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1 **The effects of gradual vs. rapid weight loss on serum concentrations of myokines and body composition in**  
2 **overweight and obese females**

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32 **Abstract**

33 **Context:** Research has shown the modulations of Follistatin (FST) and Myostatin (MST) following weight loss

34 **Objective:** We evaluated the effects of gradual weight loss (GWL) and rapid weight loss (RWL) on serum MST,  
35 FST concentrations, and body composition in overweight and obese females.

36 **Materials and Methods:** Thirty-six overweight and obese females successfully completed the study interventions:  
37 GWL (n = 18) or RWL (n= 18). Serum MST and FST concentrations, as well as anthropometric measurements,  
38 were collected at baseline and at the conclusion of each weight loss intervention.

39 **Results:** MST significantly ( $p<0.05$ ) concentration decreased in the GWL; while FST, body fat percentage and  
40 skeletal muscle mass significantly declined in both conditions. The loss in skeletal muscle mass was significantly  
41 greater in RWL relative to GWL.

42 **Discussion and Conclusion:** GWL was more effective than RWL in preserving skeletal muscle mass in  
43 overweight and obese females. Moreover, GWL leads to declines in MST concentrations.

44 **Keywords:** body composition, diet, insulin resistance, obesity, weight loss.

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## 62 **Introduction**

63 Excess caloric intake along with increased sedentarism have been reported as the most immediate contributors to  
64 the increasing occurrence of obesity in society, as well as the subsequent development of several non-  
65 communicable diseases such as metabolic syndrome, type II diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular diseases, and  
66 specific types of cancers(Middelbeek & Breda, 2013). Given the importance of obesity-related health conditions,  
67 numerous strategies have been implemented aiming to reduce fat mass (FM). Dietary interventions leading to  
68 body mass (BM) loss have been suggested as the first stage to alleviate obesity and allied health risk factors  
69 (Jakicic et al., 2001). Correspondingly, diverse dietary interventions have been proposed for FM loss(Freire,  
70 2020). Most of the proposed strategies are based off the division of macronutrients (e.g. low-carbohydrate/high-  
71 fat, high-carbohydrate/low-fat, or low-carbohydrate/high protein diet) (Floegel & Pischon, 2012; Yancy, Olsen,  
72 Guyton, Bakst, & Westman, 2004), manipulation of total energy balance to induce either gradual weight loss  
73 (GWL), or rapid weight loss (RWL) (Ashtary-Larky et al., 2018). Even though RWL approaches may be  
74 attractive to obese individuals, it has been theorized that GWL may yield finer alterations in body composition  
75 and anthropometric variables and be better maintained chronically (Ashtary-Larky et al., 2018). Indeed, prior  
76 work (Hill, 2008; Lutes et al., 2008; Sbrocco, Nedegaard, Stone, & Lewis, 1999) has advised a GWL method,  
77 contending that GWL may generate superior long-term FM levels compared with RWL, which is unlikely to be  
78 maintained. However, others (Astrup & Rössner, 2000; Carels, Cacciapaglia, Douglass, Rydin, & O'Brien, 2003;  
79 Elfhag & Rössner, 2005; Nackers, Ross, & Perri, 2010) have pointed out that larger calorie deficits and  
80 subsequent RWL are more likely to reinforce the BM-change process and produce superior long-term FM loss  
81 results. Accordingly, ambiguity continues concerning the optimal energy intake and rate of weight loss  
82 demanded most favorable for obesity management.

83 Some myokines such as myostatin (MST) and follistatin (FST) have been reported to be affected by both BM  
84 and FM alterations in humans (Flanagan et al., 2009; Hittel, Berggren, Shearer, Boyle, & Houmard, 2009; Milan  
85 et al., 2004). MST serves as a negative regulator of skeletal muscle mass (SMM) growth and differentiation,  
86 while FST acts as the regulator of MST through binding to the active form of MST and inhibiting the binding of  
87 MST to the activin IIB receptor(Amthor et al., 2004). Consequently, FST over-expression and MST inhibition is  
88 associated with increased SMM (Wagner, Liu, Chang, & Allen, 2005; Wagner, McPherron, Winik, & Lee, 2002)  
89 and decreased FM (McPherron & Lee, 1997; Yang et al., 2001). On the contrary, increased MST concentration  
90 have been reported to increase FM (Allen, Hittel, & McPherron, 2011; Reisz-Porszasz et al., 2003). FST was  
91 found to be more expressed in lean compared with obese females, and weight loss resulted in increased FST in

