

Effects of rapid or slow body weight reduction on intramuscular protein degradation pathways during equivalent weight loss on rats

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Running head: Rapid and slow weight loss and muscle atrophy

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1 **Summary**

2 The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of short-term fasting-induced rapid
3 weight loss with those of slower but equivalent body weight loss induced by daily calorie
4 restriction on muscle protein degradation pathways and muscle protein content. Male
5 Fischer rats were subjected to either 30% calorie restriction for 2 wk to slowly decrease
6 body weight (Slow) or 3-day fasting to rapidly decrease body weight by a comparable level
7 of that of the Slow group (Rapid). The final body weights were about 15% lower in both the
8 Slow and Rapid groups than in the Con group ($p < 0.001$). The total protein content and wet
9 weight of fast-twitch plantaris muscle, but not slow-twitch soleus muscle, were significantly
10 lower in the Rapid group compared with the control rats fed ad libitum. Substantial
11 increases in the expression ratio of autophagosomal membrane proteins (LC3-II/-I ratio)
12 and polyubiquitinated protein concentration, used as biomarkers of autophagy-lysosome
13 and ubiquitin-proteasome activities, respectively, were observed in the plantaris muscle of
14 the Rapid group. Moreover, the LC3-II/-I ratio and polyubiquitinated protein concentration
15 were negatively correlated with the total protein content and wet weight of plantaris muscle.
16 These results suggest that short-term fasting-induced rapid body weight loss activates
17 autophagy-lysosome and ubiquitin-proteasome systems more strongly than calorie
18 restriction-induced slower weight reduction, resulting in muscular atrophy in fast-twitch
19 muscle.

20

21 **Key words:** skeletal muscle, fasting, calorie restriction, autophagy-lysosome,
22 ubiquitin-proteasome

23

24

25 **Introduction**

26 Many athletes restrict their caloric intake to improve their force-to-mass ratio, to
27 achieve a certain body mass category, or for aesthetic reasons. In particular, athletes in
28 weight-classified sports such as wrestling and boxing usually lose body weight rapidly
29 before competitions (Choma *et al.* 1998, Reljic *et al.* 2013). The rapid weight loss, also
30 known as “weight cutting”, typically involves several-day fasting until the targeted weight is
31 met. However, fasting is a recognized stimulus of skeletal muscle atrophy (Jagoe *et al.*
32 2002), which results in a significant loss of lean body mass that compromises exercise
33 performance. Muscle atrophy occurs when rate of protein degradation exceeds that of
34 protein synthesis. There are two major protein degradation pathways in skeletal muscle.
35 One, the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway, plays a major role in selective protein degradation
36 and serves as the primary degradation route for most short-lived proteins (Rock *et al.*
37 1994). The other, the autophagy-lysosome pathway, is an intracellular bulk degradation
38 system that is responsible for the degradation of most long-lived proteins, as well as some
39 organelles (Mortimore and Pösö 1987). Both proteolytic pathways become activated during
40 fasting to maintain amino acid pools, leading to muscle atrophy (Mitch and Goldberg 1996,
41 Bujak *et al.* 2015).

42 An alternative dietary weight-loss approach practiced by athletes is daily calorie
43 restriction, which results in slower body weight loss compared with fasting. Many Japanese
44 bodybuilders empirically believe that the slower body weight loss induced by daily calorie
45 restriction has less atrophic effects on skeletal muscle than the fasting-induced rapid
46 weight loss and therefore adopt the slower body weight-loss strategy before competitions.
47 However, it remains unclear which type of body weight loss more strongly activates the
48 autophagy-lysosome and ubiquitin-proteasome pathways and induces muscle atrophy

49 when body weight is reduced to the same extent, because no study has directly compared
50 the effects of rapid vs. slow body weight reduction on the major protein degradation
51 pathways and on protein content in skeletal muscle. Thus, the purpose of this study was to
52 directly compare the effects of rapid or slow body weight loss on the autophagy-lysosome
53 and ubiquitin-proteasome pathways and on protein content in rat skeletal muscle during an
54 equivalent weight loss.

55

56 **Methods**

57 **Animal treatment**

58 Nineteen-week-old male Fischer-344 rats were obtained from Japan SLC
59 (Shizuoka, Japan) and individually housed under a 12:12-h light:dark cycle (light
60 09.00-21.00 h) in an air-conditioned room (23°C). Rats were given a standard laboratory
61 diet ad libitum (CE-2; CLEA Japan, Tokyo, Japan) and water and acclimated to the housing
62 facility for 1 wk.

63 After the acclimation period, the rats were divided into three groups, matched for
64 body weight: one group continued to receive the standard diet ad libitum for the entire
65 14-day experimental period (Con; n = 5); a second group received the standard diet equal
66 to 70% of the average amount of food eaten by the Con group during the 14 days to
67 decrease their body weight slowly (Slow; n = 5); the third group was fed the standard diet
68 ad libitum for 11 days and fasted thereafter for the last 3 days of the study period to rapidly
69 decrease their body weight to a comparable extent as that of the Slow group (Rapid; n = 5).
70 All rats were allowed to drink water freely during the 14-day dietary intervention. Body
71 weight and food intake were recorded daily during the dietary intervention.

