

SORNEK, Patrycja, IZDEBSKA, Wiktoria, STANEK, Jakub, PERKOWSKA, Klaudia, KAŻMIERCZAK, Anna, MICH, Anna, PAWLAK, Igor, BORKOWSKA, Agata, CIESIELSKI, Radosław and KIELB, Anna. Methods of lowering the glycemic index of food and their underlying mechanisms - a review. *Quality in Sport*. 2024;20:54118. eISSN 2450-3118.

<https://dx.doi.org/10.12775/QS.2024.20.54118>

<https://apcz.umk.pl/QS/article/view/54118>

The journal has been 20 points in the Ministry of Higher Education and Science of Poland parametric evaluation. Annex to the announcement of the Minister of Higher Education and Science of 05.01.2024. No. 32553.

Has a Journal's Unique Identifier: 201398. Scientific disciplines assigned: Economics and finance (Field of social sciences); Management and Quality Sciences (Field of social sciences).

Punkty Ministerialne z 2019 - aktualny rok 20 punktów. Załącznik do komunikatu Ministra Szkolnictwa Wyższego i Nauki z dnia 05.01.2024 r. Lp. 32553. Posiada Unikatowy Identyfikator Czasopisma: 201398.

Przypisane dyscypliny naukowe: Ekonomia i finanse (Dziedzina nauk społecznych); Nauki o zarządzaniu i jakości (Dziedzina nauk społecznych).

© The Authors 2024;

This article is published with open access at Licensee Open Journal Systems of Nicolaus Copernicus University in Torun, Poland Open Access. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Noncommercial License which permits any noncommercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author (s) and source are credited. This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non commercial license Share alike. (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/>) which permits unrestricted, non commercial use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited.

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

Received: 07.08.2024. Revised: 20.08.2024. Accepted: 21.08.2024. Published: 23.08.2024.

Methods of lowering the glycemic index of food and their underlying mechanisms- a review

Patrycja Sornek,

Military Medical Academy Memorial Teaching Hospital- Central Veteran Hospital ul. Stefana Żeromskiego 113, 90-549 Lodz, Poland

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0003-9630-055X>

E-mail: sornekpatrycja5@gmail.com

Wiktoria Izdebska,

J. Gromkowski Regional Specialist Hospital in Wrocław, Koszarowa 5, 51-149 Wrocław, Poland

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0005-0242-141X>

E-mail: wiktoriaizdebska@gmail.com

Jakub Stanek,

Medical University of Lodz, al. Tadeusza Kosciuszki 4, 90-419 Lodz, Poland

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9450-7261>

E-mail: jakubstanek22@gmail.com

Klaudia Perkowska,

Military Medical Institute, Szaserów 128, 04-349 Warsaw, Poland

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0001-7362-4995>

E-mail: dr.kperkowska@gmail.com

Anna Kaźmierczak,

4th Military Clinical Hospital in Wrocław, Weigla 5, 53-114 Wrocław, Poland

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0000-8435-6685>

E-mail: a.kazmierczak.1998@o2.pl

Anna Mich,

Independent Public Hospital in Mińsk Mazowiecki, ul. Szpitalna 37, 05-300 Mińsk Mazowiecki

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0004-6299-5506>

E-mail: aniamich97@icloud.com

Igor Pawlak,

Independent Public Hospital in Mińsk Mazowiecki, ul. Szpitalna 37, 05-300 Mińsk Mazowiecki

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0003-1942-9296>

E-mail: igor.a.pawlak@gmail.com

Agata Borkowska,

Military Institute of Aviation Medicine, ul. Zygmunta Krasińskiego 54/56, 01-755 Warsaw, PL

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0008-7347-7762>

E-mail: agata.borkowska.ab@wp.pl

Radosław Ciesielski,

Independent Public Hospital in Mińsk Mazowiecki, ul. Szpitalna 37, 05-300 Mińsk Mazowiecki

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3458-2024>

E-mail: radoslaw.ciesielski@yahoo.com

Anna Kielb,

5th Military Clinical Hospital in Krakow, ul. Wrocławska 1-3, 30-901 Krakow, Poland