92 obese females (Flanagan et al., 2009). For instance, some studies have reported MST (Allen, Cleary, Lindsay,  
93 Loh, & Reed, 2010; Allen et al., 2008; Gonzalez-Cadavid et al., 1998; Milan et al., 2004; Park, Berggren,  
94 Hulver, Houmard, & Hoffman, 2006) and FST (Allen et al., 2008; Flanagan et al., 2009) concentration to be  
95 changed following weight loss. Nevertheless, most studies investigated the intracellular expression (Allen et al.,  
96 2010; Allen et al., 2008; Gonzalez-Cadavid et al., 1998; Milan et al., 2004; Park et al., 2006) or protein(Allen et  
97 al., 2010) in animals (Allen et al., 2010; Allen et al., 2008), and only two studies conducted on obese  
98 humans(Milan et al., 2004; Park et al., 2006). Although these previously mentioned studies were conducted on  
99 weight loss, fewer studies have examined the alterations of FST and MST concentrations following the rate of  
100 weight loss. Only Motevalli et al. (2015) reported a significant increase in MST and a decrease in FST  
101 concentration following RWL compared to GWL in competitive wrestlers(Motevalli et al., 2015).

102 Combined, these studies suggest a relationship between BM and/or FM reductions and the MST  
103 signaling pathway. However, little attention has focused on MST and FST following weight loss in sedentary  
104 females. Given the effects of MST and FST in regulating SMM and FM, we hypothesized that FST and MST  
105 could be affected by the rate of weight loss. Accordingly, as the primary purpose, this paper aimed to evaluate  
106 alterations in MST and FST concentrations following different models of FM loss (RWL vs GWL) in  
107 overweight and obese females. As a secondary aim, we assessed body composition changes after RWL and  
108 GWL.

## 109 **Materials and Methods**

### 110 **Participants**

111 Thirty-six overweight and obese (body mass index, BMI >25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) female participants who were referred to  
112 our nutrition clinic [(Ahvaz, Iran); (age: 35 ± 11 y, weight: 83.7 ± 13.6 kg, BMI: 33.1 ± 6.9 kg/m<sup>2</sup>)] successfully  
113 completed this study. The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Jundishapur University of  
114 Medical Sciences and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was registered in Iranian  
115 Registry of Clinical Trials (IRCT2016010424699N2). Procedures were explained to participants and written  
116 informed consent was obtained before participation. Inclusion criteria were as follows: not to contribute in any  
117 physical activity (PA) at least in the last year (self-reported), not to use alcohol or smoke, not to use herbal  
118 supplements and vitamins, and a lack of BM changes in the last 6 months (self-reported). Exclusion criteria were  
119 non-willingness to continue nutritional protocols, participation in other dietary weight loss procedures,  
120 pregnancy, or breastfeeding, use of effective drugs on metabolism, lipid and glycemic profile, eating disorder,  
121 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, kidney problems, thyroid, digestive, and respiratory diseases. In addition,

122 participants consuming more than 300 mg of caffeine daily (described as caffeine users (Shirali et al., 2016))  
123 were excluded from the study.

#### 124 **Study design**

125 This double-blinded clinical trial was conducted on overweight and obese female participants. All participants  
126 were initially screened for enrolment by phone and social media (Instagram or Telegram) and scheduled for a  
127 preliminary visit at nutrition clinic (preliminary visit). The preliminary session included measures of height,  
128 weight, waist circumference and questionnaires that confirm their eligibility for the study. Subsequently,  
129 Participants were randomly assigned into a GWL (n = 18; 34.4 ± 7.4 y, 83.6 ± 13.5 kg, 44 ± 6.4 body fat percentage  
130 [BFP]) or RWL (n= 18; 33.1 ± 11.7 y; 83.7 ± 14.1 kg; 40.8 ± 9.6 BFP) condition. Participants were asked not to  
131 change their PA levels throughout the study.