72 At the end of the dietary intervention, fast-twitch plantaris, extensor digitorum

73 longus (EDL), and slow-twitch soleus muscles were quickly and carefully dissected out
74 under anesthesia with isoflurane immediately after the 12-h dark period during which rats
75 eat most food. The muscle samples were weighed, quickly frozen in liquid N₂, and stored at
76 –80°C until analysis. After the blood samples were collected from the heart,
77 intra-abdominal fat (sum of the epididymal, mesenteric, and retroperitoneal fat pads) was
78 removed and weighed. The experimental protocols were approved by the Animal
79 Experimental Committee of The University of Tokyo.

80

81 **Muscle homogenization**

82 Frozen plantaris and soleus muscles were homogenized in ice-cold
83 Radio-Immuno Precipitation Assay (RIPA) lysis buffer (EMD Millipore, Temecula, CA, USA)
84 containing 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 0.25% deoxycholic acid, 1% NP-40, 1
85 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), protease inhibitor cocktail (SIGMA-Aldrich, St.
86 Louis, MO, USA), and phosphatase inhibitors (PhosSTOP; Roche, Basel, Switzerland).
87 The homogenates were frozen and thawed three times to disrupt intracellular organelles
88 and rotated end-over-end at 4°C for 60 min to solubilize the protein. Total protein content
89 per muscle was measured with a bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay kit (Pierce,
90 Rockford, IL, USA). Homogenized samples were then centrifuged at 700 × g for 5 min at
91 4°C and the supernatants were harvested.

92

93 **Western blotting**

94 Protein concentrations of the supernatant harvested as described above were
95 measured with the BCA protein assay kit. Samples were prepared in Laemmli sample
96 buffer (Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan) and heated for 5 min in a heating block at

97 95°C. Equal amounts of sample protein were subjected to sodium dodecyl
98 sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) (7.5% or 15% resolving gels) and
99 then transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes at 200 mA for 90 min. After
100 transfer, membranes were blocked for 1 h at room temperature in Tris-buffered saline
101 (TBS) with 0.1% Tween 20 (TBS-T; 20 mM Tris base, 137 mM NaCl, pH 7.6) supplemented
102 with 5% (w/v) nonfat powdered milk or 5% (w/v) bovine serum albumin. Membranes were
103 incubated overnight at 4°C with the primary antibody diluted 1:1000 in TBS-T containing
104 5% bovine serum albumin. The primary antibodies used were anti-microtubule-associated
105 protein light chain 3 (LC3) (Medical & Biological Laboratories, Nagoya, Japan),
106 anti-phospho-p70S6K (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), and
107 anti-phospho-Akt (Ser473) (Cell Signaling Technology). After the incubation with primary
108 antibody, membranes were incubated for 1 h at room temperature with secondary
109 antibodies (goat anti-rabbit IgG or goat anti-mouse IgG, Jackson ImmunoResearch
110 Laboratories, West Grove, PA, USA) diluted 1:5000 in TBS-T containing 1% nonfat
111 powdered milk. Bands were visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) reagent
112 (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Piscataway, NJ, USA) and quantified by Image Studio
113 (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA). The membranes were stained with Ponceau (Sigma-Aldrich)
114 to verify equal loading of protein across lanes.

115

116 **Polyubiquitinated protein concentration analysis**

117 The supernatants of the plantaris and soleus muscle homogenates were also
118 used for the measurement of polyubiquitinated protein concentrations. Polyubiquitinated
119 protein concentrations were measured with an enzyme-linked immunospecific assay
120 (ELISA) kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Cyclex Poly-Ubiquitinated Protein

121 ELISA Kit; Medical & Biological Laboratories).

122

123 **Serum glucose and insulin concentrations**

124 Serum glucose and insulin concentrations were determined with the Glucose C2

125 Test Wako kit (Wako Pure Chemical) and Rat Insulin ELISA Kit (Merckodia AB, Uppsala,

126 Sweden), respectively.

127

128 **Muscle glycogen concentration**

129 For the measurement of the muscle glycogen concentration, EDL muscles were

130 homogenized with 0.3 M perchloric acid. The glycogen concentration was determined by

131 the enzymatic methods of Lowry and Passonneau after acid hydrolysis (Lowry and

132 Passonneau 1972).

133

134 **Statistical analysis**

135 All data are presented as means \pm SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by

136 Welch's ANOVA and Bonferroni correction for post-hoc analysis (Social Survey Research

137 Information Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). We performed least-squares regression analyses to

138 examine relationships between variables. Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.05$.

