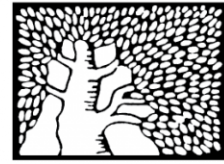


מכון ויצמן למדע

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A randomized clinical trial comparing low-fat with precision nutrition–based diets for weight loss

Document Version:

Accepted author manuscript (peer-reviewed)

Citation for published version:

Kharmats, AY, Popp, C, Hu, L, Berube, L, Curran, M, Wang, C, Pompeii, ML, Li, H, Bergman, M, St-Jules, DE, Segal, E, Schoenthaler, A, Williams, N, Schmidt, AM, Barua, S & Sevick, MA 2023, 'A randomized clinical trial comparing low-fat with precision nutrition–based diets for weight loss: impact on glycemic variability and HbA1c', *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, vol. 118, no. 2, pp. 443-451.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajcnut.2023.05.026>

Total number of authors:

16

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.1016/j.ajcnut.2023.05.026](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajcnut.2023.05.026)

Published In:

American Journal of Clinical Nutrition

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A randomized clinical trial comparing low-fat versus precision nutrition-based diets for weight loss: impact on glycemic variability and HbA1c**Short running title:** Precision nutrition and glycemic outcomes**Authors:**

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ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT03336411

Sources of support: This study was supported by the American Heart Association Grant #17SFRM33590133. AYK received a postdoctoral training grant from the National Institutes of Health (5T32HL129953-04). LH received NIH funding (K99/R00MD012811) and funding from the New York Regional Center for Diabetes Translation Research (P30DK111022). LTB is supported by the Health Resources & Services Administration (T32HP22238). The content of this manuscript is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the American Heart Association or the National Institutes of Health. MAS is the guarantor of this study.

List of Abbreviations:

CONGA	continuous overall net glycemic action
CGM	continuous glucose monitor
CV	coefficient of variation
eGFR	estimated glomerular filtration rate
GV	glycemic variability
MAGE	mean amplitude of glycemic excursions
NYULH	New York University Langone Health
PNP app	Personalized Nutrition Project mobile application
PPGR	postprandial glucose response
SD	standard deviation
T2D	type 2 diabetes

Protocol and data access: Study protocol and deidentified data will be shared upon request via email to Dr. Lauren Berube at lauren.thomas@nyulangone.org.

Word Count: Abstract: 284 words; Introduction: 448 words; Discussion: 1194 words; 2 tables, 2 figures

1 **Abstract (300-word limit, current: 284 words):**

2
3 **Background:** Recent studies have demonstrated considerable inter-individual variability in
4 postprandial glucose response (PPGR) to the same foods (1), suggesting the need for more
5 precise methods for predicting and controlling PPGR. In the Personal Nutrition Project, the
6 investigators tested a precision nutrition algorithm for predicting an individual’s PPGR.

7
8 **Objective:** To compare changes in glycemic variability (GV) and HbA1c in two calorie-
9 restricted weight loss diets in adults with prediabetes or moderately-controlled type 2 diabetes
10 (T2D), which were tertiary outcomes of the Personal Diet Study.

11
12 **Research Design:** The Personal Diet Study was a randomized clinical trial to compare a one-
13 size-fits-all low-fat diet (hereafter, *Standardized*) versus a personalized diet (hereafter,
14 *Personalized*). Both groups received behavioral weight loss counseling and were instructed to
15 self-monitor diets using a smartphone app. *Personalized* received personalized feedback via the
16 app to reduce their PPGR. Continuous glucose monitoring (CGM) data were collected at
17 baseline, 3- and 6-months. Changes in mean amplitude of glycemic excursions (MAGE) and
18 HbA1c at 6 months were assessed. We performed intention-to-treat analysis using linear mixed
19 regressions.

20
21 **Results:** We included 156 participants (66.5% female, 55.7% White, 24.1% Black, mean age
22 59.1 years (SD=10.7)) in these analyses (*Standardized* = 75, *Personalized* = 81). MAGE
23 decreased by 0.83 mg/dL per month for *Standardized* (95% CI: 0.21, 1.46 mg/dL; $p = 0.009$),

24 and 0.79 mg/dL per month for *Personalized* (95% CI: 0.19, 1.39 mg/dL; p = 0.010), with no
25 between group differences (p = 0.92). Trends were similar for HbA1c.

26

27 **Conclusions:** *Personalized* diet did not result in a greater reduction in GV or HbA1c in patients
28 with prediabetes and moderately-controlled T2D, compared to a *Standardized* diet. Additional
29 subgroup analyses may help to identify patients who are more likely to benefit from this
30 personalized intervention.