Orcid: <https://orcid.org/0009-0005-3152-5429>

E-mail: akielb97@gmail.com

Abstract

Introduction and purpose of review: The term glycemic index (GI) is the measure of how much a specific substance increases the postprandial blood glucose level [1]. Substances with lower GI promote a lower glycemic response and are said to promote satiety, postprandial insulin secretion and maintain insulin sensitivity and therefore help to control blood glucose concentrations [2]. According to guidelines on the management of patients with diabetes, type 2 diabetes mellitus patients' source of carbohydrates in diet should be whole grain cereal products especially with low GI [3]. Type 2 diabetes is a chronic, metabolic disease occurring mostly in adults. It leads to numerous chronic complications that include e.g. macroangiopathy, retinopathy, nephropathy, neuropathy and diabetic foot as well as vulnerability to infections [2]. These complications lower the quality of life, generate costs when treating them and eventually lead to death.

Currently there are about 422 million people with diabetes worldwide and the number is expected to rise [3]. Therefore it is crucial for patients to maintain their blood glucose at stable levels to prevent progression of the disease and its complications. The glycemic response can be modified by implementing a low GI diet. The aim of this study is to provide an overview of selected strategies lowering the glycemic index and the probable mechanisms by which they work.

Methods: For this review, articles in the Pubmed and Google Scholar databases were analyzed as well as the references of previously found articles.

Current state of knowledge: Existing studies show that some strategies alter the glycemic index and glycemic response that can help diabetic patients to better control their glucose blood level.

Summary: This review summarizes studies concerning methods of lowering the glycemic index and mechanisms of action of those specific methods.

Keywords: glycemic index, GI, postprandial glucose level, type 2 diabetes mellitus, metabolic disease

1. Background

The term glycemic index was first introduced in 1981 by D.J Jenkins and colleagues and was used to classify food based on how it affects the postprandial blood glucose level (blood glucose level 2 hours after food intake) relative to the same amount of carbohydrates [1]. Now, the GI value is the incremental area under the (blood glucose response) curve (IAUC) for the assessed substance, expressed as a percentage of an equal amount of the standard control (glucose) [6]. The formula for GI is shown below.

$$\text{Glycemic index} = \frac{\text{blood glucose level after digestion of a product containing 50 g of carbohydrates}}{\text{blood glucose level after ingestion of product containing 50 g of glucose}} \times 100\%$$

Fig. 1. Glycemic index formula.

This index rates carbohydrates on a scale from 1 to 100 with glucose (and sometimes white bread) being the reference food and having by definition the GI of 100. The GI values are divided into three categories according to the International Standards Organization. The cut points for this classification are [7]:

- high (GI > 70)
- medium (GI 56-69)
- low (GI <55)

Examples of foods divided into these GI groups are shown in the table below.

Grains and starches		
Low glycemic index	Medium glycemic index	High glycemic index
Heavy Mixed Grain Breads	White bread	Bread (White, Whole Wheat)
Sourdough Bread	Pita Bread (White, Whole Wheat)	Corn Flakes™ Cereal
Tortilla (Whole Grain)	Pumpernickel Bread	Jasmine Rice
Oats (Steel Cut)	Whole Grain Wheat Bread	Sticky Rice
Pasta (Al Dente, Firm)	Oats (Quick)	Potato (Red, White, Hot)
Rice (converted, parboiled)	Brown Rice	Potato (Instant Mashed)
Quinoa	Rice Noodles	Rice Cakes

Peas	Parsnip	Pretzels
Popcorn	Potato (Red, White, Cooled)	Soda Crackers
Fruits		
Apple	Banana (Ripe, Yellow)	Banana (Brown, Overripe)
Peach	Raisins	
Banana (Green, Unripe)	Grapes	
Berries	Pineapple	
Grapefruit		

Some fruits have no glycemic index value as they have less than 15 g of available carbohydrate per serving (e.g. lemon and lime) [8].

