

## **The Nutrition Status of HIV-infected U.S. Adults**

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### **Footnotes to the title:**

<sup>1</sup> Abbreviations used: ART, antiretroviral therapy; AIDS, acquired immune deficiency syndrome; BMI, body mass index; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; MEC, mobile examination center; NCHS, National Center for Health Statistics; NHANES, National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey; PIR, poverty income ratio;

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Background:** Nutrition is critical to HIV mortality and morbidity. Improved treatment  
3 modalities have increased life expectancy of HIV-infected individuals. More than one million  
4 U.S. adults are living with HIV; but, little is known about their nutritional status.

5 **Objective:** We aimed to characterize the nutritional status of those living with HIV using the  
6 National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2003-2014.

7 **Methods:** The NHANES is a nationally-representative, cross-sectional survey of the U.S.  
8 population and includes a household interview, medical examination, and two 24-hour dietary  
9 recalls; survey weights are applied to make the data nationally-representative. HIV antibodies  
10 were ascertained initially by immunoassay and confirmed with Western Blot. NHANES 2003-  
11 2014 data were analyzed for HIV-positive (n= 87) and HIV-negative (n= 15,868) U.S. adults  
12 (19-49y). BMI, waist circumference, dietary intakes, and nutritional biomarkers were estimated  
13 and compared by HIV status, stratified by sex.

14 **Results:** HIV infected men and women had higher serum protein, lower serum albumin, and  
15 lower serum folate than non-HIV infected adults. HIV-positive women had significantly higher  
16 BMI, prevalence of overweight/obesity, and waist circumference risk and substantially lower  
17 serum-25-(OH) vitamin D (44 vs 65 nmol/L) than HIV-negative women. When compared with  
18 HIV-negative women, HIV-positive women had lower intakes of some key nutrients like fiber,  
19 vitamin E, vitamin K, magnesium, and potassium, and but had higher intakes of protein and  
20 niacin.

21 **Conclusion:** The NHANES data suggest that HIV infection is associated with poorer markers of  
22 some nutritional status indicators. However, the U.S. population prevalence of HIV is < 0.5%.;  
23 given the small sample size, not only in this study but also in the U.S., much more targeted

24 research is needed to better understand the multitude of factors that influence the nutritional  
25 status among those living with HIV in the U.S., especially among women.

26

27

28 **Keywords:** HIV, Nutrition, obesity, biomarker, NHANES

29

## 30 **Introduction**

31           Poor nutrition status can both be a cause of and exacerbate infection and inflammation  
32 (1); nutrition is an independent predictor of mortality among those with HIV infection (2, 3). The  
33 malnutrition of HIV has been associated with various factors: increased likelihood of food  
34 insecurity, high costs of prescription medications, nutrient-drug interactions, weight loss due to  
35 diarrhea and vomiting, alterations in metabolism and absorption of nutrients, and increased  
36 caloric requirements (4, 5). Medical advances in treatment of HIV/AIDS, like antiretroviral  
37 therapy (ART), have dramatically improved HIV survival rates and also reduced many of the  
38 acute malnutrition-related concerns associated with the disease. Meanwhile, with increased life  
39 expectancy, people living with HIV are now facing the challenges of chronic diseases. HIV-  
40 positive adults were reported to have higher risks of metabolic syndrome, cardiovascular disease,  
41 and type 2 diabetes, which has the potential to be reduced with optimal nutrition (6-8). Thus,  
42 public health concerns over nutrition and HIV have shifted from acute malnutrition to providing  
43 optimal nutrition to enhance the quality of life and health of infected individuals (9).

44           Currently about 1.2 million Americans are living with HIV (10-12), but very little is  
45 known about the nutritional status of those living with HIV in the U.S. that is national in scope.  
46 The purpose of this analysis was to characterize the nutritional status of those living with HIV in  
47 the U.S. using the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2003-2014, a  
48 nationally-representative cross sectional survey of the health and nutrition status of Americans.