31

32 **Key Words:** precision nutrition, diabetes, personalized nutrition, glycemic variability, MAGE,
33 low fat diet

34

35

Background

36 Elevated postprandial glucose response (PPGR) increases oxidative damage (2) and has
37 been found to be an independent risk factor for the development of obesity (3), liver disease (4,
38 5), type 2 diabetes (T2D), cancer (6), and cardiovascular disease (7, 8), as well as mortality from
39 all causes (9, 10), cardiovascular disease (7), and cancer (11).

40 Conventional dietary strategies for minimizing PPGR are based on limiting the glycemic
41 load of meals and snacks by moderating the intake of carbohydrates with low-carbohydrate or
42 ketogenic diets and promoting whole plant foods that contain soluble dietary fiber. However,
43 clinical trials exploring the efficacy of low-carbohydrate and low-glycemic load diets have been
44 mixed and mostly negative (12-18), perhaps because they used one-size-fits-all dietary
45 approaches. Recent studies have demonstrated considerable inter-individual variability in PPGR
46 to the same foods (1), suggesting the need for more precise methods for predicting and
47 controlling PPGR.

48 In the Personal Nutrition Project (hereafter, PNP), the co-principal investigator (ES)
49 devised the first personalized machine learning algorithm for predicting an individual's PPGR.
50 In brief, a training data set was compiled from 800 individuals that included a pool of over 70
51 features including profiling using metagenome sequencing to capture key gut microbiota-based
52 features associated with glucose tolerance and glycemic responses (e.g., bacterial abundances,
53 bacterial diversity, bacterial growth rates, gene abundances, biologic pathway abundances,
54 Single Nuclei Polymorphisms and structural variations). Also collected were one full week of
55 interstitial glucose measurements using a continuous glucose monitor (CGM), a one-week log of
56 date- and time-stamped meals and snacks with related nutritional information (e.g.,
57 macronutrient distribution), HbA1c, and participant characteristics (e.g., physical activity, sleep

58 times, stress and hunger levels recorded in a PNP mobile app). Using stochastic gradient
59 boosting regression methods, data were extracted from the training set in an iterative fashion that
60 allowed the computer to “learn” from prior data and build an optimized model for predicting
61 PPGR. The derived model was validated in a new cohort of 100 participants, with the algorithm
62 dramatically outperforming carbohydrate content in predicting glycemic response (19). The
63 algorithm was validated in a US sample (20). Details regarding this algorithm have been
64 published elsewhere (1, 19, 20).

65 The Personal Diet Study was a randomized clinical trial to compare two weight loss
66 interventions, a one-size-fits-all low-fat diet (hereafter, *Standardized*) versus a diet guided by the
67 PNP algorithm (hereafter, *Personalized*). As we presented in a prior publication, no statistically
68 significant between groups differences in weight loss were observed (21). The purpose of the
69 current report is to examine between group differences in glycemic variability (GV) and HbA1c
70 during the active intervention period. We hypothesized that compared to those randomized to
71 *Standardized*, individuals randomized to *Personalized* would have greater reductions in GV and
72 HbA1c at 6 months.

73 **Methods**

74 **Study objective and approvals**

75 The Personal Diet Study was a randomized controlled trial to compare the effects of
76 *Personalized* and *Standardized* diet interventions on weight loss in participants with prediabetes
77 or moderately-controlled T2D (ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT03336411). The trial was
78 conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (as revised in 2013) and was approved
79 by the NYU Grossman School of Medicine Institutional Review Board (IRB #17-00741).
80 Informed consent was obtained from all study participants. A detailed study design and

81 intervention protocol have been published elsewhere and are briefly described here (22, 23). The
82 goal of this report is to examine between group differences in GV and HbA1c at 3 months and 6
83 months follow-up.

84

85 **Participants**

86 Participants were recruited primarily from NYU Langone Health (NYULH) between
87 January 2018 and March 2021. Potentially eligible participants received an IRB approved
88 message on their MyChart patient portals, where a brief overview of the study and an invitation
89 to self-refer were provided. Participants were also recruited from ClinicalTrials.gov and
90 iConnect, which is a NYULH hosted website outlining all the active clinical trials conducted at
91 NYULH and can serve as a platform for self-referral. English speaking adults ages 18 to 80 years
92 old, with comorbid overweight or obesity ($27 \text{ kg/m}^2 \leq \text{body mass index (BMI)} \leq 50 \text{ kg/m}^2$) and
93 prediabetes or moderately-controlled T2D ($5.7\% \leq \text{HbA1C} \leq 8\%$) managed with lifestyle alone
94 or lifestyle plus metformin, with an estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) $> 60 \text{ ml/min/1.73}$
95 m^2 , were eligible for the study. See **Supplementary Table 1** for detailed eligibility criteria.