Vegetables		
Low glycemic index	Medium glycemic index	High glycemic index
Carrot (fresh and cooked)	Beetroot	Turnip
Zucchini	Cauliflower (cooked)	
Green vegetables (eg spinach, lettuce)		
Milk, Alternatives and Other Beverages		
Almond Milk		Rice Milk
Cow Milk (Skim, 1%, 2%, Whole)		
Greek Yogurt		
Soy Milk		
Yogurt (Skim, 1%, 2%, Whole)		
Meat and Alternatives		
Baked Beans	Lentil Soup (ready-made)	
Chickpeas	Split Pea Soup (ready-made)	
Kidney Beans		
Lentils		

Table 1. Examples of foods divided into low, medium and high GI foods [8], [9].

Meat, poultry and fish are rich in protein and contain zero or very small amounts of carbohydrates, therefore they were not given a GI value in the classification. They are zero-glycemic foods [8].

The substances with lower GI raise the postprandial glucose levels to a lesser extent than those with medium or high GI. Therefore they are recommended in the diet of patients with metabolic diseases such as diabetes mellitus.

Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus (T2DM) is the most common type of DM. It is a chronic metabolic disease and a result of genetic predisposition and environmental factors combined. It is caused by impaired insulin secretion and its incorrect action on tissues- the feedback loops between them do not function properly.

The tissues become insulin resistant which means the insulin-sensitive tissues (liver, muscles and adipose tissue) do not respond to the hormone the right way. This resistance results in increased glucose production in the liver and decreased glucose uptake in muscle and adipose tissue as well as insulin overproduction in β -cells in order to compensate for higher glucose concentrations. Eventually excessive insulin production leads to beta cell exhaustion which makes compensation mechanisms no longer effective and hyperglycemia occurs [10].

T2DM is a progressive condition with various chronic complications such as retinopathy, nephropathy, neuropathy and diabetic foot as well as vulnerability to infections, osteoporosis, arthropathies and liver damage. The most severe complication is macroangiopathy causing cardiovascular diseases such as coronary disease, congestive heart failure and arterial hypertension. The majority of deaths in T2DM patients are caused by cardiovascular incidents [4], [11].

Currently there are about 422 million people with diabetes worldwide. In the past 3 decades the prevalence of type 2 diabetes has risen and is estimated to rise further up to 643 million by 2030 and 783 million by 2045. [5]. 6.7 million deaths in 2021 were associated with diabetes and its complications.

Furthermore, healthcare costs for patients with diabetes mellitus are up to three times higher than for the non-affected general population. In 2021 at least USD 966 billion was spent on treating diabetes mellitus and its related complications [12].

The data shows that the world epidemic of diabetes is not only a health but also an economic issue and effective pharmaceutical and non pharmaceutical strategies need to be implemented. T2DM management is complex and includes therapeutic education, physical exercise, psychological management, pharmacological treatment, reducing cardiovascular risks, treating complications and behavioral therapy which includes a healthy diet. According to guidelines on the management of patients with diabetes, the primary source of carbohydrates in diet should be whole grain cereal products especially with low GI, which helps to control blood glucose levels [3]. The aim of this review is to sum up the methods of lowering the GI of food and their mechanisms.

2. What alters the glycemic index

The quality of diet is an important factor in preventing metabolic diseases as well as managing the course of diseases such as prediabetes and diabetes. Low glycemic index diets are suggested to control postprandial elevations of blood glucose and reduce the risk of dysglycemia [13], [14], [15].

The concept of glycemic index becomes more popular among the general public and the GI charts are easy to find, however there are a variety of factors affecting it, that might be helpful when included in diet, that are not yet common. These strategies should be popularized in society so that people create a habit of eating even more consciously.

The factors influencing GI include the combination of foods with different nutritional compositions, food processing such as cooking or freezing and addition of organic acids or soluble fibers. Implementing these methods to diet and lifestyle is convenient and does not require permanent carbohydrate reduction or avoidance of high-glycemic index carbohydrate foods [17].