49

## 50 **Methods**

51           NHANES is a cross-sectional survey of the noninstitutionalized, civilian U.S. resident  
52 population conducted to assess the health and nutrition status of U.S. population (13). The

53 survey is conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), Centers for Disease  
54 Control and Prevention. All study methods are approved by the NCHS research ethics review  
55 board. All participants provided informed consent. NHANES participants are selected using a  
56 complex multistage sampling design (14). The NHANES survey includes an in-home health  
57 interview, a physical examination in a mobile examination center (MEC), and a follow-up  
58 telephone interview. This analysis includes data from NHANES 2003-2014, from all non-  
59 pregnant adult participants aged 19-49 years who did not refuse the HIV antibody testing,  
60 representing a total of both HIV-positive (n= 87) and HIV-negative (n= 15,868) adults..  
61 Participants up to the age of 49 years were eligible for the HIV testing from 2003-2008 and  
62 participants up to the age of 59 years were eligible from 2009-2014. For consistency, we limited  
63 the sample size to the corresponding age range in the earlier years.

64         Demographic data was collected during the interview in participants' home via a  
65 computer-assisted personal interview interviewer-administered questionnaire. Across most  
66 NHANES cycles, self-reported race/ethnicity is categorized as non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic  
67 black, Hispanic and Mexican American, and "other". Education was dichotomized as less than  
68 high school or high school diploma/GED/or higher than high school. The poverty to income ratio  
69 (PIR) is a measure that represents the ratio of household income to the poverty threshold after  
70 adjustments for geographic location and family size, developed by the Department of Health and  
71 Human Services.

72         Three PIR categories were constructed: < 130%, 130% - 350%, ≥ 350%. A PIR less than  
73 130% is the income eligibility criterion for participation in the Supplemental Nutrition  
74 Assistance Program (SNAP; i.e. the former Food Stamps Program), and these cutoff points have

75 been previously used in NHANES analyses because they have been shown to differentiate  
76 between health and nutrition indicators (15).

77         Height and weight were measured during health examination at the MEC and BMI was  
78 calculated as weight (kg)/height (m<sup>2</sup>). Participants' were classified as non-overweight/obese  
79 (BMI < 25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) or overweight/obese (BMI ≥ 25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>). Waist circumference was measured at  
80 the uppermost lateral border of the iliac crest using a tape measure (16). Waist circumference  
81 risk was calculated using National Institutes of Health Guidelines: > 88 cm for women and > 102  
82 cm for men (17).

83         During the examination, a blood sample was drawn by trained phlebotomist from all  
84 participants' who did not refuse the HIV antibody test. HIV status was ascertained based on the  
85 presence of antibody to HIV in blood (using Synthetic Peptide Enzyme Immunoassay (EIA)  
86 technique for HIV -1 or HIV-2 or both). Specimens that were reactive in the initial screening  
87 were retested in duplicate with the Genetic Systems HIV-1/HIV-2 Peptide EIA. Specimens that  
88 were reactive in either one or both of the duplicates were then tested again for confirmation using  
89 Western Blot technique. A limited number of nutritional biomarkers with sufficient survey years  
90 available for analysis were available. Therefore this analysis was limited to serum protein, serum  
91 albumin, total cholesterol, triglycerides, serum glucose, vitamin D (25-hydroxyvitamin D)  
92 (NHANES 2003-2010), and serum and red blood cell (RBC) folate (NHANES 2003-2012);  
93 differences in analytical methods across survey years were standardized as recommended by  
94 NCHS. A timed rate biuret method, a bichromatic digital endpoint method and the timed-  
95 endpoint method were used to measure the concentrations of total protein, albumin, and  
96 cholesterol respectively using the DxC Synchron Clinical Systems. Modified microbiological  
97 assay method was used for measuring RBC folate. Diluted whole blood sample was added to an

98 assay medium containing *Lactobacillus casei* (NCIB 10463) and all of the nutrients necessary for  
99 the growth of *L. casei*, except folate. Since the growth of *L. casei* is proportional to the amount  
100 of total folate present in the sample, the total folate level was assessed by measuring the turbidity  
101 of the inoculated medium in a PowerWave X340 Microplate reader (Bio-Tek Instrument). Serum  
102 folate was measured using isotope-dilution high performance liquid chromatography coupled to  
103 tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Ultra-high performance liquid chromatography-tandem  
104 mass spectrometry (UHPLC-MS/MS) was used for measuring vitamin D concentration. Detailed  
105 laboratory methods are publicly available (18).