96

97 **Screening and Data Collection Procedures**

98 Pre-screening to determine potential eligibility and interest was conducted via phone.
99 Before the COVID-19 pandemic, potential participants were scheduled for an in-person visit at
100 the Clinical Research Center at the NYULH Clinical and Translational Science Institute (CRC-
101 CTSI), to obtain consent and additional screening measurements (HbA1c, eGFR). Initially,
102 height was measured to the nearest 1 cm using a SECA 213 Stadiometer (Seca GmbH & Co.

103 KG, Hamburg, Germany), and weight measured to the nearest 0.1 kg in light clothing without
104 shoes using a Stow-Weight scale (Scale-Tronix, Welch Allyn, Skaneateles, NY, USA).

105 Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, after March 15, 2020, in-person screening, consent, and
106 measurement procedures were conducted via videoconferencing (Cisco Webex, San Jose,
107 California, USA). Weight was obtained from an electronic scale shipped to potential participants
108 (RENPHO, Joicom Corporation, Eastvale, CA, USA), and data were transferred via Bluetooth to
109 a corresponding mobile application which study staff were able to access electronically. Height
110 was self-reported. HbA1c and eGFR values were obtained from electronic medical records if
111 performed within the last 6 months. Otherwise, potential participants were guided via Webex to
112 obtain point-of-care HbA1c using the study-provided A1cNow monitor (PTS Diagnostics,
113 Whitestown, IN, USA). Kidney disease diagnosis was used in lieu of eGFR data, if eGFR data
114 were not available.

115

116 **Randomization**

117 Randomization was done in blocks of 4 to equally allocate participants to one of two
118 arms: (1) *Standardized* or (2) *Personalized*. Each study ID was preassigned a randomization arm.
119 As will be discussed in the Intervention Strategy below, blood testing and stool samples were
120 required by the PNP algorithm for predicting PPGRs in *Personalized* participants. Additionally,
121 stool samples were shipped to Israel for processing and programming of the PNP app to provide
122 PPGR feedback that was personalized to the individual participant. Because of limited
123 resources, and in order to minimize participant burden and delays in reprogramming of the PNP
124 app, blood and stool samples were collected from *Personalized* participants at baseline. In other
125 words, randomization was performed prior to baseline assessment. However, randomization was

126 performed by the study statistician, independent of measurements; the data reported here were
127 derived from objective measures not subject to investigator bias, and participants remained
128 blinded to randomization assignment until week 5 of the intervention.

129

130 **Intervention Strategy**

131 *Both Groups.* Participants in both groups received an intensive technology-supported
132 behavioral intervention program targeting 7% weight loss and a calorie goal (deficit of 500
133 kcal/day). Originally, participants' calorie goals were calculated using resting energy expenditure,
134 measured using indirect calorimetry (Quark RMR, COSMED; Rome, Italy) with an activity factor
135 of 1.4. In March 2020, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, we discontinued the use of indirect
136 calorimetry; and calculated participants' calorie goals using the Mifflin St-Jeor equation with an
137 activity factor of 1.4 (24). Participants engaged in registered dietitian-led, group-based, behavioral
138 counseling that was informed by Social Cognitive Theory (25) and the Diabetes Prevention
139 Program (DPP) (26). Counseling was conducted via Webex weekly for 4 weeks, then every other
140 week for 20 weeks. Sessions covered both educational content (e.g., obesity risks, benefits of
141 weight loss, strategies for restricting calories, aerobic exercise and strength training, dealing with
142 weight loss plateaus) and behavioral strategies (e.g., establishing relevance of behavior change,
143 goal setting, self-reward, and problem solving around common barriers to weight loss success).
144 To assure fidelity, each session was anchored by two brief (~5 minute) animated videos which
145 were interspersed with open-ended questions designed to elicit discussion about experiences,
146 values and feelings; evaluate learning; and provide participants with the opportunity to practice
147 applying new content (e.g., evaluating dietary intake, setting goals, seeking solutions around
148 barriers encountered). Each session lasted approximately one hour. Participants were advised to

149 gradually build to 150 minutes/week of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity. They were also
150 directed to self-monitor planned meals using the PNP mobile application for an approximately 5-
151 month period, starting from the first day of the intervention. The PNP app provided real-time
152 feedback regarding dietary intake in relation to the intervention targets specific to their
153 randomization assignment (see below). Participants were expected to enter their dietary intake data
154 for about 5 months.

155 For those who did not have a smartphone, a study phone was provided free of charge.
156 Summary reports were sent to participants via email every week for the first four weeks that
157 dietary self-monitoring was expected, and every other week for twenty weeks (22, 23). These
158 reports contained information about dietary self-monitoring adherence, weight loss trajectory,
159 calorie targets, and dietary targets (See **Supplementary Figure 1a and 1b**). Adherence to
160 physical activity recommendations was not assessed, and feedback about physical activity was
161 not provided to study participants.

162 *Standardized.* *Standardized* participants were advised to consume less than 25% of their
163 calories from total fat. The PNP mobile app provided real-time feedback regarding calorie intake
164 and macronutrient distribution of meals and snacks logged by participants.