#### 132 **Diet protocol**

133 The methods and design of were previously reported in detail elsewhere (Ashtary-Larky et al., 2017). Briefly,  
134 RWL and GWL, based on the lost weight (at least 5 %), were defined over a period of 5 weeks and 15 weeks,  
135 respectively. Dietary restrictions were calculated from individual daily energy expenditure requirements. Total  
136 energy expenditure was estimated from the Dietary Reference Intake (DRI) for non-obese adult women (Table,  
137 2005). The DRI prediction formula requires an estimate of the level of PA, age, weight, and height. To achieve  
138 and maintain the dietary energy restriction, the food exchange system from the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics  
139 and American Diabetes Association was used (Wheeler, Daly, & Evert, 2014). The prescribed calorie-restricted  
140 diet contained 15% protein, 30% to 35% fat, and 50% to 55% carbohydrate, on average, in order to provide weight  
141 loss. In general, the meal plans included 3 main meals (breakfast, lunch, and dinner) and three snacks (mid-  
142 morning, mid-afternoon, and bedtime), and low saturation and trans fats, cholesterol, salt (sodium), and added  
143 sugars. All diets were designed according to Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010 (Motevalli et al., 2015). Low-  
144 calorie diets produced an energy deficit of 500 to 750 for the 15-week duration GWL, and 1000 to 1500 kcal/d for  
145 the 5-week duration for the RWL.

#### 146 **Anthropometric measurements**

147 Prior to arriving to the laboratory, participants fasted for 12 hours (overnight, with an aim of 8 hours sleep),  
148 refrained from consuming alcohol for 48 hours caffeinated beverages, and other diuretics before assessments.  
149 The stature was measured with a stadiometer (Race Industrialization, China) to the nearest 0.1 cm. BM, BMI,  
150 BFP, waist-hip ratio (WHR), and SMM were evaluated by a multi-frequency bioelectrical impedance device

151 (Inbody 230, Biospace, Korea) (Bagheri, Rashidlamir, Motevalli, et al., 2019). The test-retest reliability of the  
152 bioelectrical impedance method was high ( $R = 0.95$  to  $0.98$ ).

### 153 **Blood sampling and laboratory analysis**

154 Fasting blood samples (5 mL) were taken from the cubital vein using standard procedures following 12-hour  
155 overnight fasting (Bagheri, Rashidlamir, Ashtary-Larky, et al., 2019). The initial collection occurred 48 hours  
156 before initiation of dieting. Blood samples were clotted and stored for 20 minutes at room temperature before  
157 being centrifuged at 3000 revolutions per minute for 20 minutes. Spun serum was removed from the centrifuge  
158 and frozen at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Serum MST (human MST, Zellbio GmbH, Germany) and FST (human FST, Zellbio  
159 GmbH, Germany) concentration were measured in duplicate using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay  
160 (ELISA) with a microplate reader (GDV, Germany) at a wavelength of 450 nm. The intra-assay and inter-assay  
161 coefficient of variation were less than 10% and 12% for MST and FST, respectively.

### 162 **Nutrient intake and dietary analysis**

163 Participants in RWL submitted 3-day (2 weekdays and 1 weekend) food records at baseline and after week 3 and  
164 5, while participants in GWL submitted their food records at baseline and after week 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15. Each  
165 item of food was individually entered into Diet Analysis Plus version 10 (Cengage, Boston, MA, USA) and total  
166 energy consumption, and the amount of energy derived from proteins, fats, and carbohydrates was assessed  
167 (Bagheri, Rashidlamir, Motevalli, et al., 2019).

### 168 **Statistical analysis**

169 An a priori sample size calculation was conducted using the G\*Power analysis software (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang,  
170 & Buchner, 2007). Our rationale for sample size was based on our prior data (Bagheri et al., 2020) and estimated  
171 that 15 participants per condition ( 30 total participants) would provide 80% power (two-sided  $\alpha = 0.05$ ) to detect  
172 significant change in FST and MST concentrations. Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to assess the normality of  
173 data. Student's t test was performed for condition comparisons at baseline. A  $2 \times 2$  RM ANOVAs [time (pre-  
174 intervention vs. post-intervention)  $\times$  condition (GWL vs. RWL)] with Bonferroni adjustments was used to  
175 determine treatment differences. When appropriate, a one-way ANOVA across change scores was used to detect  
176 between-condition differences. Following extra sum-of squares F test, Pearson's correlation was performed  
177 between body composition and endocrine markers with data treated as one condition or separated by condition  
178 (GWL vs RWL) as suitable. Statistical significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ . Cohen's  $d$  effect size (ES) was calculated  
179 as post effect mean minus pre effect mean/pooled pre effect standard deviation means(Cohen, 1992). An ES of

180 0.00-0.19 was considered trivial, 0.20-0.49 = small, 0.50-0.79 = moderate, and  $\geq 0.80$  = large. All analyses were  
181 performed using SPSS (version 25.0, IBM; Chicago, IL).