106 Two 24-hour dietary recalls were collected using the USDA's Automated Multiple-Pass  
107 Method (19, 20). The first 24-hour recall was collected in person during the health examination.  
108 The second was collected via telephone. The NHANES protocol attempts to have even  
109 distribution of weekdays and weekend days. The USDA Food and Nutrient Database for Dietary  
110 Studies was used to convert foods and beverages as reported to determine their respective energy  
111 and nutrient values. The dietary data are presented for individuals with complete data on both  
112 dietary recalls. The average of nutrient intakes from both dietary recalls was calculated.  
113 Supplement use was classified as any dietary supplements taken during the past month.

114 All statistical analysis were performed using SAS software (version 9.4; SAS Institute  
115 Inc, Cary, NC) and SAS-callable SUDAAN software (version 11.0; RTI International; Research  
116 Triangle, NC). The sample design includes oversampling in order to obtain reliable estimates of  
117 health and nutritional measures for population subgroups. Sample weights, which account for  
118 differential probabilities of selection, non-response and non-coverage, were calculated for 12  
119 years for the examination and dietary data in order to produce unbiased national estimates.  
120 Means were estimated for BMI, dietary components, and biomarkers by HIV status within sex

121 and by sex within HIV status for infected adults using contrast statements in proc descript.  
122 Standard error of the mean (SE) estimates were calculated using Taylor series linearization. The  
123 relative standard error (RSE) was calculated for each estimate and the estimates with RSEs  
124 greater than 40% could be interpreted as statistically unreliable (12). Statistical significance was  
125 set at  $p < 0.05$ .

126

## 127 **Results**

128 HIV infection represented  $<0.5\%$  of the U.S. adult population in NHANES 2003-2014  
129 (data not shown). Men had a higher prevalence of HIV than women (77% vs 23%), and non-  
130 Hispanic Blacks were more likely than other race/ethnic groups to be HIV positive (**Table 1**).  
131 The mean age of HIV-positive individuals was slightly higher (37.7 y) than negative individuals  
132 (34.3 y). Educational attainment did not differ by sex within infected individuals or between  
133 infected and non-infected adults when sex was combined. Most infected adults were at  $< 350\%$   
134 of the PIR; none of the HIV positive women belonged to the  $\geq 350\%$  PIR category compared to  
135 38% non-infected women. There was no consistent or significant pattern of marital status in  
136 infected adults, though the distributions differed from that of the non-infected U.S. adult  
137 population.

138 HIV-positive women had significantly higher BMI ( $34.3 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ; SE 2.3) when compared  
139 with both HIV-negative women ( $28.4 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ; SE 0.1) and HIV-positive men ( $26.2 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ; SE 0.7)  
140 (**Table 2**). HIV-positive men had a significantly lower BMI than HIV-negative men ( $28.3$   
141  $\text{kg/m}^2$ ; SE 0.1). Indeed, the percentage of those who are overweight or obese was significantly  
142 higher for HIV-positive women compared to both HIV-negative women and HIV-positive men,  
143 and significantly lower for HIV-positive men compared to HIV-negative men. The similar trend



144 was found with regard to waist circumference, and the percentage of those at metabolic risk  
145 based on waist circumference.

146 Consistent in both sexes, HIV infected adults had higher serum protein, lower serum  
147 albumin, and lower serum folate than non-HIV infected adults. No significant differences were  
148 observed for triglycerides, glucose, or RBC folate within sex by HIV status or within HIV  
149 infected individuals by sex. HIV-positive men had lower level of total cholesterol than HIV-  
150 negative men (4.7 vs. 5.0 mmol/L). HIV-positive women had substantially lower serum-25-(OH)  
151 vitamin D (43.7 vs 64.9 nmol/L) than HIV-negative women.