165 *Personalized.* *Personalized* participants received the same PNP mobile app feedback as
166 the *Standardized* participants, plus meal scores reflecting their predicted PPGR derived from the
167 PNP algorithm (19). To generate meal scores, stool samples were collected in the *Personalized*
168 arm-only at baseline using an OMNIgene Gut stool collection kit (OMR-200; DNA Genotek
169 Inc., Ottawa, ON, Canada). Stool samples were shipped to the Weizmann Institute for
170 microbiome analysis. Features of the gut microbiome were combined with participant level data
171 (HbA1c, anthropometrics, sociodemographic and health variables) to generate personalized meal

172 scores, which were displayed by the PNP app when planned meals or snacks were logged into
173 the app. Meal scores were color-coded using a traffic-light motif with green scores indicating an
174 “excellent” or “very good” PPGR, yellow scores indicating a “good” PPGR, and red scores
175 indicating a “bad” or “very bad” PPGR. Participants were trained to experiment with different
176 food choices (e.g., smaller serving sizes, different ingredients, the addition of healthy fats) to
177 improve their score while remaining under their calorie targets.

178 **Outcomes Assessments**

179 Glycemic variability and HbA1c measurements were collected at baseline, 3-, and 6-
180 months.

181 **Glycemic variability.** The primary objective of this manuscript was to examine the
182 differences in mean amplitude of glycemic excursions (MAGE) at 3 months and 6 months
183 compared to baseline. Secondary endpoints included other measures of GV: mean of CGM
184 glucose readings, standard deviation (SD), coefficient of variation (CV), and continuous overall
185 net glycemic action (CONGA).

186 Participants wore the Abbott FreeStyle Libre Pro (Abbott Park, IL, USA) CGM, which
187 measured interstitial glucose values every 15 minutes for up to 14 days. Participants were
188 blinded to the CGM data. As per manufacturer’s information, data collected in the first 12 hours
189 of CGM placement may produce inaccurate readings related to calibration, therefore these data
190 were removed from analysis (27). Every 24-hour period during which CGM failed to record at
191 least 2 consecutive hours of glucose readings, was excluded from analysis, as this may result in
192 unreliable MAGE estimates (28). After missing glucose values were interpolated, GV measures
193 were calculated for every 24-hour period using EasyGV version 9.0.R2 (Nathan R. Hill,
194 University of Oxford, United Kingdom) and averaged across CGM collection days for baseline,

195 3-months, and 6-month assessments. Participants with at least one day of CGM data were
196 included in the analytic sample.

197 **HbA1c.** Initially, HbA1c values were obtained at each assessment time period at the
198 CRC-CTSI via venipuncture and analyzed using high-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC,
199 Variant II) Turbo analyzer. After the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, HbA1c values were
200 obtained from patients' electronic medical records, or using A1cNow monitors that were shipped
201 to participants' homes at baseline only.

202

203 **Adverse Event Monitoring**

204 All potential adverse events reported by participants were assessed by the principal
205 investigator and research physician, to determine severity and relatedness to study protocol. The
206 IRB was informed of all reportable information. No severe adverse events were identified.

207

208 **Statistical Analysis**

209 Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted using STATA version 15.1 software
210 (StataCorps LLC, College Station, TX, USA). Using Statistical Analysis Software version 9.4
211 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA), we conducted intention-to-treat analyses. Initially, we
212 employed piece-wise linear mixed models to test on whether GV's changing trend was different
213 between two time periods (0-3 months vs. 3-6 months based on the study design) in each arm
214 (29). Specifically, we divided the study period into two segments according to study design:
215 baseline to 3 months and 3 months to 6 months, then fitted the data using linear spline mixed
216 models assuming different slopes within each segment but joined at 3 months. Fixed effects were
217 included for the study arm, two time periods (0-3 and 3-6 months), and interactions of study arm

218 and time period. A random effect was included for the participants. Covariates of age and sex
219 were included for adjustment. The differences of the temporal treatment effects between the two
220 time periods (0-3 months vs. 3-6 months) in both arms were not significant. Therefore, we
221 employed linear mixed models to analyze GV, in which time period (0-6 months), study arm,
222 and the arm×time-period interactions were modeled as fixed effects and the participants were
223 included as a random effect, while adjusting for covariates age and sex. With these models, we
224 estimated the GV group means at 3 and 6 months and GV's changing trend in each treatment
225 group, as well as performed the hypothesis tests to compare the group difference in terms of GV
226 means at 3 and 6 months and GV's changing trend from baseline to 6 months. In all analyses,
227 results were considered statistically significant if p-values were ≤ 0.05 using a two-sided test.
228 We conducted post-hoc subgroup analyses separately by sex. There was an insufficient number
229 of Hispanic participants to conduct subgroup analyses by self-reported ethnicity.