139

140 **Results**

141 **Body weight, total intra-abdominal fat weight, and total food intake**

142 Changes in body weights during the 2-wk dietary intervention are shown in Fig.1.

143 During the intervention period, daily calorie restriction in the Slow group for 2 wk and 3-day

144 fasting in the Rapid group caused a substantial reduction in body weight. The body weight

145 in the Slow group became significantly different from the Con and Rapid groups at day 3
146 ($p < 0.05$). In addition, significant body weight reduction in the Slow group from day 0 was
147 observed at day 3. The body weight in the Rapid group became significantly different from
148 the Con group at day 12 (1 day after the onset of fasting). The final body weights were
149 about 15% lower in both the Slow and Rapid groups than in the Con group ($p < 0.001$)
150 (Table 1). Total intra-abdominal fat weights were also significantly lower in both the Slow
151 and Rapid groups than in the Con group ($p < 0.001$), with no significant differences between
152 the Slow and Rapid groups (Table 1).

153 Total food intake during the 2-wk experimental period was significantly lower in the
154 Slow and Rapid groups than in the Con group ($p < 0.001$; Table 1). Furthermore, total food
155 intake was significantly lower in the Slow group than in the Rapid group ($p < 0.05$).

156

157 **Serum glucose and muscle glycogen concentration**

158 At the completion of the 14-day dietary intervention, there was no significant
159 difference in serum glucose concentration among the three groups (Table 1). Although
160 there was no significant difference in the glycogen concentration of EDL muscle between
161 the Con and Slow groups, the muscle glycogen concentration was significantly lower in the
162 Rapid group than in the Con and Slow groups ($p < 0.001$; Table 1).

163

164 **Muscle wet weight and muscle total protein content**

165 There were no significant differences in muscle wet weight and total protein
166 content of the soleus muscle among the three groups (Table 1). Although the wet weight
167 and total protein content of the plantaris muscle did not differ between the Con and Slow
168 groups, the muscle weight and total protein content in the plantaris muscle were

169 significantly lower in the Rapid group than in the Con group ($p < 0.05$; Table 1).

170

171 **Autophagy-lysosome activity**

172 The microtubule-associated protein LC3 is now widely used to monitor the
173 autophagy-lysosome system. The cytosolic form of LC3 (LC3-I) conjugates with
174 phosphatidylethanolamine to form the LC3-phosphatidylethanolamine conjugate (LC3-II),
175 which is recruited to autophagosomal membranes (Mizushima and Yoshimori 2007).
176 Because the amount of LC3-II is correlated with the extent of autophagosome formation
177 and an increased LC3-II/LC3-I ratio is representative of accelerated autophagy-lysosome
178 activity (Lee *et al.* 2014), we determined the expression levels of LC3-I and LC3-II and
179 used the LC3-II/LC3-I ratio as a marker of autophagy-lysosome activity.

180 In both plantaris and soleus muscles, LC3-II/LC3-I ratios were significantly higher
181 in the Slow group than in the Con group ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 2-A and -B). Further increases in
182 LC3-II/LC3-I ratios were observed in the plantaris and soleus muscles of the Rapid group
183 ($p < 0.001$ vs. the Con and Slow groups; Fig. 2-A and -B). In the plantaris muscle but not the
184 soleus muscle, the LC3-II/LC3-I ratio was significantly and negatively associated with the
185 muscle wet weight ($p < 0.01$) and muscle protein content ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 3-A and -C).

186

187 **Polyubiquitinated protein concentration**

188 Intracellular proteins are marked with a polyubiquitin chain, after which they are
189 degraded to peptides and free ubiquitin by the 26S proteasome (Goldberg 2003). In the
190 present study, we used the polyubiquitinated protein concentration as a marker of
191 ubiquitin-proteasome pathway activity. The polyubiquitinated protein concentrations of the
192 soleus muscle did not significantly differ among the three groups (Fig. 2-D). In contrast, in

193 the plantaris muscle, they were significantly higher in the Slow and Rapid groups than in
194 the Con group (Con vs. Slow: $p < 0.01$; Con vs. Rapid: $p < 0.001$; Fig.2-C). Moreover, the
195 polyubiquitinated protein concentration was higher in the Rapid group than in the Slow
196 group ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 2-C). The polyubiquitinated protein concentrations were significantly
197 and negatively associated with the muscle wet weight ($p < 0.01$) and muscle protein content
198 ($p < 0.05$) of the plantaris muscle (Fig. 3-B and -D).

199

200 **Protein synthesis pathway**

201 Although mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) is a master regulator of muscle
202 protein synthesis (Wullschlegler *et al.* 2006), the phosphorylation status of mTOR
203 (phospho-mTOR) does not necessarily reflect mTOR activity (Eliasson *et al.* 2006, Fujita *et*
204 *al.* 2007, Miyazaki *et al.* 2011). Many recent studies have instead evaluated the
205 phosphorylation of p70S6K (phospho-p70S6K), a downstream target of mTORC1, as a
206 biomarker of mTOR activity (Jacinto and Hall 2003, Tamura *et al.* 2014). Although both the
207 Slow and Rapid groups tended to have lower phospho-p70S6K content in the plantaris and
208 soleus muscles than the Con group, the difference was not statistically significant due to a
209 considerable variability in phospho-p70S6K levels (Fig. 2-E and -F).