152 No differences in energy intake were observed within sex by HIV status (**Table 3**). HIV  
153 positive women had significantly different intakes of fiber (9.2g; SEM 1.5 vs. 14.7g; SEM 0.2)  
154 and protein (83.5g; SEM 6.1 vs. 71.3g; SEM 0.5) than HIV negative women. Among men, no  
155 significant differences in dietary intakes were observed by HIV status except for vitamin B6,  
156 which was lower in HIV-positive men when compared to HIV-negative men. Whereas,  
157 compared with HIV-negative women, HIV-positive women had higher intakes of niacin and  
158 lower intakes of vitamin E, vitamin K, magnesium, and potassium. No significant difference in  
159 the prevalence of dietary supplement use was noted within HIV status and sex: HIV-positive  
160 (37%; SE 7) and negative men (38%; SE 1) and HIV-positive (53%; SE 13) and negative women  
161 (49%; SE 1) (data not shown).

162

## 163 **Discussion**

164 In this cross-sectional national survey, HIV-positive status in women but not men was  
165 associated with poor nutritional status including high BMI and waist circumference, lower mean  
166 dietary intakes of many key nutrients, and suboptimal concentrations of some biomarkers of

167 nutritional status compared to HIV-negative adults. The mean BMI of HIV-infected women falls  
168 within the Grade II obese range, indicating substantially increased risk for cardiovascular  
169 disease, hypertension, and type 2 diabetes. Interestingly, the nutritional status of men with HIV  
170 did not differ substantially when compared to HIV-negative men; in fact, HIV positive men had  
171 a mean BMI that more closely approximated the normal range, with much lower waist  
172 circumference risk than any of the other groups. Indeed, men with HIV are very different than  
173 women with HIV in many ways and have a three-fold higher prevalence than women(12). The  
174 CDC estimates that the majority (83%) of new HIV infection in men is among men who have  
175 sex with men, whereas infection rates in women are not as related to sexual orientation (21).  
176 Data from multiple sources indicates HIV infection is higher in non-Hispanic blacks than other  
177 race/ethnic groups in both men and women (12, 21, 22).

178         Prior to the availability of ART, weight loss was an important diagnostic criterion for  
179 HIV and a distinguishing feature of AIDS (23, 24). However, in this post-ART analysis, the risk  
180 of overweight and obesity, specifically for women was observed. A study by Sharma et.al,  
181 suggested that HIV-positive women on ART treatment gain weight although ART use was  
182 associated with only modest change in BMI (25). A cohort study following HIV-infected adults  
183 in the U.S. and Canada also reported that HIV-positive white women had a higher BMI after 3  
184 years of ART compared to their age-matched NHANES controls, while no such difference was  
185 observed for HIV-positive men or non-white women (26). Previous CDC reports indicate that  
186 approximately half of U.S. adults with HIV report use of ART (12). Given the dramatic  
187 differences in the BMI of men and women with HIV, the use of ART alone is unlikely  
188 responsible for the obesity observed in women with HIV. Future work should seek to understand  
189 the relationship of HIV and overweight and obesity in women, and if the association is driven by

190 race/ethnicity or other factors. Previous studies have not observed an association of BMI and  
191 HIV status, but have documented higher waist circumference in HIV-infected adults when  
192 compared to HIV-negative adults (27).