230

231 **Sample size/ Power calculations**

232 This manuscript examined tertiary outcomes of the parent study, the Personal Diet Study.
233 Therefore, the sample size was not calculated for the purpose of the current manuscript. The
234 Personal Diet Study was designed to detect a between group difference as small as 2% in weight
235 loss (%) at the 6-month assessment, with the type I error set at 0.05, and a power of 80%. A
236 sample of at least 164 participants (82 per group) was needed. Because we expected a 20%
237 attrition, the parent study aimed to complete 200 baseline assessments.

238

239

Results

240 **Study participants**

241 Of the 269 participants who completed the study screening, 239 met eligibility criteria,
242 20 declined to participate, 15 were lost to follow-up, and 204 were randomized and completed
243 the baseline assessment. Of those participants, 200 had HbA1c data (*Standardized* = 97,
244 *Personalized* = 103) and 156 had least one day of CGM data (*Standardized* = 75, *Personalized* =
245 81) at baseline and were included in analyses. At baseline, the mean number of usable CGM
246 days was 5.8 (SD = 2.1) for the *Standardized* diet arm, and 5.4 days for the *Personalized* diet
247 arm (SD = 2.0). At 3-months it was 5.4 days (SD = 1.5) vs 5.6 days (SD = 1.7), and at 6-months
248 it was 5.9 days (SD = 1.7) vs 5.5 days (SD = 1.9) for the *Standardized* diet vs *Personalized* diet
249 arms respectively. There was no statistically significant difference in CGM observation days
250 between groups. See **Figure 1** the CONSORT Diagram for more details. Study enrollment ended
251 due to meeting enrollment requirements for the assessment of weight change outcome (primary
252 outcome of the Personal Diet Study).

253 See **Table 1** for participants' characteristics. The final analysis sample consisted of 156
254 adults, the majority were female (66.5%, n = 105), had a Bachelor's degree or higher (69.5%, n =
255 110), and had an annual household income of at least \$75,000 (54.4%, n = 86). The mean age
256 was 59.1 years (SD = 10.7). Over half of the participants identified as White (55.7%, n = 88),
257 24.1% (n = 38) were Black, and most were non-Hispanic or non-Latino/a (83.5 %, n = 132). The
258 average HbA1c at baseline was 5.81% (SD = 0.60).

259

260 **Engagement with the intervention for participants included in the analytic sample.**

261 On average, participants in the *Standardized* diet arm attended 71.1% (SD = 28.3) of the
262 14 group counseling sessions, and participants in the *Personalized* diet arm attended 74.5% of
263 the sessions (SD = 26.6), with no between group differences (p = 0.95) (**Supplementary Figure**

264 2). In contrast, on average the percentage of days participants logged at least 50% of their daily
265 caloric goal in the PNP mobile application, was 33.1% (SD = 34.2) for the *Standardized* diet
266 arm, and 43.3% (SD = 33.8) for the *Personalized* diet arm (**Supplementary Figure 3**). This
267 difference was statistically significant ($p = 0.045$). For both study arms, dietary self-monitoring
268 adherence decreased substantially over time, and dropped to just over 20% during the final week
269 of self-monitoring.

270 **Glycemic Outcomes**

271 Given that the slopes for 0-3 months, 3-6 months, and 0-6 months were the same, we
272 only report the slope for 0-6 months here. See **Table 2** and **Figure 2** for results of linear mixed
273 regressions. Except for CV obtained from CGM glucose measures, other measures of GV and
274 HbA1c values were reduced for both study arms. No statistically significant between group
275 differences were detected for any of the outcomes examined for the full sample or for the
276 analysis stratified by sex. For instance, both groups experienced small, but statistically
277 significant decreases in MAGE during the 6-months follow-up. MAGE decreased by 0.83 mg/dL
278 per month for the *Standardized* diet arm (95% CI: 0.21, 1.46 mg/dL; $p = 0.009$), and 0.79 mg/dL
279 per month for the *Personalized* diet arm (95% CI: 0.19, 1.39 mg/dL; $p = 0.010$), with no
280 statistically significant between group differences ($p = 0.93$).

281 HbA1c decreased by 0.02% per month for the *Standardized* diet arm (95% CI: 0, 0.03%,
282 $p = 0.039$), and 0.01% month for the *Personalized* diet arm (95% CI: 0, 0.03%, $p = 0.057$), with
283 no statistically significant between group differences ($p = 0.83$). See **Supplementary Table 2** for
284 changes from 0-3 months and 3-6 months and **Supplementary Tables 3** for analyses stratified
285 by sex.