210

211 **Serum insulin concentration and phosphorylated-Akt content in skeletal muscle**

212 The insulin–Akt axis has strong inhibitory effects on both autophagy-lysosome
213 and ubiquitin-proteasome pathways in skeletal muscle (Price *et al.* 1996, Mitch *et al.* 1999,
214 Lee *et al.* 2004, Satchek *et al.* 2004, Stitt *et al.* 2004, Wang *et al.* 2006). Here, the serum
215 insulin concentration was significantly lower in both the Slow and Rapid groups than in the
216 Con group ($p < 0.001$; Table 1). In addition, the serum insulin concentration was significantly

217 lower in the Rapid group than in the Slow group ($p < 0.01$; Table 1). The levels of
218 phospho-Akt, which is the active form of Akt, in the plantaris and soleus muscles were
219 significantly lower in the Rapid group than in the Con and Slow groups, with no significant
220 differences between the Con and Slow groups (Con vs. Rapid: $p < 0.01$; Slow vs. Rapid in
221 plantaris muscle: $p < 0.01$; Slow vs. Rapid in soleus muscle: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 2-G and -H). The
222 serum insulin concentration significantly and negatively correlated with the LC3-II/LC3-I
223 ratio and polyubiquitinated protein concentration in the plantaris muscle ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 4-A
224 and -B). In addition, the phospho-Akt content was significantly and negatively correlated
225 with the LC3-II/LC3-I ratio and polyubiquitinated protein concentration in the plantaris
226 muscle ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 4-C and -D).

227

228 **Discussion**

229 A severe energy deficit during body weight loss causes significant reductions in
230 skeletal muscle and body fat masses. To our knowledge, this is the first study to directly
231 compare the effects of rapid and slow weight reductions, which result in acute and gradual
232 energy deficits, respectively, on protein degradation pathways and protein content in
233 skeletal muscle during an equivalent weight loss in rats. We found that the rapid weight
234 loss induced by the 3-day fast potently activated both autophagy-lysosome and
235 ubiquitin-proteasome pathways (Fig. 2). This fast resulted in significant reductions in the
236 total protein content and wet weight of the fast-twitch plantaris muscle (Table 1), although
237 both weight-loss methods decreased rat body weight and total intra-abdominal fat mass to
238 a similar extent (Table 1 and Fig. 1).

239 Muscle atrophy occurs when protein degradation rates exceed protein synthesis
240 rates. Although the phospho-p70S6K contents of the plantaris and soleus muscles

241 appeared to be lower in both the Slow and Rapid groups than in the Con group, the
242 difference was not statistically significant (Fig. 2-E and -F). In addition, the
243 phospho-p70S6K contents of the plantaris muscle were almost identical in both weight-loss
244 groups. It is therefore unlikely that fasting-induced atrophy in the plantaris muscle of the
245 Rapid group was due to a diminished protein synthesis rate, although we did not directly
246 evaluate the muscle protein synthesis rate.

247 Even though the total food intake during the 14-day dietary intervention was
248 significantly higher in the Rapid group than in the Slow group, the muscle glycogen
249 concentration was substantially lower in the Rapid group, suggesting that only the 3-day
250 fast resulted in a severe energy deficit in muscle cells. A severe energy deficit induced by
251 fasting and starvation activates autophagy-mediated protein degradation (Mizushima *et al.*
252 2004). In this study, we found that the LC3-II/LC3-I ratio, frequently used as a biomarker of
253 autophagy-lysosome activity (Lee *et al.* 2014), was significantly higher in the plantaris
254 muscle of the Rapid group than in that of both the Slow and Con groups (Fig. 2). This
255 finding indicates that the autophagy-lysosome pathway was more potently activated in the
256 Rapid group than in the Slow group, despite the equivalent weight loss. In addition, the
257 LC3-II/LC3-I ratio was significantly and negatively correlated with the total protein content
258 and muscle wet weight in the plantaris muscle (Fig. 3-A and -C). Based on these results, it
259 is plausible that the higher autophagy-lysosome activity was responsible for the rapid
260 weight loss-induced atrophy in the plantaris muscle.

261 Our results also indicate that another protein degradation pathway, the
262 ubiquitin-proteasome system, might be involved in the muscular atrophy in the Rapid group.
263 In the ubiquitin-proteasome system, proteins are targeted for degradation by the 26S
264 proteasome through covalent attachment of a chain of ubiquitin molecules (Goldberg 2003).