2.1. Acetic acid

Acetic acid is an organic acid used in meal preparation in the form of vinegar. Vinegar is a aqueous solution obtained from the anaerobic conversion of sugars to alcohol and aerobic oxidation of that alcohol to acetic acid [16]. Several studies show that addition of vinegar in high-glycemic meals reduces the postprandial blood glucose concentration and insulin response to a significant extent [17], [18]. For example Sugiyama and colleagues measured the GI of white rice after adding either vinegar (11 g/portion) or pickled cucumbers (15 g vinegar/portion) which resulted in 25–35% reduction of GI value [19]. Then Brighenti et al added 17 mmol acetic acid in the form of a vinaigrette sauce with sliced lettuce and white bread and obtained 30% reduction of IAUC [20]. In another study with T2DM patients involved, the effect of adding vinegar to meals with a high vs low GI was compared. The group that got the meal with a high GI plus vinegar had a lower AUC compared to those without vinegar addition. On the contrary, no significant differences were observed between the groups with a low GI + vinegar diet compared to the same food with no acetic acid [18].

Gastric emptying, digestion, and absorption in the small intestine determine how fast glucose enters the bloodstream [21]. Although the mechanism by which the acetic acid reduces the postprandial blood glucose is not fully clear, there are several hypotheses. One of them is that vinegar can lower gastric emptying by inhibiting digestive enzymes, for example α -amylase. Turning the digestion conditions more acidic may inhibit salivary α -amylase, as studies show that pH below 4.0 causes its deactivation. Vinegars used in the food industry have a pH between 2 and 3, so they may inactivate the enzyme at the beginning of the digestion process. This causes delaying of nutrients release until they reach the intestines [16], [17], [18]. Another mechanism involves acetic acid binding to and activating the free fatty acid receptor 2 (FFAR2) localized in the enteroendocrine L-cells of the human intestine. Animal models have shown that this activation can lead to the release of some hormones such as peptide Y-Y (PYY) and glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1). The last hormone causes delayed gastric emptying and reduces appetite. Also there is evidence suggesting that SCFA (short chain fatty acids, so acetic acid) can directly or indirectly activate AMPK. They can stimulate the activation of AMPK in tissues for example the liver [24], [25]. When AMPK is activated, it can decrease gluconeogenesis and lipogenesis in the liver and cause glycogen replenishment [26], [27].

Despite its possible benefits regarding blood glucose level control, vinegar should be administered with caution as excessive amounts can cause adverse effects. There was a case of a 28-year-old woman admitted to the hospital after ingesting 250 mL of vinegar (i.e. 12.5 g of acetic acid) per day for 6 years. She had muscle cramps and hypokalemia. Her results showed urinary potassium wasting and abnormal sodium excretion in correlation to the

stimulated plasma renin activity. Her condition was proven to be caused by excessive vinegar intake [26].

2.2 Addition of macronutrients: fiber, fats and proteins.

Another way of altering the GI index of a meal is the addition of foods rich in protein, fiber and fat to carbohydrates. They can be added combined or solo. All of them delay gastric emptying, which means the food needs more time to go from stomach to the intestine. This reduces the rate of food absorption and results in a reduced glycemic response.

2.2.1. Proteins

Proteins, besides their effect on delayed gastric emptying, interact with starch. It has been observed that a protein matrix surrounding the starch granules in foods such as legumes forms some kind of a physical interaction inside the endosperm or cotyledon. This interaction seems to restrict the access of amylolytic enzymes to starch, so it limits the rate of α -amylolysis, which means it slows down carbohydrate breakdown [29], [30], [31].

2.2.2. Fats

Fat reduces the postprandial glucose level by increasing the viscosity of the intestinal contents which has an effect on the rate of gastric emptying [32], [33]. High viscosity inhibits emulsification and precipitation has an impact on the emptying of nutrients.

