

Food Choices: Nutrients and Nourishment



Think About It

- 1 What, if anything, might inspire you to change your food preferences?
- 2 Are there some foods you definitely avoid? If so, do you know why?
- 3 What do you think is driving the popularity of vitamins and other supplements?
- 4 Where do you get the majority of your information about nutrition?

Learning Objectives

- Define *nutrition*.
- Identify factors that influence food choice.
- Describe the typical American diet.
- List and briefly describe the six major nutrients.
- Describe the basic steps in the nutrition research process.
- Identify reliable sources of nutrition information.

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nutrition The science of foods and their components (nutrients and other substances), including the relationships to health and disease (actions, interactions, and balances); processes within the body (ingestion, digestion, absorption, transport, functions, and disposal of end products); and the social, economic, cultural, and psychological implications of eating.

neophobia A dislike for anything new or unfamiliar.

Quick Bite

Why Has the American Dietetic Association Changed Its Name?

"By adding nutrition to our name, we communicate our capacity for translating nutrition science into healthier lifestyles for everyone. Keeping dietetics supports our history as a food and science-based profession. Thus, the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics quickly and accurately communicates our identity—who we are and what we do." —Academy Past-President Sylvia Escott-Stump, MA, RD, LDN.

Source: Courtesy of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics.

A group of friends goes out for pizza every Thursday night. A college freshman greets his girlfriend with a box of chocolates. A 5-year-old imitates her parents after they salt their food. A firefighter who is asked to explain why hot dogs are his favorite food says it has something to do with going to baseball games with his father. A professor recently recruited from a Chinese university feels dissatisfied unless she eats a bowl of rice daily. A parent punishes a misbehaving child by withholding dessert. What do these people have in common? They are all using food for something other than its nutrient value. Can you think of a holiday that is not celebrated with food? For most of us, food is more than a collection of nutrients. Many factors affect what we choose to eat. Many of the foods people choose are nourishing and contribute to good health. The same, of course, may be true of the foods we reject.

The science of **nutrition** helps us improve our food choices by identifying the amounts of nutrients we need, the best food sources of those nutrients, and the other components in foods that are helpful or harmful. Learning about nutrition helps us make better choices and not only improve our health but also reduce our risk of disease and increase our longevity. Keep in mind, though, that no matter how much you know about nutrition, you are still likely to choose some foods simply for their taste or just because they make you feel good.

Why Do We eat the Way We Do?

Do you “eat to live” or “live to eat”? For most of us, the first is certainly true—you must eat to live. But there can be times when our enjoyment of food is more important to us than the nourishment we get from it. Factors such as age, gender, genetic makeup, occupation, lifestyle, family, and cultural background affect our daily food choices. We use food to project a desired image, forge relationships, express friendship, show creativity, and disclose our feelings. We cope with anxiety or stress by eating or not eating; we reward ourselves with food for a good grade or a job well done; or, in extreme cases, we punish failures by denying ourselves the benefit and comfort of eating.

Personal Preferences

Food preferences begin early in life, and then change as we interact with parents, friends, and peers. Further experiences with different people, places, and situations often cause us to expand or change our preferences. Taste and other sensory factors such as texture are the most important things that influence our food choices; next are cost and convenience.¹ What we eat reveals much about who we are.

Age is a factor in food preferences. Young children prefer sweet or familiar foods; babies and toddlers are generally willing to try new things (see **Figure 1.1**). Experimental evidence suggests children repeatedly exposed to a variety of foods are more likely to accept these foods and have a healthier diet.²

Preschoolers typically go through a period of food **neophobia** (a dislike for anything new or unfamiliar), school-age children tend to accept a wider array of foods, and teenagers are strongly influenced by the preferences and habits of their peers. If you track the kinds of foods you have eaten in the past year, you might be surprised to discover how few basic foods your diet includes. By the time we reach adulthood, we have formed a core group of foods we prefer. Of this group, only about 100 basic items account for 75 percent of our food intake.

Like many aspects of human behavior, food choices are influenced by both inborn (genetic) and environmental factors, and it is not always easy



Figure 1.1

Adventures in eating. Babies and toddlers are generally willing to try new things.

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About It
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to separate them. However, we can look at food preferences in terms of the sensory properties of foods, cognitive factors that influence our choices, and environmental influences such as culture. Exploring each of these areas can help you understand why you prefer certain foods (see **Figure 1.2**).

Sensory Influences: Taste, Texture, and Smell

In making food choices, what appeals to our senses contributes to our personal preferences. People often refer to **flavor** as a collective experience that describes both taste and smell. Texture also plays a part. You may prefer foods that have a crisp, chewy, or smooth texture. You may reject foods that feel grainy, slimy, or rubbery. Other sensory characteristics that affect food choice are color, moisture, and temperature.