265 We determined the polyubiquitinated protein concentration in skeletal muscle and found
266 that the plantaris muscle in the Rapid group had a significantly higher polyubiquitinated
267 protein concentration (Fig.2-C), as well as LC3-II/LC3-I ratio, than the Con and Slow
268 groups. Similar to the LC3-II/LC3-I ratio, the polyubiquitinated protein concentration was
269 significantly and negatively associated with total protein content and muscle wet weight in
270 the plantaris muscle (Fig. 3-B and -D). These results provide strong evidence that the two
271 major proteolytic pathways are more strongly activated during rapid body weight loss than
272 during slow body weight reduction, resulting in a significant loss of total protein content and
273 wet weight of fast-twitch muscle.

274 Insulin and its downstream effector Akt strongly inhibit both autophagy-lysosome
275 and ubiquitin-proteasome pathways in skeletal muscle (Price *et al.* 1996, Mitch *et al.*1999,
276 Lee *et al.* 2004, Satchek *et al.* 2004, Stitt *et al.* 2004, Wang *et al.*2006). Whereas the
277 serum insulin concentration and phospho-Akt content of the plantaris muscle were almost
278 negligible in the Rapid group, the Slow group rats maintained a serum insulin concentration
279 and phospho-Akt content similar to that of the ad libitum-fed Con group rats (Table 1 and
280 Fig. 2-G). In addition, the serum insulin concentration and phospho-Akt content were
281 negatively correlated with the LC3-II/LC3-I ratio and polyubiquitinated protein concentration
282 in the plantaris muscle (Fig. 4). Taken together, it is likely that the slow body weight
283 reduction induced by daily calorie restriction can partially prevent muscular atrophy during
284 weight loss, at least in part by maintaining the serum insulin level and its signaling pathway
285 in skeletal muscle. Because it has been well documented that blood insulin level
286 substantially decreases even after overnight fasting, we could not rule out the possibility
287 that the higher proteolytic activities observed in the muscles of the Rapid group might be
288 reflecting an acute effect of fasting (acute insulin deficiency) rather than chronic effects.

289 However, Ogata *et al.* (2010) reported that LC3-II content in rat skeletal muscle did not
290 increase in response to 1-day fasting, whereas 3-day fasting induced significant and large
291 increase in muscle LC3-II content. It is therefore plausible that higher proteolytic activities
292 in the Rapid group resulted from chronic and accumulated effects of 3-day fasting, but not
293 acute effect. Future studies are required to measure the proteolytic activities in the Con and
294 Slow group in the fasting condition, or in the Rapid group after a few hours feeding in order
295 to assess the chronic adaptations and differentiate them from potential acute effects.

296 As shown in Table 1, the soleus muscle, unlike the plantaris muscle, did not show
297 any atrophic changes in response to either the rapid or slow body weight reduction. Our
298 results support a previous finding that the degree of fasting-induced atrophy is greater in
299 fast-twitch muscle than slow-twitch muscle (Li and Goldberg 1976, Frayn and Maycock
300 1979). Ogata *et al.* (2010) reported that a fasting-induced increase in LC3-II expression
301 was notably greater in rat fast-twitch plantaris muscle than in slow-twitch soleus muscle.
302 Consistent with these results, we observed that the magnitudes of the increase in the
303 LC3-II/LC3-I ratio after rapid and slow body weight reductions appeared to be relatively
304 lower in soleus than plantaris muscle (Fig. 2-A and -B), providing further evidence that the
305 autophagy pathway is preferentially induced in fast-twitch muscle in an energy deficient
306 state. Another major finding of the present study was that the polyubiquitinated protein
307 concentration was markedly higher in the soleus muscle than in the plantaris muscle under
308 basal conditions (the Con group) and that it did not increase in response to fasting and
309 daily calorie restriction (Fig. 2-C and -D). The blunted responses in the
310 ubiquitin-proteasome and autophagy-lysosome systems might be associated with the
311 atrophy resistance of soleus muscle to a severe energy deficit.

312 This study has several limitations. First, muscle strength and exercise capacity

313 after the rapid or slow weight loss were not assessed in this study. Thus, we could not
314 clarify which weight loss strategy is effective in improving exercise performance although
315 slow weight loss induced by calorie restriction could maintain muscle mass. Second, we
316 did not evaluate the effects of fasting or calorie restriction in combination with exercise on
317 muscle protein content and muscle weight. The results obtained in this study cannot be
318 directly extrapolated to athletic population, who engage in exercise training. Future
319 extensive studies are required to examine the combined effects of exercise and dietary
320 interventions on muscle functions as well as muscle mass in order to elucidate whether
321 exercise training can prevent muscle atrophy induced by weight loss.

322

323 **Conclusion**

324 During an equivalent weight loss, the rapid weight loss induced by short-term
325 fasting more strongly activates autophagy-lysosome and ubiquitin-proteasome pathways
326 than a slow body weight reduction induced by daily calorie restriction, resulting in muscular
327 atrophy in fast-twitch plantaris muscle but not in soleus muscle.