## 182 **Results**

183 Of sixty-five participants that assessed for eligibility, forty-one participants underwent evaluation. Twenty  
184 participants were assigned to RWL and 21 were assigned to GWL. Of these, 36 participants completed the study  
185 (18 participants per condition). During the study, two participants in RWL (inability for maintaining diet) and  
186 three in GWL (exercising, pregnancy, or medication) were excluded. No adverse events in the two study conditions  
187 were reported. Baseline characteristics of RWL and GWL conditions are presented in Table 1. No significant  
188 differences were observed at baseline between two conditions for any variable (Table 1).

### 189 **Energy and macronutrients consumption**

190 Energy and macronutrients of RWL and GWL are presented in Table 2. A significant main effect of time was  
191 observed for kilocalories, protein, fat, and carbohydrate consumption in both conditions ( $P < 0.05$ ). Participants in  
192 RWL condition consumed significantly less kilocalories, protein, fat, and carbohydrates during week 3 and 5  
193 compared to baseline. Participants in GWL condition consumed significantly less kilocalories, protein, fat, and  
194 carbohydrates during week 3, 6, 9, 12, and 15, compared to baseline ( $P < 0.05$ ). In addition, participants in GWL  
195 condition consumed significantly less kilocalories compared to week 3, 6, and 9 ( $P < 0.05$ ). In addition, participants  
196 in GWL condition during week 12 consumed significantly less protein compared to week 3. Moreover, participants  
197 in GWL condition during week 12 consumed less carbohydrate compared to week 6 and 9 ( $P < 0.05$ ).

### 198 **Rate of weight loss alters body composition**

199 A significant condition  $\times$  time interaction was detected for BFP [( $p = 0.002$ ), (Figure 1B)] and SMM [( $p < 0.001$ ),  
200 (Figure 1C)]. BFP [GWL = -2.8 % (95% CI= -3.5 to -2.1), ( $d = 1.9$ ) and RWL = -1.2 % (95% CI, -1.9 to -0.5), ( $d =$   
201 0.9)] and SMM [GWL = -0.4 kg (95% CI= -0.7 to -0.1), ( $d = 0.7$ ) and RWL = -1.4 kg (95% CI, -1.7 to -1), ( $d = 2$ )]  
202 significantly decreased in both conditions over time. No condition  $\times$  time interaction was noted for BM ( $p = 0.637$ ),  
203 BMI ( $p = 0.403$ ) or WHR [ $p = (0.202)$ , (Figure 1A)]. Each variable was noted to be significantly decreased with  
204 time BM ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.961$ ), BMI, ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.957$ ), BFP ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.679$ ), WHR ( $p < 0.001$ ,  
205  $\eta^2 = 0.573$ ), and SMM ( $p < 0.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = 0.680$ ); (Table 1). When SMM was examined as change in (post-pre,  
206  $\Delta$ SMM), significantly greater loss in SMM was noted in RWL relative to GWL ( $p < 0.001$ , Figure 1D).

### 207 **GWL condition alters MST and FST while RWL only alters FST concentration**

208 A significant condition  $\times$  time interaction was detected for MST [( $p = 0.011$ ), (Figure 1E)], FST [( $p = 0.036$ ),  
209 (Figure 1F)], and FST/MST ratio [( $p = 0.006$ ), (Figure 1G)]. MST only decreased in GWL [GWL = -44.4 ng/l

210 (95% CI= -67.4 to -21.5), (d= 0.9)] while FST [GWL = -3 ng/ml (95% CI= -4.6 to -1.5), (d= 0.3) and RWL= -5  
211 ng/ml (95% CI, -6.2 to -3.9), (d= 2.1)] significantly decreased in both conditions. In addition, FST/MST ratio  
212 [RWL= -0.01 (95% CI, -0.02 to -0.006), (d= 0.9)] significantly diminished in RWL.