193 Total protein concentrations were higher and albumin levels were lower in both men and  
194 women with HIV when compared within sex to non-infected adults, consistent with other studies  
195 (9, 28, 29). Lower serum albumin may be indicative of poor nutritional status or other health  
196 conditions and is an independent predictor of mortality in HIV-infected women (30). Among  
197 both men and women with HIV lower levels of serum folate were observed without difference in  
198 RBC folate when compared to HIV negative adults. While HIV infection is associated with  
199 anemia of chronic disease, we are unable to confirm the antecedents of low serum folate alone.  
200 Both HIV status (31-33) and ART (34-36) are individual predictors of vitamin D status and bone  
201 health. HIV-infected women with vitamin D deficiency have a higher risk of developing  
202 osteoporosis than HIV negative controls with vitamin D deficiency (37-42). Similar to other  
203 studies, this NHANES analysis also suggests that HIV-positive women are at higher risk of  
204 vitamin D inadequacy (<50 nmol/L), defined by the National Academy of Medicine and could be  
205 one of the contributing causes of high prevalence of osteopenia or osteoporosis among HIV-  
206 infected adults on ART (43).

207 To our knowledge this is the first study to characterize the nutrition status of people  
208 living with HIV in a nationally-representative sample of US adults. However, this national  
209 survey is not designed specifically for HIV and diseases with low population prevalence.  
210 Furthermore, a limited number of nutritional biomarkers were available across multiple years in  
211 NHANES. Limitations exist with self-reported dietary intake, including a well-known and  
212 characterized energy under-reporting bias (44). Due to the small number of participants that were

213 HIV-positive, it would not be possible to provide reliable estimates by stratifying on other  
214 factors beyond sex; however, given the strong association with infection and race/ethnicity future  
215 work should seek to address how race/ethnicity influence nutrition and infection. Similarly, the  
216 very small sample sizes, particularly among women, indicate that much more data are needed to  
217 understand the nutritional needs associated with HIV infection in the U.S. Our results should be  
218 considered with the caveats in mind. The findings of this report should be a call to action that  
219 much more data are needed on the nutritional aspects of living with HIV in America.

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221

222 **Author's Contributions:** SVT designed the project and performed the preliminary data analysis.  
223 SVT, SJ, AC, and RLB performed the literature search, drafted sections of the manuscript, and  
224 aided in data interpretation. SJ and AC prepared the data tables and confirmed the data presented  
225 within this paper that was originally prepared by SVT. All authors have read and approved the  
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228 methodology and provided guidance to the data analysis.

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**Table 1.** Baseline age and population distribution of demographic details of U.S. adults aged 19-49 years by HIV status and sex<sup>1,2</sup>

	HIV+ adults : Group A			p-value	HIV- adults : Group B			p-value	p-value A vs B
	All n=87	Men n=67	Women n=20		All n=15,868	Men n=7,907	Women n=7,961		
Age in years, mean (SE)	37.7 (1.0)	36.8 (1.3)	40.7 (1.6)	0.05	34.3 (0.15)	34.1 (0.2)	34.7 (0.2)	0.001	0.001
Sex (%)									
Men	76.6 (4.5)				49.2 (0.4)				<0.001
Women	23.4 (4.5)				50.8 (0.4)				
Education (%)									
Lower than High School	25.2 (5.5)	23.4 (6.0)	31.0 (10.8)	0.525	16.4 (0.6)	17.5 (0.7)	15.2 (0.6)	<0.001	0.113
High School or more	74.8 (5.5)	76.6 (6.0)	69.0 (10.8)		83.6 (0.6)	82.5 (0.7)	84.8 (0.6)		
Race/Ethnicity (%) <sup>3</sup>									
Non-Hispanic white	26.3 (6.8)	32.2 (8.1)	7.1 (6.7)	0.013	63.5 (1.5)	63.9 (1.5)	63.3 (1.6)	<0.001	<0.001
Non-Hispanic black	55.3 (6.7)	47.1 (7.2)	82.1 (11.1)		12.0 (0.8)	10.8 (0.7)	13.1 (0.9)		
Hispanic and Mexican	15.9 (3.6)	20.7 (5.0)	-		17.2 (1.1)	18 (1.1)	16.4 (1.1)		
Poverty Income Ratio (%)									
< 130%	40.3 (6.7)	37.0 (7.3)	51.0 (13.9)	0.023	24.8 (0.8)	22.7 (0.8)	26.9 (0.9)	<0.001	0.003
130-350%	40.0 (6.3)	37.3 (6.7)	49.0 (13.8)		35.2 (0.8)	35.8 (0.9)	34.7 (0.8)		
≥ 350%	19.7 (6.5)	25.7 (7.8)	-		39.9 (1.0)	41.5 (1.0)	38.4 (1.2)		
Marital Status (%)									
Married/living together	44.1 (6.4)	39.4 (7.9)	58.6 (10.4)	0.183	68.2 (0.8)	69.2 (1.0)	67.1 (0.8)	<0.001	<0.001
Widowed/divorced/separated	16.4 (4.2)	16.0 (4.4)	17.6 (9.2)		14.1 (0.4)	12.5 (0.5)	15.8 (0.5)		
Never married	39.5 (6.0)	44.6 (7.2)	23.8 (8.5)		17.7 (0.9)	18.3 (1.1)	17.1 (0.9)		