2.2.3. Fiber

Dietary fiber (DF) makes up a group of carbohydrates that are resistant to hydrolysis by endogenous enzymes in the small intestine. The most important source of DF are plants. Fiber plays a role in the encapsulation of food particles, where cell walls may remain unbroken even after chewing and other stages of the digestion [34]. Some DF containing substances such as psyllium, soluble corn fiber, guar gum and polydextrose exert an effect on the function of the stomach that includes digestive tract passage time and chyme viscosity and this way they affect the nutrient passage. Viscous fibers also reduce the glucose absorption through the mucosa in intestines [35]. Lobos et al conducted a study that compared a meal with a high GI (2.2 g fiber) to another with a low GI (4.9 0.5g fiber), a 46% decrease in GR was obtained in IAUC [36]. In another study T2DM patients were given two doses of psyllium (6.8 or 13.6 g/day) for 12 weeks. It resulted in 25% GI and 39% GL reductions, giving a low-GI and low-GL food compared to gluten-free bread with medium GI and GL values. Additionally, both doses significantly reduced glycated hemoglobin levels after twelve weeks compared to the placebo [35].

2.3. Ripeness

During ripening, the texture of the eg fruits changes as a result of the hydrolysis of starches due to reduction of their fiber content during degradation of the cell walls. This way, sugars are formed that generate a sweeter taste. For fruits that continue ripening after being harvested (banana, apple, pear, kiwi, peach, melon and plum), the starch is converted to simple sugars

(fructose and glucose) and increases its GI so at the same time its RG [37]. In a study using under- and over-ripe bananas (about 20 g of carbohydrate) was compared with an equivalent amount of white bread in 10 well-controlled Type 2 diabetic volunteers. In the course of the observation the IAUC of bananas increased due to ripening from 42% to 69% of the area obtained after white bread (control, GI=100) [38].

2.4. Food processing

2.4.1. Cooking

Structure and digestibility of starchy food are affected by processing methods, and this could influence glycemic response [39]. Cooking in general destabilizes starch granules, so that glucose chains are able to undergo gelatinization (a transition process of starch, by which the granules break down into a mixture of polymers-in-solution) [37], [39]. The process involves breaking of hydrogen bonds into amylose and amylopectin. Gelatinized starch is characterized by increased sensitivity to amylases, so is rapidly hydrolyzed to saccharides, resulting in increased digestibility [40]. Interestingly, it has been observed that the way of cooking has an impact on the GI value. There are differences in GI values between equivalent foods when prepared by boiling, roasting, frying or heated using a microwave. A study on processing sweet potatoes showed that boiling resulted in lower GI values than frying, baking, and roasting [41]. Another study showed differences between preparing oatmeal by traditional cooking, by heating in the microwave for 3 minutes and by heating in the microwave for 5 minutes. The results were as follows: conventionally heated oat flakes contained the lowest amount of starch and highest amount of carbohydrates easy to digest. The 5 min microwave oats heated also presented high amounts of carbohydrates easy to digest, though this amount was lower than for conventionally heated oat flakes. The lowest GI value and oats richest in starch were obtained after heating in the microwave for 3 minutes.

The probable explanation for this might be related to shorter time of processing with less extensive stirring, so less physical interaction between particles such as colliding. Also the shorter exposure to temperature that allows gel formation may be the reason. This way the amount of starch granules releasing amylose chains that are further subjected to α -amylase hydrolysis is limited [42].

2.4.2 Freezing

Procedures decreasing the moisture content of foods containing starch during storage or preparation influence the formation of gels, changing the pattern of food absorption [37]. Cooling conditions and freezing are proven to cause retrogradation of starch, which lowers the glycemic response. Retrogradation results in formation of a resistant starch, which means it cannot be digested by amylases in the small intestine, so it slows down digestion and thus the glycemic response. Importantly, freezing and defrosting makes food pass through

retrogradation twice, once while freezing and then by defrosting. A study conducted by Burton et al showed a significant decrease in GI after freezing and defrosting [43].

2.5 Order of food consumption

Data from some studies suggests that the order of food intake affects the glycemic index. Varying combinations of order of consuming were compared with similar results. Carbohydrates consumed first result in glucose and insulin rise after 60 minutes of intake. Proteins with vegetables or vegetables alone eaten first gave attenuated postprandial glucose. This might happen because of fiber present in vegetables, that delays glucose absorption [44], [45].

3. Conclusions

The review showed various strategies that can alter the GI values by lowering it and thus providing a better management of blood glucose levels and the course of type 2 diabetes mellitus. It is important to spread information concerning those methods among patients to simplify planning healthy meals that reduce blood glucose fluctuations and so the risk of diabetes progress and complications.