### 213 **Change in FST associates with change in BFP independent of weight loss model**

214 Following sum-of-square F-test, weight loss condition was either ignored (Figure 2C and 2D), or considered  
215 (Figure 2B) when examining changes in endocrine markers as a function of change in body composition. The  
216 alteration in FST ( $\Delta$ FST) was differentiated between GWL and RWL ( $p = 0.013$ ), and the change in BFP ( $\Delta$ BFP)  
217 in both conditions was associated with  $\Delta$ FST (GWL  $r^2 = 0.531$ ,  $p = 0.025$ ; RWL  $r^2 = 0.342$ ,  $p = 0.011$ ; Figure 2B).  
218 No other condition was differentiated by sum-of-squares F test, nor considered to be associated by Pearson's  
219 correlation when considered as one condition (Figure 2A)  $r^2 = 0.023$ ,  $p = 0.382$ ; Figure 2C),  $r^2 = 0.098$ ,  $p = 0.063$ ;  
220 Figure 2D),  $r^2 = 0.020$ ,  $p = 0.413$ ).

### 221 **Discussion**

222 The major findings were as follows: GWL resulted in a significant decrease in MST concentration, an effect not  
223 seen in the RWL group. In addition, both GWL and RWL resulted in a significant decrease in FST concentration.  
224 The FST/MST ratio significantly diminished in RWL. In regards to body composition, BFP significantly decreased  
225 in both conditions. Moreover, significantly greater loss in SMM was noted in RWL relative to GWL. Collectively,  
226 our results suggest a more catabolic environment in the RWL than the GWL condition.

227 MST is a member of transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- $\beta$ ) family member which inhibits muscle  
228 differentiation and growth(Allen et al., 2011). Mice in which MST processing or signaling is disrupted exhibited  
229 muscle mass gains (Matsakas et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2001), while MST over-expression resulted in a significant  
230 decrements of muscle mass(Reisz-Porszasz et al., 2003). These results confirm MST's critical role in inhibiting  
231 muscle mass gains. Follistatin is a member of the TGF- $\beta$  superfamily (Görgens et al., 2013), which is ubiquitously  
232 expressed in all tissues of the human body, including skeletal muscle, and has both paracrine and autocrine  
233 influences. FST has shown to bind MST and inhibit its activity(Nakatani, Kokubo, Ohsawa, Sunada, & Tsuchida,  
234 2011), but also can bind and inhibit other TGF- $\beta$  family members (Tsuchida et al., 2000), suggesting a more  
235 diverse physiological role. Obesity is associated with increased MST expression in both adipose and skeletal  
236 muscle tissues(Allen et al., 2011), and MST mRNA levels decreased during weight loss following daily injection  
237 of recombinant leptin in mice (Allen et al., 2008). Similarly, circulating FST concentration is also elevated in  
238 obese individuals relative to normal weight controls (Maïmoun et al., 2020), concentration of which is

239 subsequently reduced following bariatric surgery-induced weight loss (Wiewiora et al., 2020). These results  
240 highlight a role of weight loss to reduce MST and FST concentrations.

241 To date, only one study has been conducted comparing GWL and RWL on serum MST and FST concentrations.  
242 Motevalli et al. (2015) examined 8 weeks of weight loss in male competitive wrestlers, serum MST and FST  
243 concentrations remained unchanged in the GWL condition while a significant increase in serum MST and a  
244 significant decrease in FST concentration was observed in the RWL condition. In their study, serum MST/FST  
245 was significantly increased in the RWL condition (Motevalli et al., 2015), suggesting a more catabolic environment  
246 was present in the RWL compared to RWL condition, similar to the findings of the results we present herein.

247 At the end of our study, GWL experienced 711 kcal/d and 13.6 g/d of protein reduction in daily energy intake  
248 while RWL experienced a quite severe 1339 kcal/d and 44.2 g/d of protein reduction. Moreover, FST/MST was  
249 decreased following RWL, indicating a drop in positive muscle growth leading to their deficiency in the  
250 homeostatic balance of the muscle. Considering the losses in SMM observed our RWL participants, ultimately  
251 these changes may have led to a greater catabolic condition in RWL compared to GWL. The main mechanism of  
252 this catabolic condition could be due the activation of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), which is an  
253 intracellular energy sensor and the activation of AMPK occurs when the ratio of ATP/ADP decreases in result of  
254 caloric restriction. The activation of AMPK can directly activate Tuberous Sclerosis 2 (TSC2) signaling, which is  
255 an antagonist of mTORC1 activation(Laplante & Sabatini, 2009), involved in the regulation of MST  
256 signaling(Elliott, Renshaw, Getting, & Mackenzie, 2012). It could be speculated that these mechanisms are  
257 responsible, at least in part, for inducing a catabolic intracellular condition witnessed herein; however, more  
258 invasive measures such as muscle biopsies would be required to confirm this mechanism.

