同量的米饭和汉堡和 80 克（C80），120 克（C120），160 克（C160），200 克（C200），240 克（C240）或 280 克（C280）西兰花。HF 控制餐为添加了 38.1 克食用油（HF80、HF120、HF160、HF200、HF240 和 HF280）。使用视觉模拟量表评估摄入前及摄入后 0.5、1、2、3、4 和 5 小时后的感官特性。结果：与 0.5h 的 C200 和 C280 相比以及所有时间点相比，C80 饱腹感明显低。相比之下，各个时间点所有的 HF 膳食的满意度均相似。与对照组相比，HF 膳食组的饱腹感和满意度更高。然而，HF200 膳食组和摄入 1-4h 后对照组的饱腹感和满意度相似。结论：当膳食中只有单一蔬菜时，脂肪能增加饱腹感；然而，500 卡路里低脂肪膳食中至少含有 200 克蔬菜时，饱腹感和满意度与单纯 HF 膳食相似。

关键词：能量密度、蔬菜卷、视觉模拟评分、饱腹感、膳食指南