We are familiar with the classic four tastes—sweet, sour, bitter, and salty—but studies show that there are more. One of these additional taste sensations is **umami**, which is a Japanese term for the taste produced by glutamate.³ Glutamate is an amino acid (a building block of protein) that is found in monosodium glutamate (MSG), which gives food a distinctive meaty or savory taste.

Habits

Your eating and cooking habits likely reflect what you learned from your parents. We typically learn to eat three meals a day, at about the same times each day. Quite often we eat the same foods, particularly for breakfast (e.g., cereal and milk) and lunch (e.g., sandwiches). This routine makes life convenient, and we don't have to think much about when or what to eat. But we don't have to follow this routine! How would you feel about eating mashed potatoes for breakfast and cereal for dinner? Some people might get a stomach ache just thinking about it, whereas others may enjoy the prospect of doing things differently. Look at your eating habits and see how often you make the same choices every single day.

Comfort/Discomfort Foods

Our desire for particular foods often is based on behavioral motives, even though we may not be aware of them. For some people, food becomes an emotional security blanket. Consuming our favorite foods can make us feel better, relieve stress, and allay anxiety (see **Figure 1.3**). Starting in the first days of life, food and affection are intertwined. Breastfed infants, for example, experience physical, emotional, and psychological satisfaction when nursing. As we grow older, this experience is continually reinforced. For example, chicken soup and hot tea with honey are favorites when we feel under the weather because Mom and Dad fixed them especially for us. If we were rewarded for good behavior with a particular food (e.g., ice cream, candy, cookies), our positive feelings about that food can persist for a lifetime.

In contrast, children who have negative associations with certain foods are unlikely to choose those foods as adults. Maybe you avoid a certain food because you think it will make you sick. At some point in your childhood, you may have gotten sick soon after eating that food, and, consequently, the two events are linked forever.

Advertising and Promotion

It may not surprise you that some of the most popular food products are high-fat and high-sugar baked goods and alcoholic beverages. Aggressive and

Environmental Factors

- Economic
- Lifestyle
- Availability
- Cultural influences
- Religion
- Geographic location
- Environment

Personal Preference

- Habit
- Comfort/discomfort foods
- Food marketing, advertising, and promotion
- Food and diet trends
- Sensory influences (taste, smell, texture)
- Individual beliefs about food and nutrition

Health Status

- Health and medical conditions
- Physical fitness and independence
- Knowledge of health and nutrition
- Genetics
- Age and gender



Photo: © Photodisc

Figure 1.2

Factors that affect food choices. We often select a food to eat automatically without thought. But, in fact, our choices are complex events involving the interactions of a multitude of factors.

Quick Bite

Sweetness and Salt

Salt can do more than just make your food taste salty. Researchers at the Monell Chemical Senses Center demonstrated that salt also suppresses the bitter flavors in foods. When combined with chocolate, for example, in a chocolate-covered pretzel, salt blocks some of the bitter flavor, making the chocolate taste sweeter. This may explain why people in many cultures salt their fruit.

flavor The collective experience that describes both taste and smell.

umami [oooh-MA-mee] A Japanese term that describes a delicious meaty or savory sensation. Chemically, this taste detects the presence of glutamate.

Quick Bite

What Is an Ice Cream Headache?

After ingesting a cold substance quickly, such as when you take a big bite of ice cream, you may experience what is commonly known as an ice cream headache, or brain freeze. When cold substances touch the back part of the palate, blood vessels, including those that go to the brain, constrict (tighten), resulting in a sharp pain in the midfrontal part of the brain. About one-third of the population experiences this phenomenon.

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**Figure 1.3**

Comfort foods. Depending on your childhood food experiences, a bowl of traditional soup, a remembered sweet, or a mug of hot chocolate can provide comfort in times of stress.

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**Figure 1.4**

Healthy advertising. Got milk? is an example of a successful healthy advertising campaign.

sometimes deceptive advertising programs can influence people to buy foods of poor nutritional quality. However, we are seeing more innovative and aggressive advertising from the commodity boards that promote milk, meat, cranberries, and other more nutrient-dense products.

According to the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), businesses spend \$9.6 billion annually marketing food and beverages. More than \$1.6 billion specifically targets children and adolescents, promoting items such as sugared breakfast cereals, fast food, and soft drinks.⁴ Some advertising is positive. Ads like the one shown in **Figure 1.4**, for example, can be helpful, especially to consumers whose diets need improvement.