328

329 **Conflict of interest**

330 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

331

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412 **Figure legends**

413 Figure 1. Changes in the body weights of rats during a 14-day dietary intervention. Con, ad
414 libitum-fed control group; Slow, daily calorie restriction-induced slow body weight-loss
415 group; Rapid, fasting-induced rapid weight-loss group. Values are means \pm SEM. [#]p<0.05,
416 ^{##}p<0.01 vs Con and Rapid, respectively; * p<0.001 vs Con; [†] p<0.05, ^{††} p<0.01 vs day 0
417 in Slow group, respectively.

418

419 Figure 2. Effects of rapid or slow body weight loss on the LC3-II/-I ratio, polyubiquitinated
420 protein concentration, phospho-p70S6K content, and phospho-Akt content in rat plantaris
421 (A, C, E, and G) and soleus (B, D, F, and H) muscles. Con, ad libitum-fed control group;
422 Slow, daily calorie restriction-induced slow body weight-loss group; Rapid, fasting-induced
423 rapid weight-loss group; Values are means \pm SEM. ** and *** indicate significant
424 differences from the values obtained in the Con group at p<0.01 and p<0.001, respectively.
425 [§], ^{§§}, and ^{§§§} indicate significant differences from the values obtained in the Slow group at
426 p<0.05, p<0.01, and p<0.001, respectively.

427

428 Figure 3. Correlations between the LC3-II/-I ratio (A and C) and the polyubiquitinated
429 protein concentration (B and D) and the total protein content and wet weight of rat plantaris

430 muscle. Con, ad libitum-fed control group; Slow, daily calorie restriction-induced slow body
431 weight-loss group; Rapid, fasting-induced rapid weight-loss group.

432 Figure 4. Correlations between the serum insulin concentration or phospho-Akt content
433 and LC3-II/-I ratio (A and C) or polyubiquitinated protein concentration (B and D) of rat
434 plantaris muscle. Con, ad libitum-fed control group; Slow, daily calorie restriction-induced
435 slow body weight-loss group; Rapid, fasting-induced rapid weight-loss group.

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Table 1. Body weight, intra-abdominal fat weight, total food intake, muscle wet weight, total protein content, serum glucose, insulin and muscle glycogen concentrations in rats.

	Con	Slow	Rapid
Initial body weight (g)	303 ± 5	304 ± 5	304 ± 4 ^{***}
Final body weight (g)	321 ± 6	270 ± 2 ^{***}	265 ± 3 ^{***}
Intra-abdominal fat weight (g)	13.7 ± 0.3	8.5 ± 0.5 ^{***}	9.2 ± 0.9 ^{***}
Food intake (g)	255 ± 7	170 ± 1 ^{***}	193 ± 3 ^{***,§}
Plantaris muscle wet weight (mg)	287 ± 9	267 ± 6	251 ± 6 [*]
Plantaris muscle protein content (mg)	56 ± 3	54 ± 1	49 ± 1 [*]
Soleus muscle wet weight (mg)	114 ± 3	103 ± 6	105 ± 2
Soleus muscle protein content (mg)	20 ± 1	18 ± 1	19 ± 1
Serum glucose (mmol/L)	12.4 ± 0.5	13.2 ± 0.3	11.1 ± 0.7
Serum insulin (µg/L)	7.6 ± 0.6	3.8 ± 0.4 ^{***}	1.0 ± 0.4 ^{***,§§}
Muscle glycogen concentration (µmol/g wet tissue)	47.1 ± 1.2	41.8 ± 1.6	27.7 ± 1.7 ^{***,§§§}

445 Values are means ± SEM, n=5. * and *** indicate significant differences from the values
 446 obtained in the Con group at p<0.05 and p<0.001, respectively. §, §§ and §§§ indicate
 447 significant differences from the values obtained in the Slow group at p<0.05, p<0.01 and
 448 p<0.001, respectively.