Disclosure**Author's contribution**

Conceptualization: Patrycja Sornek and Wiktoria Izdebska; Methodology: Jakub Stanek; Software: Klaudia Perkowska; Check: Anna Kaźmierczak; Formal analysis: Patrycja Sornek; Investigation: Patrycja Sornek and Jakub Stanek; Resources: Radosław Ciesielski; Data curation: Igor Pawlak and Wiktoria Izdebska; Writing- rough preparation: Agata Borkowska; Writing- review and editing: Anna Mich; Visualization: Anna Kielb Project administration: Patrycja Sornek

All authors have read and agreed with the published version of the manuscript.

Funding statement

This research received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement

Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement

Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement

Not applicable.

Informed Consent Statement

Not applicable.

Conflict of interest

The authors deny any conflict of interest.

References:

1. Jenkins DJ, Wolever TM, Taylor RH, et al. Glycemic index of foods: a physiological basis for carbohydrate exchange. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 1981;34(3):362-366. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/34.3.362>
2. Brand-Miller JC, Holt SH, Pawlak DB, McMillan J. Glycemic index and obesity. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2002;76(1):281S-5S. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/76/1.281S>
3. Araszkiwicz A, Bandurska-Stankiewicz E, Borys S, et al. 2021 Guidelines on the management of patients with diabetes. A position of Diabetes Poland. *Clinical Diabetology*. 2021;10(1):1-113. doi:<https://doi.org/10.5603/dk.2021.0001>
4. P, Damaskos C, Garmpis N, Garmpi A, Savvanis S, Diamantis E. Complications of the Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. *Current Cardiology Reviews*. 2020;16(4):249-251. doi:<https://doi.org/10.2174/1573403x1604201229115531>
5. World Health Organization. Diabetes. World Health Organization. Published 2024. https://www.who.int/health-topics/diabetes#tab=tab_1
6. Esfahani A, Wong JMW, Mirrahimi A, Srirachikul K, Jenkins DJA, Kendall CWC. The Glycemic Index: Physiological Significance. *Journal of the American College of Nutrition*. 2009;28(sup4):439S-445S. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/07315724.2009.10718109>
7. Iso.org. Published 2021. <https://www.iso.org/obp/ui/#iso:std:iso:26642:ed-1:v1:en>
8. Canadian Diabetes Association Clinical Practice Guidelines Expert Committee, Cheng AYY. Canadian Diabetes Association 2013 clinical practice guidelines for the prevention and management of diabetes in Canada. Introduction. *Canadian journal of diabetes*. 2013;37 Suppl 1:S1-3. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcjd.2013.01.009>
9. Atkinson FS, Brand-Miller JC, Foster-Powell K, Buyken AE, Goletzke J. International tables of glycemic index and glycemic load values 2021: a systematic review. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2021;114(5). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/nqab233>
10. Zheng Y, Ley SH, Hu FB. Global Aetiology and Epidemiology of Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and Its Complications. *Nature Reviews Endocrinology*. 2018;14(2):88-98. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1038/nrendo.2017.151>
11. Vijan S. Type 2 Diabetes. *Annals of Internal Medicine*. 2010;152(5):ITC3-1. doi:<https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-152-5-201003020-01003>
12. International Diabetes Federation. IDF Diabetes Atlas 10th edition 2021. IDF Diabetes Atlas. Published 2022. <https://diabetesatlas.org/>
13. Vlachos D, Malisova S, Lindberg FA, Karaniki G. Glycemic Index (GI) or Glycemic Load (GL) and Dietary Interventions for Optimizing Postprandial Hyperglycemia in Patients with T2 Diabetes: A Review. *Nutrients*. 2020;12(6):1561. Published 2020 May 27. doi:10.3390/nu12061561
14. Toh DWK, Koh ES, Kim JE. Lowering breakfast glycemic index and glycemic load attenuates postprandial glycemic response: A systematically searched meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Nutrition*. 2019;71:110634. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2019.110634>
15. Augustin LSA, Kendall CWC, Jenkins DJA, et al. Glycemic index, glycemic load and glycemic response: An International Scientific Consensus Summit from the International