Food and Diet Trends

The popularity of different diets can influence changes in food product consumption. Beginning in the late 1980s, low-fat diets became popular and were accompanied by an explosion of reduced-fat, low-fat, and fat-free products. When the “low-carb” diet became popular, so did the rise in low-carb or no-carb products. Diet and health-related products also compete for consumer dollars. For example, sales of gluten-free products in the United States are rising 15 to 25 percent a year because of the increased diagnosis of celiac disease and the belief that eliminating gluten from the diet will treat other conditions as well.⁵

Social Factors

Social factors exert a powerful influence on food choice. Food is at the center of many social gatherings, parties, and events. Food often is the focus of family reunions, ice cream socials, and office holiday parties. When someone moves in, is sick, has a birthday, or has had a bad day at work—we bring food. Parents are influential models for infants and children. From them, they learn which foods and combinations of foods are appropriate to consume and under what circumstances. Perhaps even more influential, though, are the messages from peers about what to eat or how to eat.

As **Figure 1.5** illustrates, eating is a social event that brings together people for a variety of purposes (e.g., religious or cultural celebrations, business meetings, family dinners). Social pressures, however, can restrict our food intake and selection. We might, for example, order nonmeat dishes when dining with a group of vegetarian friends.

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**Figure 1.5**

Social facilitation. Interactions with others can affect your eating behaviors.

Nutrition and Health Beliefs

Many people select and emphasize certain foods they think are “good for them” (see **Figure 1.6**). Consumer health beliefs, perceptions of disease susceptibility, and desires to take action to prevent or delay disease onset can have powerful influences on diet and food choices. For example, people who feel vulnerable to disease and believe that dietary change might lead to positive results are more likely to pay attention to information about links between dietary choices, dietary fat, and health risks. A desire to lose weight or alter one’s physical appearance also can be a powerful force shaping decisions to accept or reject particular foods.

Key Concepts Many factors influence our decisions about what to eat and when to eat. Some of the main factors include personal preferences such as taste, texture, and smell. Habits, experiences, social factors, advertising, and knowledge of relationships between food and health also influence our food decisions.

environment

Your environment—where you live, how you live, who you live with—has a lot to do with what you choose to eat. People around us influence our food choices, and we prefer the foods we grew up eating. Environmental factors that influence our food choices include economics, lifestyle, culture, and religion. Where you live and the surrounding climate also influence which foods are most accessible to you. Environmental factors such as location and climate affect food costs, a major determinant of food choice. In the United States, our environment and the choices we make play a large role in the current obesity epidemic. The **obesogenic environment** in which many of us live promotes overconsumption of calories while at the same time discourages physical activity.

Economics

You may have “lobster taste” but a “hot dog budget.” The types of foods purchased and the percentage of income used for food are affected by total income. Wealthier urban households tend to spend a larger portion of their food budget on food consumed away from home, ranging from approximately 44 percent for the wealthiest households to 30 percent for the poorest.⁶ How much does it cost to follow dietary recommendations? For adults on a 2,000-calorie diet, the cost of meeting the *Dietary Guidelines for Americans* recommendations for fruit and vegetable consumption is \$2.00 to \$2.50 per day, according to an analysis by the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA).⁷

Lifestyle

Another influential factor is lifestyle. Our fast-paced society has little time or patience for food preparation. Convenience foods, from frozen entrées to complete meals “in a box,” saturate supermarket shelves. Americans spend almost half of their food budget on foods prepared away from home.⁸ Many people, however, underestimate the amount of calories and fat contained in foods prepared away from home, which is likely contributing to overweight and obesity.⁹ This trend has prompted an increase in interest for information on calories, fat, sodium, and other nutrients on menu labels.

Are people affected by menus that include calories? Yes! Studies have shown that people order foods with fewer calories when menus report calorie content.¹⁰ In addition, when calories are shown on a menu parents order foods with fewer calories for their children.¹¹ A number of cities and states have implemented legislation that will require restaurants to post nutritional information in an effort to aid consumers in making informed food choices.



Figure 1.6

Where do you get your nutrition information? We are constantly bombarded by food messages. Which sources do you find most influential? Are they the most reliable?

obesogenic environment Circumstances in which a person lives, works, and plays that promote the overconsumption of calories and discourage physical activity and calorie expenditure.

Quick Bite

Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010

“Poor diet and physical inactivity are the most important factors contributing to an epidemic of overweight and obesity affecting men, women, and children in all segments of our society.”

Source: Reproduced from US Department of Agriculture and US Department of Health and Human Services. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010*. 7th ed. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office; December 2010.



Going Green

Are you familiar with the terms *eco-friendly*, *carbon footprint*, *greenhouse gases*, *global climate*, and *global warming*? These recently coined phrases reflect new perspectives on our interrelated world, signaling our recent awareness of an environment in trouble. Our continuing abuse of our environment has resulted in a global climatic backlash, with widespread disruptions threatening irreversible damage to our planet. The result would be a far less livable planet that is inhospitable to a way of life we have taken for granted for much too long. Some green protesters are taking action. For example, to stop Brazilian planters from destroying more rainforest to cultivate their soy plantations, some soya traders refuse to sell soy from deforested areas of the Amazon.