Figure 1

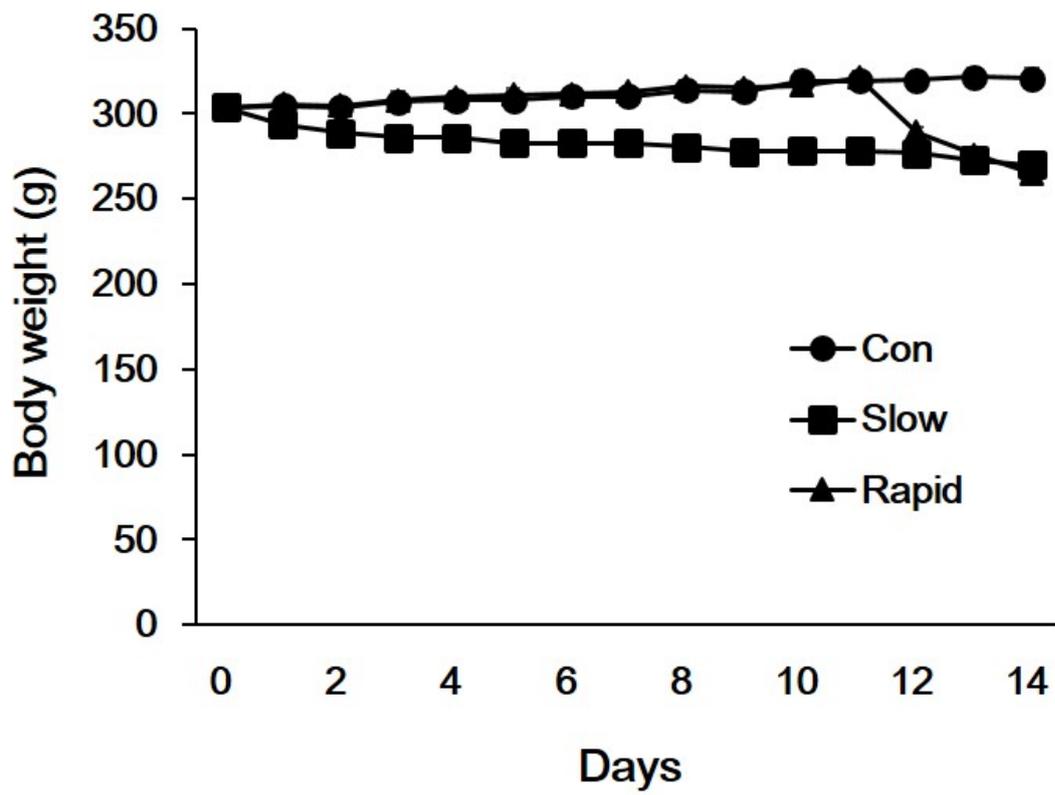


Figure 2

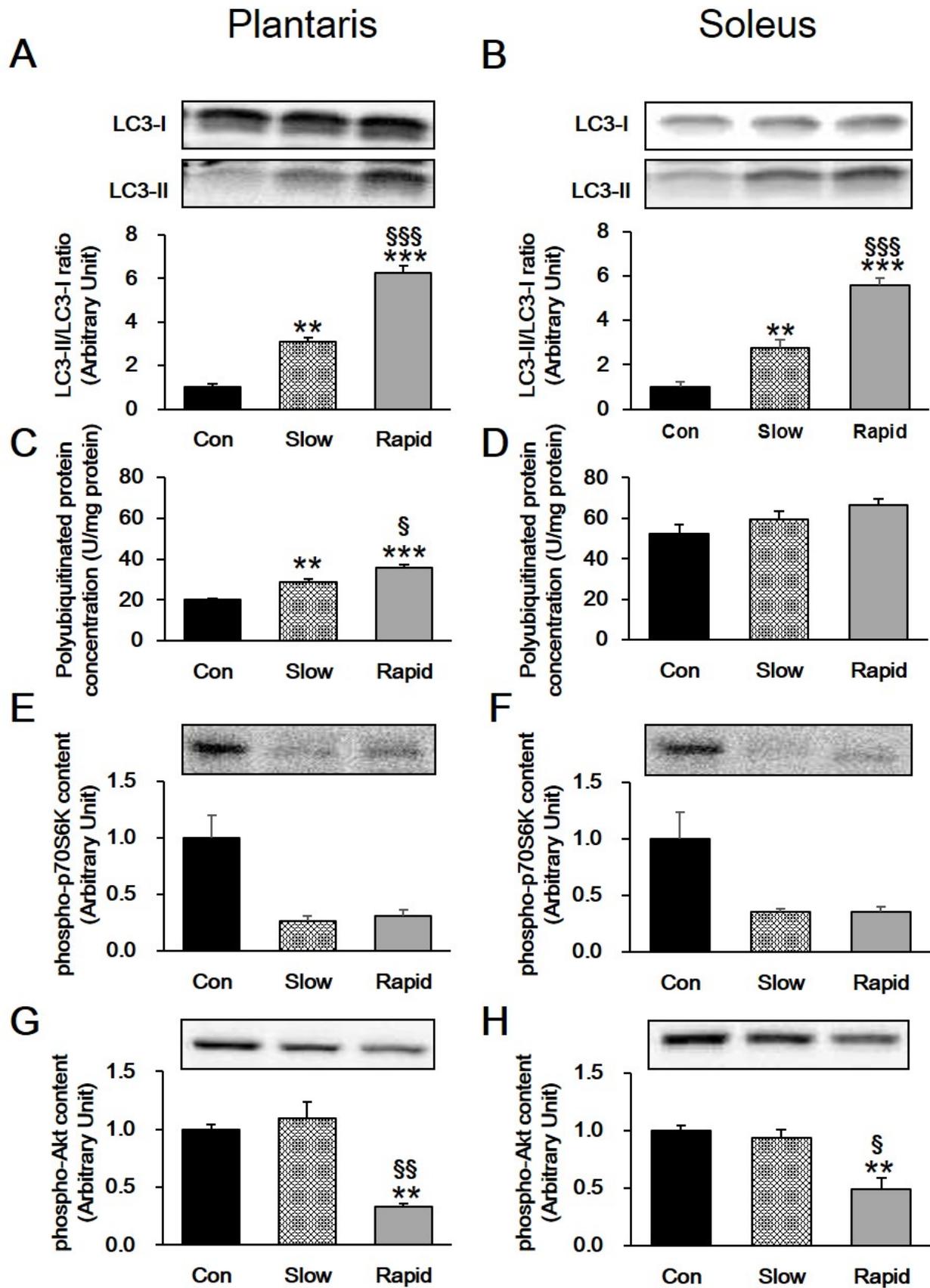