- Carbohydrate Quality Consortium (ICQC). *Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases*. 2015;25(9):795-815. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.numecd.2015.05.005>
16. Santos HO, de Moraes WMAM, da Silva GAR, Prestes J, Schoenfeld BJ. Vinegar (acetic acid) intake on glucose metabolism: A narrative review. *Clinical Nutrition ESPEN*. 2019;32:1-7. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnesp.2019.05.008>
 17. Noh YH, Lee DB, Lee YW, Pyo YH. In Vitro Inhibitory Effects of Organic Acids Identified in Commercial Vinegars on α -Amylase and α -Glucosidase. *Preventive Nutrition and Food Science*. 2020;25(3):319-324. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3746/pnf.2020.25.3.319>
 18. Marunaka Y. The Proposal of Molecular Mechanisms of Weak Organic Acids Intake-Induced Improvement of Insulin Resistance in Diabetes Mellitus via Elevation of Interstitial Fluid pH. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*. 2018;19(10):3244. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms19103244>
 19. Johnston CS, Buller AJ. Vinegar and Peanut Products as Complementary Foods to Reduce Postprandial Glycemia. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*. 2005;105(12):1939-1942. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2005.07.012>
 20. Liatis S, Grammatikou S, Poulia K-A, et al. Vinegar reduces postprandial hyperglycaemia in patients with type II diabetes when added to a high, but not to a low, glycaemic index meal. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2010;64(7):727-732. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1038/ejcn.2010.89>
 21. Sugiyama M, Tang AC, Wakaki Y, Koyama W. Glycemic index of single and mixed meal foods among common Japanese foods with white rice as a reference food. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2003;57(6):743-752. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ejcn.1601606>
 22. Brighenti F, Castellani G, Benini L, et al. Effect of neutralized and native vinegar on blood glucose and acetate responses to a mixed meal in healthy subjects. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 1995;49(4):242-247. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7796781/>
 23. Chen H, Chen T, Giudici P, Chen F. Vinegar Functions on Health: Constituents, Sources, and Formation Mechanisms. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*. 2016;15(6):1124-1138. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4337.12228>
 24. Lim J, Henry CJ, Haldar S. Vinegar as a functional ingredient to improve postprandial glycemic control-human intervention findings and molecular mechanisms. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*. 2016;60(8):1837-1849. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201600121>
 25. Hu GX, Chen GR, Xu H, Ge RS, Lin J. Activation of the AMP activated protein kinase by short-chain fatty acids is the main mechanism underlying the beneficial effect of a high fiber diet on the metabolic syndrome. *Medical Hypotheses*. 2010;74(1):123-126. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mehy.2009.07.022>
 26. Viollet B, Guigas B, Leclerc J, et al. AMP-activated protein kinase in the regulation of hepatic energy metabolism: from physiology to therapeutic perspectives. *Acta Physiologica*. 2009;196(1):81-98. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-1716.2009.01970.x>
 27. Kondo T, Kishi M, Fushimi T, Kaga T. Acetic acid upregulates the expression of genes for fatty acid oxidation enzymes in liver to suppress body fat accumulation. *Journal of agricultural and food chemistry*. 2009;57(13):5982-5986. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1021/jf900470c>