<sup>1</sup> Data from National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2003-2014. Unless otherwise noted, estimates are percentages (SE). *Proc descript* was used for mean age comparison and *proc crosstab* procedure was used for comparing all categorical percentages by sex and by HIV status

<sup>2</sup> Not showing “other” race/ethnic group



**Table 2.** Biomarkers of nutritional status and biochemistry profile in U.S. adults aged 19-49 years by HIV status and sex<sup>1</sup>

	HIV+ adults		HIV- adults		p-value		
	Mean (SE)		Mean (SE)				
	A Men n=65	B Women n=20	C Men n= 7,838	D Women n=7,869	A vs C	B vs D	A vs B
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	26.2 (0.7)	34.3 (2.3)	28.3 (0.1)	28.3 (0.1)	0.0042	0.0091	0.0009
% Overweight Obese <sup>2</sup>	50.5 (6.1)	83.5 (10.7)	68.9 (0.8)	59.4 (0.9)	0.0039	0.0273	0.0090
Waist Circumference (cm)	93.7 (2.2)	107.4 (5.4)	98.2 (0.3)	93.0 (0.3)	0.0463	0.0089	0.0220
% At risk <sup>3</sup>	15.2 (5.2)	81.6 (11.8)	35.3 (0.8)	55.0 (0.9)	0.0004	0.0280	<0.0001
Total Protein (g/L)	76.0 (1.3)	79.3 (1.5)	72.3 (0.1)	71.2 (0.1)	0.0042	<0.0001	0.0864
Albumin (g/L)	41.7 (0.6)	38.6 (0.8)	44.6 (0.1)	42.0 (0.1)	< 0.0001	<0.0001	0.0023
Cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.7 (0.2)	4.7 (0.2)	5.0 (0.0)	4.9 (0.0)	0.0412	0.3221	0.8164
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	2.1 (0.2)	2.1 (0.4)	1.9 (0.0)	1.4 (0.0)	0.5248	0.0526	0.8322
Serum Glucose (mmol/L)	5.1 (0.1)	7.6 (2.4)	5.3 (0.0)	5.1 (0.0)	0.2439	0.2921	0.2968
Vitamin D (nmol/L)	57.8 (4.3)	43.7 (7.1)	62.7 (0.8)	64.6 (0.8)	0.2821	0.0044	0.1107
RBC Folate (nmol/L)	765.9 (62.0)	914.9 (210.9)	852.8 (10.3)	897.7 (10.2)	0.1843	0.9350	0.4996
Serum Folate (nmol/L)	26.7 (2.1)	24.9 (3.4)	31.6 (0.5)	36.3 (0.5)	0.0261	0.0015	0.6494

<sup>1</sup>Data from National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2003-2014 were combined. The sample size shown is for participation in the Mobile Examination Center. For vitamin D, the data was available only from 2003 to 2010 (n=10,538). For RBC folate and serum folate, data was available only from 2003-2012 (n=13,600).

<sup>2</sup> Overweight (BMI >25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) and obese (BMI >30 kg/m<sup>2</sup>) are combined for this analysis.