It is important to focus on our nutrition environment. Here are several examples of the new green technology. Only three kinds of plants supply 65 percent of the global food supply. You might be surprised to learn that they are rice, wheat, and corn. With amazing efficiency, farmers can turn plant products into animal protein with aquaculture, a fancy word for fish farming, which has realized the fastest growth of global food production and now accounts for more than 30 percent of fish consumption in the world. Again, whereas modern agricultural methods depend heavily on fertilizers, pesticides, and herbicides, newer ecologically friendly farming technologies are increasingly being used to lower costs and preserve the quality of soils. And although surrounded by controversy, genetically modified crops and foods are used to resist pests and increase yields and are finding a niche in our nutrition environment.

Are you taking part in the green revolution? What are your environmental concerns?

Availability

Poor access to healthy, nutritious foods can negatively affect health and well-being. Approximately 23.5 million Americans, including 6.5 million children, live in nutritional wastelands commonly referred to as “food deserts.” Food deserts are low-income areas where residents lack access to a supermarket or large grocery store to buy affordable fruits, vegetables, whole grains, low-fat milk, and other foods that make up the full range of a healthy diet.¹²

Not only do many people who live in food deserts lack the ability to get fresh, healthy, and affordable foods easily, but they often rely on “quick markets” that offer mostly highly processed, high-sugar, and high-fat foods. Their communities often lack healthy food providers, such as grocery stores and farmers’ markets. Food needs typically are served by inexpensive restaurants and convenience stores that offer little fresh food. As part of its Let’s Move! initiative, the Healthy Food Financing Initiative (HFFI) plans to help revitalize neighborhoods by eliminating food deserts that exist across urban and rural America.¹³

Cultural Influences

One of the strongest influences on food preferences is tradition or cultural background. In all societies, no matter how simple or complex, eating is the primary way of initiating and maintaining human relationships.

Have you heard the saying “One man’s food is another man’s poison”? To a large extent, culture defines our attitudes. Look at **Figure 1.7**. How does the photo make you feel? Insects, maggots, and entrails are delicacies to some, while just the thought of ingesting them is enough to make others retch. So powerful are cultural forces that if you were permitted only a single question to establish someone’s food preferences, a good choice would be “What is your ethnic background?”¹⁴ (See the FYI feature “Food and Culture.”)



Figure 1.7

Cultural influences. If you were visiting China, would you sample the local delicacy—deep-fried scorpion?



Food and Culture

Ever wonder why people choose prickly pears over apples or pomegranates over blueberries? Food choices are a result of what people are accustomed to or what they have learned. Dietary habits are as diverse as individuals, and culture plays a key role in the food choices people make. Cultural influences often determine what roles various foods play in dietary habits, health beliefs, and everyday behaviors. Although beliefs and traditions can be modified through geography, economics, or experiences, core values and customs typically remain similar within a specific group.¹⁻⁵

Food plays a major role in most religions and religious customs.⁶ Religious beliefs usually are learned early and can define certain dietary habits. For example, Jewish dietary laws specify that foods must be *kosher*. To be kosher, meat must come from animals that chew their cud, have split hooves, and are free from blemishes to their internal organs. Fish must have fins and scales. Pork, crustaceans and shellfish, and birds of prey are not kosher. Kosher laws prohibit eating meat and milk at the same meal or even preparing or serving them with the same dishes and utensils. Islam identifies acceptable foods as Halal and has rules similar to those of Judaism for the slaughtering of animals. Islam prohibits the consumption of pork, the flesh of clawed animals, alcohol, and other intoxicating drugs. The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter Day Saints disapproves of coffee, tea, and alcoholic beverages. Most Hindus are vegetarians and do not eat eggs, and some avoid onions and garlic. The Orthodox Jain religion in India forbids eating meat or animal products (e.g., milk, eggs) and any root vegetables (e.g., potatoes, carrots, garlic). In Buddhism, mind-altering substances or intoxicating beverages are prohibited, but dietary habits vary considerably based on the sect and geographic location.⁷ Some Buddhists follow strict forms of vegetarianism whereas others do not. In Christianity and many other religions, food plays a key role in religious ceremonies and various religious holidays, from what foods may or may not be eaten (e.g., no meat during Lent) to when foods can be consumed (e.g., only from

sundown to sunrise during Islam's Ramadan). Food plays an important role not only in physical survival but also in many people's spiritualism.