259 Participants in GWL gradually reduced calories at a rate of 500-750 kcal/d for 15 weeks, while participants  
260 in RWL reduced calories at a rate of 1000-1500 kcal/d for 5 weeks. Both conditions significantly decreased BM,  
261 BFP, WHR, and SMM. It was not surprising, however, that SMM was decreased to a greater extent in RWL  
262 relative to GWL due to the respective reduction of daily protein intake of 44.2 g/d and 13.6 g/d. In a systematic  
263 review and meta-analysis study, we have shown the beneficial effects of GWL compared to RWL on BFP in  
264 overweight individuals, which is in line with the outcomes of the current study. However, our review also showed  
265 that fat-free mass was not different following both rates of weight loss (Ashtary Larky, Bagheri, Abbasnezhad, &  
266 M Tinsley, 2020). Additionally, previous studies showed that RWL diets are suboptimal for lean body mass  
267 preservation (Ashtary-Larky et al., 2017; Peos, Norton, Helms, Galpin, & Fournier, 2019; Vink, Roumans,  
268 Arkenbosch, Mariman, & van Baak, 2016). It has been shown that lean body mass contributes approximately

269 ranged between 20-30% to total weight loss in individuals with overweight or obesity(Tinsley & Willoughby,  
270 2016). Our BFP and SMM results agree with the study of Motevalli et al. (2015) who observed a significant BFP  
271 reduction and lean body mass in both RWL and GWL conditions. In our study, GWL experienced a decrease in  
272 BFP by 3.2 % more than RWL, likely due to the longer caloric restriction. Indeed, our results revealed an  
273 interesting correlation between the changes in BFP and those of FST concentration in both conditions, with a  
274 higher  $r^2$  value (= 0.531) with GWL. These findings indicate that participants with smaller deteriorations in FST  
275 were the ones with higher decreases in BFP. Although it is not possible to infer causality from correlation, i.e.,  
276 whether the smaller decrement of FST leads to a higher decrease in BFP or vice versa, the present findings are  
277 consistent with the model proposed by Brown et al. (2012) in which the declines in FST concentration may explain  
278 increases in fat mass in mice(Brown et al., 2011). The authors proposed that a deterioration in FST concentration  
279 could lead to an impaired glucose homeostasis and adipose tissue accumulation due to its important physiological  
280 roles in regulating these processes (Brown et al., 2011).

281 It is important to mention that our investigation possesses several limitations. First, we did not measure tissue  
282 level expression of MST and FST, which may give further insight into some of our results if collected at both  
283 muscle and sub-cutaneous adipose sites. However, it has been proposed that increases in circulating concentrations  
284 of cell-signaling molecules enhances the likelihood of receptor interaction and consequently improve the  
285 probability of a physiological effect within these tissues (Kraemer et al., 1990; Patel & Demontis, 2014). Second,  
286 we used bioelectrical impedance to measure body composition, which is more feasible in field-based settings but  
287 not as accurate as other options such as DEXA. However, previous studies have shown that it is a valid and reliable  
288 method (Jackson, Pollock, Graves, & Mahar, 1988; Ling et al., 2011). Since we evaluated MST and FST, as well  
289 as body composition markers following RWL and GWL in overweight female participants, our results may not be  
290 considered universal to all population types. Finally, we used self-reported dietary intake (via food record), which  
291 has been shown to be vulnerable to social desirability bias with under-reporting of energy intake and over-reporting  
292 of fruit and vegetable intake(Schoeller, 1995) .

293 This study was the first to evaluate the effects of GWL and RWL on serum FST and MST in overweight and  
294 obese females. Since both options resulted in matched weight loss, and RWL also resulted in reductions in MST  
295 and SMM, we would suggest the RWL condition induced a more catabolic environment for SMM and muscle  
296 protein. As a result, we conclude that GWL was more effective than RWL in preserving skeletal muscle mass in  
297 overweight and obese females. Future efforts should investigate if these differences in serum MST and FST and  
298 differences in SMM loss are maintained in the presence of caloric deficit but maintenance of dietary protein intake.

299 **Conflict of interest**

300 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

301  
302 **Data availability:** Data sharing is applicable.