286

287

Discussion

288

289 While other studies demonstrate the potential clinical utility of precision nutrition
290 algorithms for glycemic control (1, 19, 30), *Personalized* did not have greater reductions in
291 measures of GV or HbA1c than *Standardized*. Using the PNP algorithm, Ben-Yacov et al. found
292 that individuals with prediabetes randomized to a personalized postprandial glycemia-targeting
293 diet had greater reductions in time above 140 mg/dL and HbA1c at 6 months than those
294 following a Mediterranean diet (31). Compared to the current study, Ben-Yacov et al. reported
295 greater reductions in HbA1c and mean CGM glucose in the personalized arm than what we
296 found in our *Personalized* arm.

297 Our null findings may be partially explained by low dietary self-monitoring adherence
298 rates, which were reported to be high by Ben-Yacov et al. Low adherence rates limited
299 opportunities to obtain useful feedback that could have reduced PPGRs. Ben-Yacov et al. also
300 provided participants with weight maintenance calorie targets and focused on glycemic control
301 whereas the current study provided participants in both groups with calorie-restricted diets.
302 Calorie restriction may have contributed to reduced PPGRs in both groups, which, in turn,
303 limited our ability to detect between group differences in GV. In addition, participants were not
304 selected on the basis of high baseline GV, perhaps limiting our ability to detect an effect.

305 We did not exclude individuals prescribed metformin because the glucose-lowering effect
306 of this drug is thought to be mediated mainly by suppression of hepatic glucose production (32).
307 However, metformin does appear to increase glucose uptake in skeletal muscle (33, 34), reduce
308 intestinal glucose absorption (35), and alter gut microbiota in a manner that reduces

309 inflammation and improves insulin sensitivity (36), all of which could have dampened PPGRs
310 and limited our ability to detect an intervention effect.

311 Although more research is needed to determine the clinical significance of changes in
312 measures of GV, existing literature suggests that the within-group reductions in MAGE, as well
313 as in HbA1c, were not clinically meaningful (37, 38). Nonetheless, both arms had small, but
314 statistically significant reductions in MAGE and SD of glucose values. Mounting evidence
315 suggests that GV is associated with oxidative stress, which may contribute to β -cell deterioration
316 and the development and progression of T2D and its complications (39, 40). While the
317 hypothesized relationship between randomization assignment and GV was not observed, these
318 findings, in agreement with other research (41), support the importance of behavioral weight loss
319 interventions, such as those informed by the DPP, for those with prediabetes and moderately-
320 controlled T2D to reduce glycemic measures.

321 **Strengths and Limitations.** Our study had several limitations. Compared to the general
322 NYC population (42) and, more specifically, the NYC population with overweight and obesity
323 (43), White individuals (55.7%) were over-represented and Hispanic individuals (16.5%) and
324 male (33.5%) participants were under-represented in our sample. Our racial/ethnic distributions
325 are somewhat more representative than rates reported in a systematic review of 71 behavioral
326 weight loss trials featuring technology, in which an average of 73.2% of participants were White
327 and 7.7% were Hispanic (44). Representation of males (33.5%) in our study was slightly better
328 than the average male participation rate of 27% observed in a systematic review of 244 weight
329 loss studies (45). Nonetheless, generalizability of our findings is limited to a primarily White
330 female sample. Initially, the PNP algorithm was developed for and validated in an Israeli sample,
331 with later validation in a primarily White US sample (1). The predictive validity of the PNP

332 algorithm may differ in individuals of other races and ethnicities. Additional research is needed
333 on how biosocial factors (e.g., stress, health behaviors, early life exposures, built environment,
334 and social interactions) (46-48), affect the gut microbiome and their role in PPGR.

335 Although counseling session attendance was high for both study arms, dietary self-
336 monitoring adherence was low overall and differentially lower in *Standardized* than
337 *Personalized*. This may have occurred because participants in *Personalized* were more likely to
338 perceive the feedback they received as useful for making dietary choices, which reinforced self-
339 monitoring behavior. This study did not assess participants' health or digital literacy. Some
340 participants experienced challenges in navigating the PNP app, which was optimized for an
341 Israeli population. Difficulties with the app likely contributed to low adherence rates which, in-
342 turn, limited exposure to the key feature of the intervention for participants in *Personalized* (23).

343 While a large proportion of participants had missing GV data at 3- and 6-month
344 assessments, the linear mixed model allowed for any participant with at least one data point to be
345 included in the analysis. A recent narrative review of 11 studies (5542 participants) employing
346 CGM to guide diabetes management found compliance to be exceptionally high in prescribed
347 wear times ranging from 3 to 168 days (49); our study used blinded CGMs for measurement
348 only, which could have reduced motivation to comply. The study was also interrupted by the
349 COVID-19 pandemic, requiring alterations in the measurement protocol which could have
350 impacted the quality of our measures. For example, following onset of the COVID-19 pandemic,
351 in-person measurement visits were suspended and videoconference-guided CGM self-insertion
352 was employed. Because CGM data were exploratory in nature, we did not aggressively pursue
353 return of complete CGM data. The study was also limited by the need to perform baseline
354 measurements prior to randomization. In addition, because high GV was not part of the

355 enrollment criteria for this study, many participants had baseline values that were relatively low,
356 which may have limited our ability to see between-group differences. Finally, the Personal Diet
357 Study (21) was powered to detect a difference in weight loss and may not have been adequately
358 powered to detect differences in GV and HbA1c.