Many cultures have traditional medical practices based on the belief that nature is composed of two opposing forces. In traditional Chinese medicine, for example, these forces, called *yin* and *yang*, must be in proper balance for good health.⁸ It is believed that excesses in either direction cause illness. The illness must then be treated by giving foods of the opposite force. This idea of balance or harmony, accompanied by terms describing illness and foods as either cold (e.g., banana, fish, juices) or hot (e.g., beef, nuts, ginger) or yin or yang, also is found in other Asian cultures, including India and the Philippines, and in Latin American cultures and ethnicities.

Numerous cultures view a variety of foods as having medicinal properties. Treatments commonly use assorted herbs, herbal teas, and special foods. From generation to generation, knowledge of such remedies is passed on. Remarkably, various cultures all over the world use remedies based on similar common substances, such as chamomile, garlic, and honey. These familiar substances often are more trusted and are considered safer than modern medicines. In addition to traditions and culture, the complete array of herbs and foods used daily and also as medicines is based on the geographic region, growing conditions, and climate.

The interplay of diet and culture helps to define a person's values, preferences, and

practices. As a result, even in the face of changing world events and populations, neither is abandoned easily or quickly. Just as there is diversity in individuals and families, there is also diversity within cultures. One must be alert to avoid the assumption that all people of a specific culture eat, believe, or follow traditions in the exact same manner. Even so, the question arises: What impact will our increasing mobility and globalization have on food choice? Undoubtedly, cultural interactions and exposure to various cuisines will increase. Will this expand our appreciation and preservation of cultural culinary practices and result in the formation of new hybrid cuisines?

- 1 Welcome to food, culture and tradition. www.food-links.com. Accessed 9/30/11.
- 2 EthnoMed. Cultures. <http://ethnomed.org/culture>. Accessed 3/19/12.
- 3 PBS. The meaning of food: food and culture. www.pbs.org/opb/meaningoffood/food_and_culture. Accessed 3/19/12.
- 4 PBS. The meaning of food: gonna eat that? www.pbs.org/opb/meaningoffood/food_and_culture/gonna_eat_that. Accessed 3/19/12.
- 5 eNotes. Encyclopedia of food and culture. www.enotes.com/food-encyclopedia. Accessed 3/19/12.
- 6 Foods of religions. Web sites that describe food practices of various religions. www.interfaithcalendar.org/Foodsofreligions.htm. Accessed 3/19/12.
- 7 HerbMed. Top 20 herbs. www.herbmed.org/#param.wapp?sw_page=top20. Accessed 3/19/12.
- 8 China Highlights. Chinese medicinal cuisine. www.chinahighlights.com/travelguide/chinese-food/medicinal-cuisine.htm. Accessed 3/19/12.

Knowledge, beliefs, customs, and habits all are defining elements of human culture.¹⁵ Although genetic characteristics tie people of ethnic groups together, culture is a learned behavior and, consequently, can be modified through education, experience, and social and political trends.¹⁶

In many cultures, food has symbolic meanings related to family traditions, social status, and even health.¹⁷ Indeed, many folk remedies rely on food. Some of these have gained wide acceptance, such as the use of spices and herbal teas for purposes ranging from allaying anxiety to preventing cancer and heart disease.¹⁸ Just as cultural distinctions eventually blur when ethnic groups take part in the larger American culture, so do many of the unique expectations about the ability of certain foods to prevent disease,

Quick Bite

Nerve Poison for Dinner?

The puffer fish is a delicacy in Japan. Danger is part of its appeal; eating a puffer fish can be life threatening! The puffer fish contains a poison called tetrodotoxin (TTX), which blocks the transmission of nerve signals and can be fatal. Chefs who prepare the puffer fish must have special training and licenses to prepare the fish properly so that diners feel nothing more than a slight numbing feeling.

Quick Bite

The Lima Bean

The lima bean has been in cultivation in Peru since 6000 B.C.E. Not so coincidentally, Peru's capital is Lima.

restore health among those with various afflictions, or enhance longevity. Food habits are among the last practices to change when an immigrant adapts to a new culture.¹⁹

Religion

Food is an important part of religious rites, symbols, and customs. Some religious rules apply to everyday eating whereas others are concerned with special celebrations. Christianity, Judaism, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Islam, for example, all have distinct dietary laws, but within each religion different interpretations of these laws give rise to variations in dietary practices.

Social-Ecological Model

The social-ecological model included in the *Dietary Guidelines for Americans* is designed to illustrate how individual factors, environmental settings, various sectors of influence, and social and cultural elements of society overlap to form the food and physical activity choices of an individual.²⁰ You can use the social-ecological model to think about how your current food and physical activity choices affect your calorie balance and risk for chronic diseases.