303  
304 **References:**

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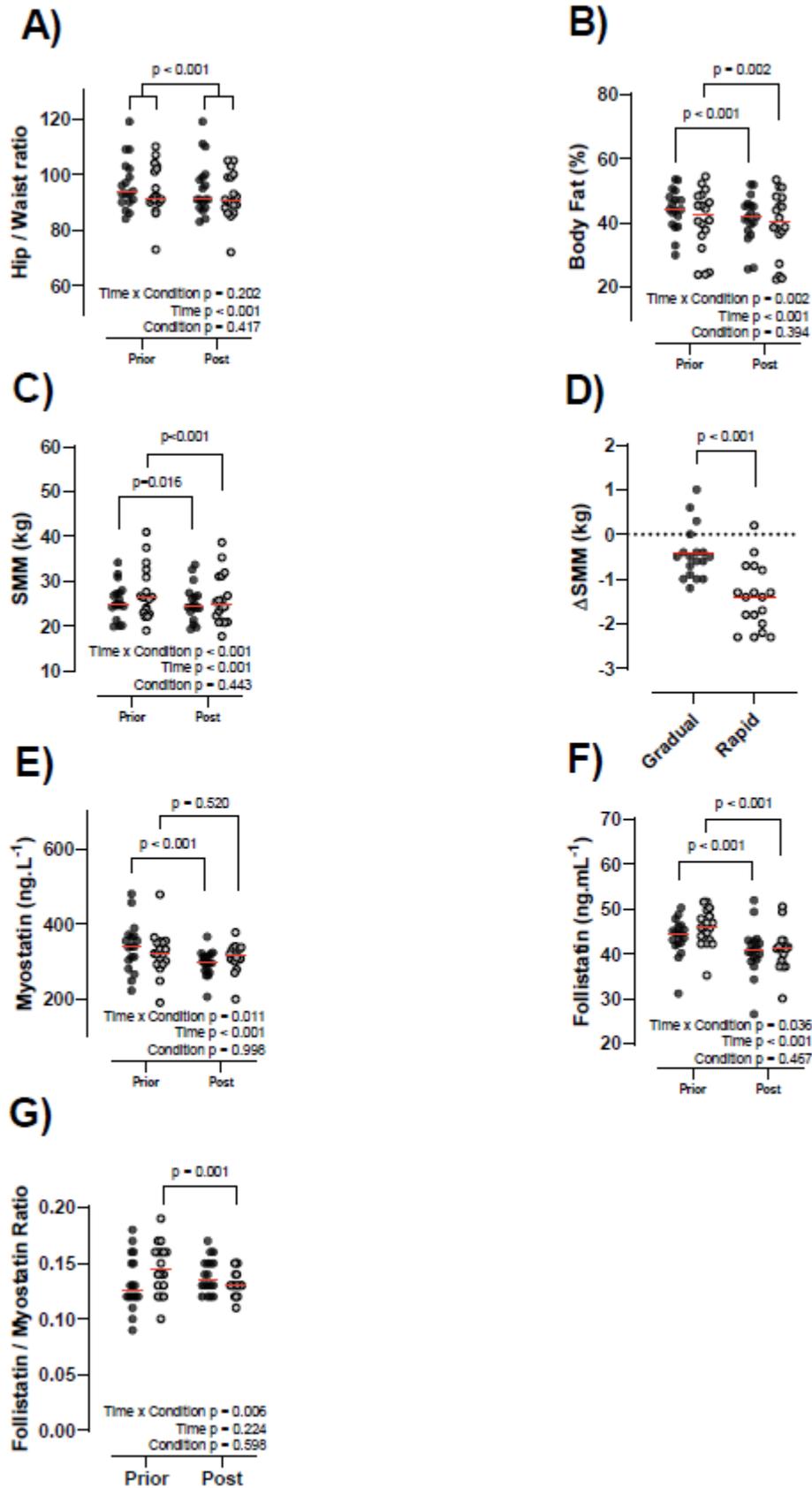
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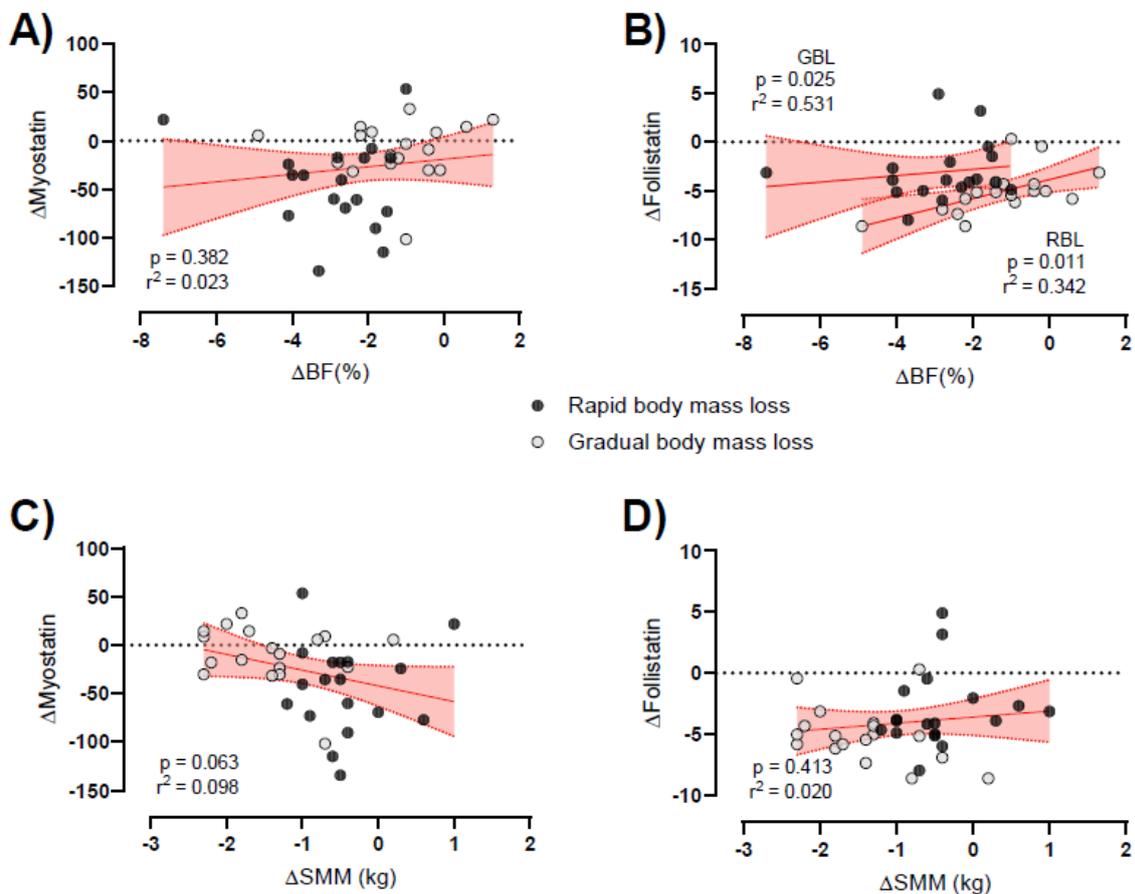