Figure 3

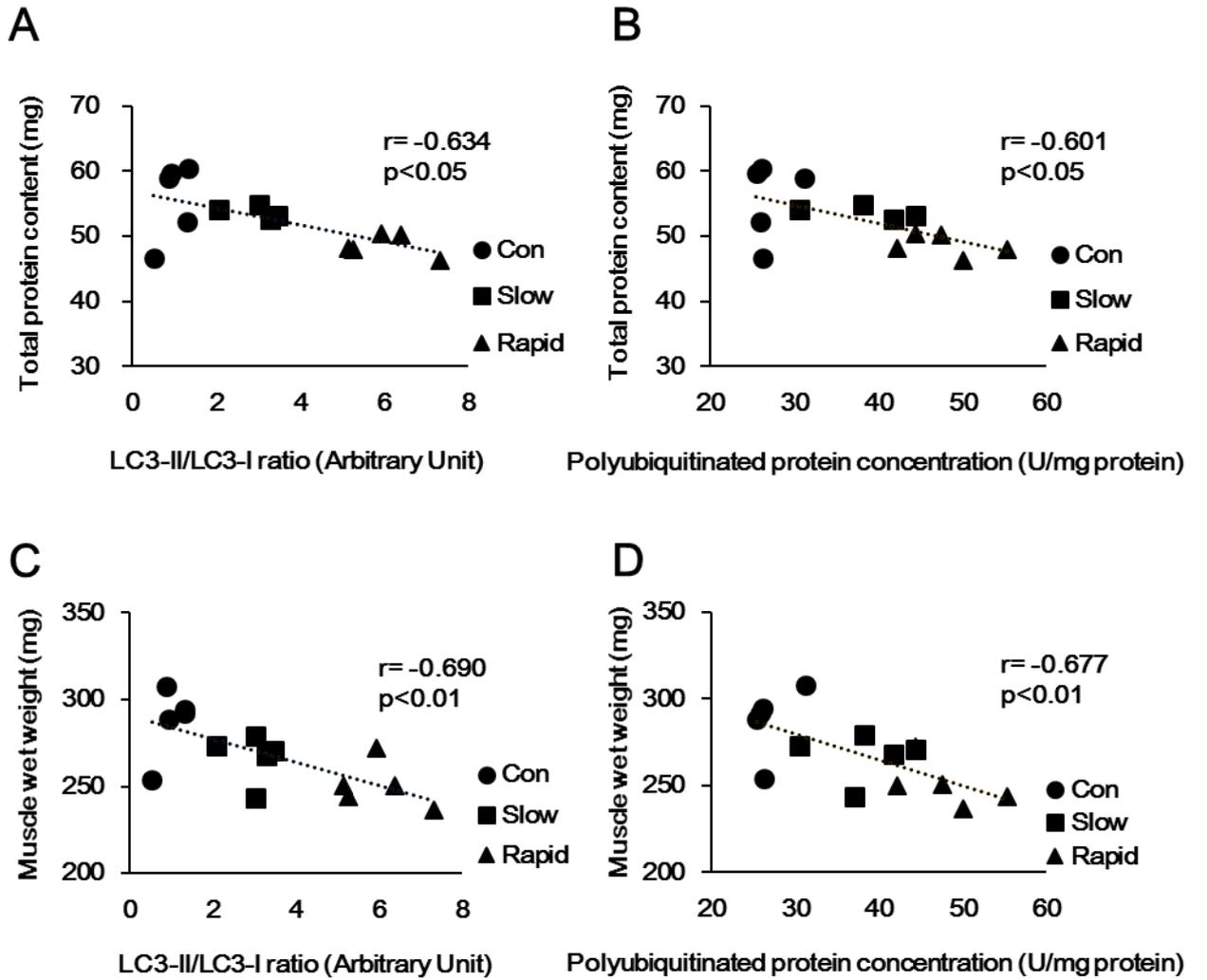


Figure 4