Key Concepts The cultural environments in which people grow up have a major influence on what foods they prefer, what foods they consider edible, and what foods they eat in combination and at what time of day. Many factors work to define a group's culture: environment, economics, access to food, lifestyle, traditions, and religious beliefs. As people from other cultures immigrate to new lands, they adopt new behaviors consistent with their new homes. However, food habits are among the last to change. The social-ecological model of food and physical activity behavior shows how individual factors, environmental settings, sectors of influence, and cultural social values influence our food and physical activity behavior.

Quick Bite

America's Favorite Vegetables

When Americans eat vegetables, they are most likely to eat potatoes (especially french fries), tomatoes (usually part of tomato sauce or ketchup), onions, and iceberg lettuce.

The American Diet

What, then, is a typical *American diet*? As a country influenced by the practices of so many cultures, religions, backgrounds, and lifestyles, there is no easy, single answer to this question. The U.S. diet is as diverse as Americans themselves, even though many people around the world imagine that the American diet consists mainly of hamburgers, french fries, and cola drinks! Our fondness for fast food and the marketability of such restaurants overseas make them seem like icons of American culture—and many of the stereotypes are true. The most commonly consumed grain product in the United States is white bread, the favorite meat is beef, and the most frequently eaten vegetable is the potato, usually as french fries. Despite the variety available to us, the American diet is still heavy on meat and potatoes and light on fruits, vegetables, low-fat dairy, and whole grains. Americans ages 2 years and older consume, on average, 2,157 calories daily.²¹ Grain-based desserts (e.g., cookies, cakes, pastries), soda, pizza, and alcohol are among the top 10 sources of daily calories (see [Table 1.1](#)).²² [Table 1.2](#) shows the usual U.S. intake from each food group based on a 2,000-calorie diet.

So, how healthful is the “American” diet? As shown in [Figure 1.8](#), Americans are eating too little of the nutrient-dense food identified by nutrition experts as important for good health and too much of the foods known to be harmful! Together, solid fats and added sugars contribute nearly 800 calories per day while providing no important nutrients.²³ Soda, sugar-sweetened beverages, and grain-based desserts are the major sources of added sugars for many Americans. Regular cheese, grain-based desserts, and pizza are the top contributors of solid and saturated fat in the American diet. In addition, Americans of all age groups are eating more than the recommended amounts of sodium, mainly in the form of processed foods.²⁴

Although we are bombarded with information about health and nutrition, this doesn't necessarily translate into better food choices. People are

Table 1.1 Top 10 Sources of Calories among Americans ages 2 Years and Older, NHANES 2005–2006^a

Rank	Overall, ages 2+ Years (Total Daily Calories = 2,157)
1	Grain-based desserts ^b (138 kcal)
2	Yeast breads ^c (129 kcal)
3	Chicken and chicken mixed dishes ^d (121 kcal)
4	Soda/energy/sports drinks ^e (114 kcal)
5	Pizza (98 kcal)
6	Alcoholic beverages (82 kcal)
7	Pasta and pasta dishes ^f (81 kcal)
8	Tortillas, burritos, and tacos ^g (80 kcal)
9	Beef and beef mixed dishes ^h (64 kcal)
10	Dairy desserts ⁱ (62 kcal)

^a Data are drawn from analyses of usual dietary intakes conducted by the National Cancer Institute. Foods and beverages consumed were divided into 97 categories and ranked according to calorie contribution to the diet. Table shows each food category and its mean calorie contribution. Additional information on calorie contribution by age, gender, and race/ethnicity is available at <http://riskfactor.cancer.gov/diet/foodsources>.

^b Includes cake, cookies, pie, cobbler, sweet rolls, pastries, and donuts.

^c Includes white bread or rolls, mixed-grain bread, flavored bread, whole-wheat bread, and bagels.

^d Includes fried or baked chicken parts and chicken strips/patties, chicken stir-fries, chicken casseroles, chicken sandwiches, chicken salads, stewed chicken, and other chicken mixed dishes.

^e Sodas, energy drinks, sports drinks, and sweetened bottled water, including vitamin water.

^f Includes macaroni and cheese, spaghetti, other pasta with or without sauces, filled pasta (e.g., lasagna, ravioli), and noodles.

^g Also includes nachos, quesadillas, and other Mexican mixed dishes.

^h Includes steak, meatloaf, beef with noodles, and beef stew.

ⁱ Includes ice cream, frozen yogurt, sherbet, milk shakes, and pudding.

Source: Reproduced from US Department of Agriculture and US Department of Health and Human Services. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans*, 2010. 7th ed. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office; December 2010.