467 **Figure 1:** Alterations in Body Composition and endocrine markers with dietary condition. **A)** Hip / Waist ratio,  
 468 **B)** BFP (%), **C)** SMM (kg) as a function of time (prior or post). **D)**  $\Delta$ SMM (kg) by condition (GWL or RWL), **E)**  
 469 Myostatin ( $\text{ng}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ), **F)** Follistatin ( $\text{ng}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$ ), **G)** Follistatin/Myostatin ratio. Closed black circles indicate GWL and  
 470 open grey circles indicate RWL. Horizontal red lines indicate condition means. Statistical comparisons and p  
 471 values as indicated. N = 18 per condition and time point.

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476 **Figure 2:** Correlations between change in ( $\Delta$ ) Endocrine marker and  $\Delta$  body composition. **A)**  $\Delta$  Myostatin, **B)**  $\Delta$   
 477 Follistatin as a function of  $\Delta$ BFP, **C)**  $\Delta$  Myostatin, **D)**  $\Delta$  Follistatin as a function of  $\Delta$ SMM (kg). Closed black  
 478 circles indicate RWL and open grey circles indicate GWL. Solid red line indicates linear regression; shaded red  
 479 zone indicates 95% confidence interval. Figures **A)**, **C)**, and **D)** treated as one condition (sum-of-squares F test **A)**  
 480  $p = 0.505$ , **C)**  $p = 0.177$ ), and **D)**  $p = 0.063$ ), **Figure B)** treated as two distinct conditions ( $p = 0.013$ ).