<sup>3</sup> Waist circumference: > 88 cm for women, and > 102 cm for men.

**Table 3.** Mean (SE) energy and nutrient intakes of U.S. adults aged 19-49 years by sex and HIV status<sup>1</sup>

	HIV+ adults		HIV- adults		p-value	
	Mean (SE)		Mean (SE)		A vs C	B vs D
	A Men n=56	B Women n=18	C Men n=6,410	D Women n=6,715		
Energy (kcal)	2820.4 (158.3)	2002.2 (213.9)	2643.3 (18.6)	1859.5 (10.1)	0.2621	0.5049
<b>Macronutrients</b>						
Carbohydrate (g)	341.1 (29.9)	251.6 (32.3)	315.7 (2.3)	231.1 (1.4)	0.3927	0.5255
Protein (g)	104.9 (6.0)	83.5 (6.1)	104.4 (0.7)	71.3 (0.5)	0.9305	0.0469
Fat (g)	105.5 (5.7)	67.9 (8.6)	98.7 (0.9)	70.1 (0.6)	0.2407	0.8044
Fiber (g)	17.9 (1.8)	9.2 (1.5)	18.7 (0.2)	14.7 (0.2)	0.6816	0.0004
<b>Micronutrients</b>						
Vitamin A, RAE (µg)	689.5 (83.1)	439.9 (77.0)	671.7 (9.4)	568.2 (10.1)	0.8296	0.0988
Thiamin (mg)	2.0 (0.2)	1.4 (0.1)	2.0 (0.0)	1.4 (0.0)	0.9131	0.9369
Riboflavin (mg)	2.4 (0.2)	1.7 (0.2)	2.6 (0.0)	1.9 (0.0)	0.3897	0.1438
Niacin (mg)	29.6 (1.7)	25.7 (1.5)	32.7 (0.3)	21.8 (0.1)	0.0700	0.0112
Folate (µg)	466.4 (49.7)	347.8 (28.4)	488.5 (4.8)	362.0 (4.2)	0.6514	0.6212
Vitamin B6 (mg)	2.3 (0.1)	1.8 (0.2)	2.6 (0.0)	1.8 (0.0)	0.0410	0.7467
Vitamin B12 (µg)	5.6 (0.6)	6.3 (1.3)	6.6 (0.1)	4.4 (0.1)	0.0853	0.1476
Vitamin C (mg)	89.3 (12.2)	74.7 (18.3)	92.4 (1.7)	77.4 (1.5)	0.8026	0.8805
Vitamin E (mg)	8.9 (0.8)	4.6 (0.6)	9.1 (0.1)	7.2 (0.1)	0.7101	0.0001
Vitamin K (µg)	102.4 (15.5)	48.5 (9.2)	106.0 (2.4)	101.2 (2.4)	0.8114	<0.0001
Calcium (mg)	1171.2 (92.6)	711.8 (78.6)	1140.6 (11.5)	863.3 (8.7)	0.7439	0.0582
Iron (mg)	18.8 (1.6)	14.6 (1.3)	18.6 (0.2)	13.5 (0.1)	0.9394	0.3743
Magnesium (mg)	337.2 (23.9)	194.7 (22.1)	345.2 (3.0)	261.1 (2.7)	0.7402	0.0036
Phosphorus (mg)	1714.5 (106.4)	1149.4 (104.3)	1678.2 (13.1)	1191.1 (8.6)	0.7356	0.6884
Sodium (mg)	4818.7 (262.9)	2927.3 (276.5)	4343.8 (31.9)	3070.5 (18.2)	0.0767	0.6060
Potassium (mg)	3069.5 (174.2)	1877.1 (157.3)	3085.2 (23.7)	2319.8 (18.5)	0.9291	0.0058
Zinc (mg)	14.6 (1.0)	10.9 (1.1)	14.8 (0.2)	10.1 (0.1)	0.9044	0.4552

<sup>1</sup>Dietary data from National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 2003-2014 were combined to estimate mean total nutrient intake. RAE, Retinol Activity Equivalents.