Table 1.2 Usual U.S. intake, average Daily intake at or adjusted to a 2,000-Calorie Level

Pattern	Usual U.S. intake adults ^a
Food groups	
Vegetables: total (c)	1.6
Dark-green (c)	0.1
Beans and pasta (c)	0.1
Red and orange (c)	0.4
Other (c)	0.5
Starchy (c)	0.5
Fruit and juices (c)	1.0
grains: total (oz)	6.4
Whole grains (oz)	0.6
Milk and milk products (dairy products) (c)	1.5
Protein Foods	
Meat (oz)	2.5
Poultry (oz)	1.2
Eggs (oz)	0.4
Fish/seafood (oz)	0.4
Beans and pasta (oz)	See vegetables
Nuts, seeds, and soy products (oz)	0.5
Oils (g)	18
Solid fats (g)	43
added sugars (g)	79
alcohol (g)	9.9

^a Source: US Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Service and US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. *What We Eat in America, NHANES 2001–2004*: 1 day mean intakes for adult males and females, adjusted to 2,000 calories and averaged.

Source: Reproduced from US Department of Agriculture and US Department of Health and Human Services. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans*, 2010. 7th ed. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office; December 2010.

not “natural nutritionists”; that is, they don’t know which foods to choose for good health. The majority of the population has never taken a course in nutrition. They probably will never take the time to become well-informed consumers—not just of food but also of information about food and nutrition. So, it is unsurprising when national surveys indicate that although Americans know that nutrition and food choices are important factors in health, few have made the recommended changes (e.g., eating less fat, sugar, and salt; eating more fruits and vegetables).

You are in a position to gather more information than the average consumer. By taking this course in nutrition, you will be getting the full story: the nutrients we need for good health, the science behind the health messages, and the food choices it will take to implement them. Whether you use this information is up to you, but at least you will be a well-informed consumer!

Key Concepts “American” cuisine is truly a melting pot of cultural contributions to foods and tastes. Although Americans receive and believe many messages about the role of diet in good health, these beliefs do not always translate into better food choices. The typical American diet contains too much sodium, solid fat, saturated fat, and sugar and not enough fruits, vegetables, low-fat dairy, and whole-grain foods.

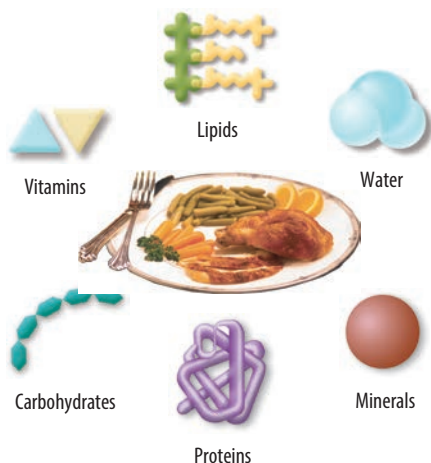
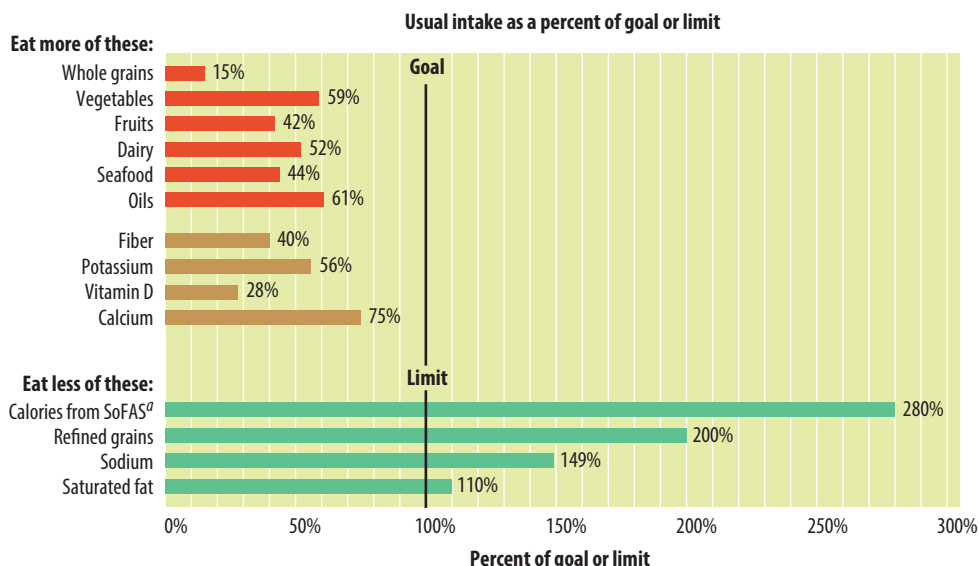
Figure 1.8

How do typical American diets compare to the recommended intake levels or limits?

^a SoFAS, solid fats and added sugars.