359 **Implications for research and practice.** Although the current study did not observe
360 between group differences in GV or HbA1c, both arms had reductions in MAGE and SD of
361 glucose values. Weight loss may be an effective approach to limit PPGR in patients with
362 prediabetes and moderately-controlled T2D. Whether reductions in GV were a result of weight
363 loss or greater adherence to dietary self-monitoring will be explored in future analyses. Future
364 studies testing the clinical efficacy of algorithm-based behavioral interventions to reduce PPGR
365 should enroll those with high baseline GV and consider strategies to enhance self-monitoring
366 behavior. Testing such interventions in the absence of calorie restriction may be a better design
367 to demonstrate an intervention effect on glycemia, and we have begun this research. Future
368 studies may benefit from using a dietary self-monitoring application optimized for the US
369 population, such as the DayTwo program, which also uses the PNP algorithm (DayTwo; Walnut
370 Creek, CA). Additional research is needed to assess the predictive validity of the PNP algorithm
371 in a more representative U.S. sample, and to examine how biosocial factors such as stress, health
372 behaviors, early life exposures, built environment, and social interactions affect the gut
373 microbiome and its role in PPGR (46-48).

374 A recent CGM study (50) found distinct glycemic phenotypes in those with prediabetes,
375 based on glucose values during the day relative to overnight. Future analyses on subgroups
376 stratified by their relative daytime and overnight glucose patterns may provide additional
377 markers to identify participants most likely to benefit from precision nutrition therapy. Subgroup

378 analyses are also planned to examine the role of dietary self-monitoring adherence on
379 intervention effects.

380 **Acknowledgements**

381 **Author contributions**

382 Conceptualization and design: MAS, LH, CP, MB, HL, MLP, MC, ES, AS, DSJ, NW, AMS

383 Collection and assembly of data: MLP, MC

384 Data analysis and interpretation: CW, AK, HL, SB

385 Manuscript writing, critical revision of manuscript for important intellectual content: All authors

386 Final approval of the version to be published: All authors

387 **Conflict of Interests: None**

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Table 1. Participants' Sociodemographic and Other Baseline Characteristics (participants who withdrew or became ineligible after baseline are included)

	All Participants (n = 156)		Standardized Diet Arm (n = 75)		Personalized Diet Arm (n = 81)	
Sex (% , n)						
Male	33.5%	53	40.8%	31	26.8%	22
Female	66.5%	105	59.2%	45	73.2%	60
Age (mean, SD)	59.1	(10.7)	59.9	(10.6)	58.4	(10.8)
Race (% , n)						
White / Caucasian	55.7%	88	57.9%	44	53.7%	44
Black / African American	24.1%	38	25.0%	19	23.2%	19
Other	19.6%	31	17.1%	13	22.0%	18
Missing	0.6%	1			1.2%	1
Ethnicity (% , n)						
Non-Hispanic	83.5%	132	84.2%	64	82.9%	68
Hispanic	16.5%	26	15.8%	12	17.1%	14
Education (% , n)						
High school	13.3%	21	13.2%	10	13.4%	11
Associate degree	5.7%	9	7.9%	6	3.7%	3
Technical degree / certificate	5.7%	9	5.3%	4	6.1%	5
Bachelor's degree	25.9%	41	27.6%	21	24.4%	20
Master's degree	31.6%	50	25.0%	19	37.8%	31
Doctoral or Professional	12.0%	19	17.1%	13	7.3%	6
Missing	5.7%	9	3.9%	3	7.3%	6
Employed (% , n)						
No	26.6%	42	31.6%	24	22.0%	18
Yes	73.4%	116	68.4%	52	78.0%	64
Income (% , n)						
\$10,000 - \$19,999	1.9%	3	2.6%	2	1.2%	1
\$20,000 - \$29,999	1.9%	3	2.6%	2	1.2%	1
\$30,000 - \$39,999	5.1%	8	3.9%	3	6.1%	5
\$40,000 - \$49,999	5.1%	8	3.9%	3	6.1%	5
\$50,000 - \$74,999	19.0%	30	19.7%	15	18.3%	15
\$75,000 - \$99,999	15.2%	24	14.5%	11	15.9%	13
> \$100,000	39.2%	62	40.8%	31	37.8%	31
Missing	12.7%	20	11.8%	9	13.4%	11
Baseline BMI (mean, SD)	33.7	(4.8)	33.0	(4.6)	34.3	(5.0)
Baseline HbA1c in % (mean, SD)	5.8	0.6	5.8	0.6	5.8	0.5
Baseline HbA1c category (% , n)						
< 6.5%	88.0%	139	85.5%	65	90.2%	74
≥ 6.5%	12.0%	19	14.5%	11	9.8%	8
MAGE (mg/dL) ¹ (mean, SD)	51.9	(19.3)	53.0	(20.0)	51.0	(18.8)
CONGA (mg/dL) ¹ (mean, SD)	91.5	(19.5)	93.5	(21.7)	89.6	(17.1)
Glucose: CV (mg/dL) ¹ (mean, SD)	18.1	(4.6)	18.0	(4.1)	18.2	(5.0)
Glucose: SD (mg/dL) ¹ (mean, SD)	19.0	(7.5)	19.4	(8.1)	18.6	(6.9)
Glucose: mean (mg/dL) ¹ (mean, SD)	103.4	(21.5)	105.6	(24.1)	101.4	(18.6)