28. Lhotta K, Höfle G, Gasser R, Finkenstedt G. Hypokalemia, Hyperreninemia and Osteoporosis in a Patient Ingesting Large Amounts of Cider Vinegar. *Nephron*. 1998;80(2):242-243. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1159/000045180>
29. Bhattarai RR, Dhital S, Wu P, Chen XD, Gidley MJ. Digestion of isolated legume cells in a stomach-duodenum model: three mechanisms limit starch and protein hydrolysis. *Food & Function*. 2017;8(7):2573-2582. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1039/c7fo00086c>
30. Dhital S, Bhattarai RR, Gorham J, Gidley MJ. Intactness of cell wall structure controls the in vitro digestion of starch in legumes. *Food & Function*. 2016;7(3):1367-1379. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1039/c5fo01104c>
31. Zhou X, Ying Y, Hu B, Pang Y, Bao J. Physicochemical properties and digestibility of endosperm starches in four indica rice mutants. *Carbohydrate Polymers*. 2018;195:1-8. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2018.04.070>
32. Ebbeling CB, Ludwig DS. Treating obesity in youth: should dietary glycemic load be a consideration? *Advances in Pediatrics*. 2001;48:179-212. Accessed May 5, 2024. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/11480757/>
33. MacIntosh CG, Holt SHA, Brand-Miller JC. The Degree of Fat Saturation Does Not Alter Glycemic, Insulinemic or Satiety Responses to a Starchy Staple in Healthy Men. *The Journal of Nutrition*. 2003;133(8):2577-2580. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1093/jn/133.8.2577>
34. Holland C, Ryden P, Edwards CH, Grundy MM. Plant Cell Walls: Impact on Nutrient Bioaccessibility and Digestibility. *Foods*. 2020;9(2):201. Published 2020 Feb 16. doi:10.3390/foods9020201
35. Giuntini EB, Sardá FAH, de Menezes EW. The Effects of Soluble Dietary Fibers on Glycemic Response: An Overview and Futures Perspectives. *Foods*. 2022;11(23):3934. Published 2022 Dec 6. doi:10.3390/foods11233934
36. Lobos DR, Vicuña IA, Novik V, Vega CA. Effect of high and low glycemic index breakfast on postprandial metabolic parameters and satiety in subjects with type 2 diabetes mellitus under intensive insulin therapy: Controlled clinical trial. *Clinical Nutrition ESPEN*. 2017;20:12-16. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnesp.2017.04.082>
37. Murillo S, Mallol A, Adot A, et al. Culinary strategies to manage glycemic response in people with type 2 diabetes: A narrative review. *Frontiers in Nutrition*. 2022;9. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2022.1025993>
38. Hermansen K, Rasmussen O, Gregersen S, Larsen S. Influence of Ripeness of Banana on the Blood Glucose and Insulin Response in Type 2 Diabetic Subjects. *Diabetic Medicine*. 1992;9(8):739-743. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.1992.tb01883.x>
39. Ratnayake WS, Jackson DS. Chapter 5 Starch Gelatinization. *Advances in Food and Nutrition Research*. 2008;55:221-268. doi:[https://doi.org/10.1016/s1043-4526\(08\)00405-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1043-4526(08)00405-1)
40. Do MH, Lee HB, Lee E, Park HY. The Effects of Gelatinized Wheat Starch and High Salt Diet on Gut Microbiota and Metabolic Disorder. *Nutrients*. 2020;12(2):301. Published 2020 Jan 22. doi:10.3390/nu12020301
41. Bahado-Singh PS, Riley CK, Wheatley AO, Lowe HIC. Relationship between Processing Method and the Glycemic Indices of Ten Sweet Potato (*Ipomoea batatas*) Cultivars Commonly Consumed in Jamaica. *Journal of Nutrition and Metabolism*. 2011;2011:1-6. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1155/2011/584832>

42. Harasym J, Olędzki R. Comparison of Conventional and Microwave Assisted Heating on Carbohydrate Content, Antioxidant Capacity and Postprandial Glycemic Response in Oat Meals. *Nutrients*. 2018;10(2):207. Published 2018 Feb 14. doi:10.3390/nu10020207
43. Burton P, Lightowler HJ. The impact of freezing and toasting on the glycaemic response of white bread. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 2007;62(5):594-599.
44. Shukla AP, Dickison M, Coughlin N, et al. The impact of food order on postprandial glycaemic excursions in prediabetes. *Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism*. 2018;21(2):377-381. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/dom.13503>
45. NISHINO K, SAKURAI M, TAKESHITA Y, TAKAMURA T. Consuming Carbohydrates after Meat or Vegetables Lowers Postprandial Excursions of Glucose and Insulin in Nondiabetic Subjects. *Journal of Nutritional Science and Vitaminology*. 2018;64(5):316-320. doi:<https://doi.org/10.3177/jnsv.64.316>