Note. Race and ethnicity are self-reported. SD = standard deviation, CONGA = continuous overall net glyceic action, MAGE = mean amplitude of glyceic excursions, CV = coefficient of variation, ¹ data obtained at the baseline assessment.

Table 2. Results of Linear Mixed Regressions Intention to Treat Analysis: Change per month from baseline to the 6-month assessment in HbA1c and Glycemic Variability Outcomes

	Standardized Diet Arm				Personalized Diet Arm				Difference: Personalized minus Standardized Diet Arm			
	<i>B</i>	LL	UL	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	LL	UL	<i>p</i>	<i>B</i>	LL	UL	<i>p</i>
HbA1c %	-0.02	-0.03	0.00	0.039	-0.01	-0.03	0.00	0.057	0.00	-0.02	0.02	0.832
Mean Glucose Values (mg/dL)	-1.34	-2.18	-0.50	0.002	-0.78	-1.58	0.02	0.056	0.56	-0.60	1.72	0.345
SD of Glucose Values (mg/dL)	-0.30	-0.53	-0.07	0.010	-0.29	-0.51	-0.07	0.010	0.01	-0.30	0.33	0.928
CV of Glucose Values	0.04	-0.15	0.22	0.702	-0.15	-0.33	0.03	0.091	-0.19	-0.45	0.07	0.149
MAGE (mg/dL)	-0.83	-1.46	-0.21	0.009	-0.79	-1.39	-0.19	0.010	0.04	-0.82	0.91	0.925
CONGA (mg/dL)	-1.22	-2.00	-0.43	0.003	-0.62	-1.36	0.13	0.103	0.60	-0.48	1.68	0.275

Note. LL = lower level of a 95% confidence interval, UL = upper level of a 95% confidence interval, *p* = *p*-value, SD = standard deviation, CV = coefficient of variation, MAGE = Mean Amplitude of Glycemic Excursions, CONGA = Continuous overall net glycemic action. This intention to treat analysis was performed using a linear mixed regression adjusted for age and sex. For HbA1c: *n*=97, 44, and 35 for the *Standardized* diet arm; *n*=103, 53, and 40 for the *Personalized* diet arm, at baseline, 3 months, and 6 months assessments, respectively. For measures of glycemic variability (mean glucose values; SD of glucose values; CV of glucose values; MAGE; CONGA): *n*=75, 48, and 43 for the *Standardized* diet arm *n*=81, 55, and 49 for the *Personalized* diet arm, at baseline, 3 months, and 6 months, respectively

Figure 1. CONSORT Diagram

Figure 2. Results of Mixed Linear Regressions Intention to Treat Analysis: Changes in HbA1c, MAGE, and Coefficient of Variation with 95% Confidence Intervals

Note. *MAGE: Mean Amplitude of Glycemic Excursions.*

We conducted intention-to-treat analysis using piecewise linear mixed regression models controlling for age and sex. The black and grey bars in Figure 2 represent the 95% confidence interval.

The numbers of participants contributing data at each time point (0, 3, and 6 months) and for each study arm, are different due to missing values. For HbA1c: n=97, 44, and 35 for the *Standardized* diet arm; n=103, 53, and 40 for the *Personalized* diet arm, at baseline, 3 months, and 6 months assessments, respectively. For MAGE: n=75, 48, and 43 for the *Standardized* diet arm n=81, 55, and 49 for the *Personalized* diet arm, at baseline, 3 months, and 6 months, respectively. Coefficient of variation: n=75, 48, and 43 for the *Standardized* diet arm; n=81, 55, and 49 for the *Personalized* diet arm, at baseline, 3 months, and 6 months, respectively.