Note: Bars show average intake for all individuals (ages 1 or 2 years or older, depending on the data source) as a percentage of the recommended intake level or limit. Recommended intakes for food groups and limits for refined grains, solid fats, and added sugars are based on amounts in the USDA 2,000-calorie food pattern. Recommended intakes for fiber, potassium, vitamin D, and calcium are based on the highest Adequate Intake (AI) or Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) for ages 14 to 70 years. Limits for sodium are based on the Tolerable Upper Intake Level (UL) and for saturated fat on 10 percent of calories. The protein foods group is not shown here because, on average, intake is close to recommended levels.

Source: Reproduced from US Department of Agriculture and US Department of Health and Human Services. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2010*. 7th ed. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office; December 2010.

**Figure 1.9**

The six classes of nutrients. Water is the most important nutrient, and we

cannot survive long without it. Because our bodies need large quantities of carbohydrate, protein, and fat, they are called macronutrients. Our bodies need comparatively small amounts of vitamins and minerals, so they are called micronutrients.

nutrients Any substances in food that the body can use to obtain energy, synthesize tissues, or regulate functions.

essential nutrients Substances that must be obtained in the diet because the body either cannot make them or cannot make adequate amounts of them.

phytochemicals Substances in plants that possess health-protective effects, even though they are not essential for life.

introducing the nutrients

Although we give food meaning through our culture and experience and make dietary decisions based on many factors, ultimately the reason for eating is to obtain nourishment—nutrition.

Just like your body, food is a mixture of chemicals, some of which are essential for normal body function. These essential chemicals are called **nutrients**. You need nutrients for normal growth and development, for maintaining cells and tissues, for fuel to do physical and metabolic work, and for regulating the hundreds of thousands of body processes that go on inside you every second of every day. Further, food must provide these nutrients; the body either cannot make these **essential nutrients** or cannot make enough of them. There are six classes of nutrients in food: carbohydrates, lipids (fats and oils), proteins, vitamins, minerals, and water (see **Figure 1.9**). The diet for normal human growth, development, and maintenance must supply about 45 essential nutrients.

Definition of nutrients

In studying nutrition, we focus on the functions of nutrients in the body so that we can see why they are important in the diet. However, to define a nutrient in technical terms, we focus on what happens in its absence. A nutrient is a chemical whose absence from the diet for a long enough time results in a specific change in health; we say that a person has a deficiency of that nutrient. A lack of vitamin C, for example, eventually leads to scurvy. A diet with too little iron results in iron-deficiency anemia. To complete the definition of a nutrient, it also must be true that putting the essential chemical back in the diet reverses the change in health, if done before permanent damage occurs. If taken early enough, supplements of vitamin A can reverse the effects of deficiency on the eyes. If not, prolonged vitamin A deficiency can cause permanent blindness.

Nutrients are not the only chemicals in food. Other substances add flavor and color, some contribute to texture, and others such as caffeine have physiological effects on the body. Some substances in food, such as fiber, have important health benefits but do not fit the classical definition of a nutrient. One of the newest areas of research in nutrition is the area of **phytochemicals**.

Although these “plant chemicals” are not nutrients, they have important health functions, such as **antioxidant** activity, which can reduce risk for heart disease or cancer.

The six classes of nutrients serve three general functions: They provide energy (fuel), regulate body processes, and contribute to body structures (see **Figure 1.10**). Although virtually all nutrients can be said to influence body processes, and many contribute to body structures, only proteins, carbohydrates, and fats are sources of energy. Because the body needs large quantities of carbohydrates, proteins, and fats, they are called **macronutrients**; vitamins and minerals are called **micronutrients** because the body needs comparatively small amounts of these nutrients.

In addition to their functions, there are several other key differences among the classes of nutrients. First, the chemical composition of nutrients varies widely. One way to divide the nutrient groups is based on whether the compounds contain the element carbon. Substances that contain carbon are **organic** substances; those that do not are **inorganic**. Carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, and vitamins are all organic; minerals and water are not. Structurally, nutrients can be very simple—minerals such as sodium are single elements, although we often consume them as larger compounds (e.g., sodium chloride, which is table salt). Water also is very simple in structure. The organic nutrients have more complex structures—the carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins we eat

antioxidant A substance that combines with or otherwise neutralizes a free radical, thus preventing oxidative damage to cells and tissues.

macronutrients Nutrients, such as carbohydrate, fat, or protein, that are needed in relatively large amounts in the diet.

micronutrients Nutrients, such as vitamins and minerals, that are needed in relatively small amounts in the diet.

organic In chemistry, any compound that contains carbon, except carbon oxides (e.g., carbon dioxide) and sulfides and metal carbonates (e.g., potassium carbonate). The term *organic* also is used to denote crops that are grown without synthetic fertilizers or chemicals.

inorganic Any substance that does not contain carbon, excepting certain simple carbon compounds such as carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide. Common examples include table salt (sodium chloride) and baking soda (sodium bicarbonate).

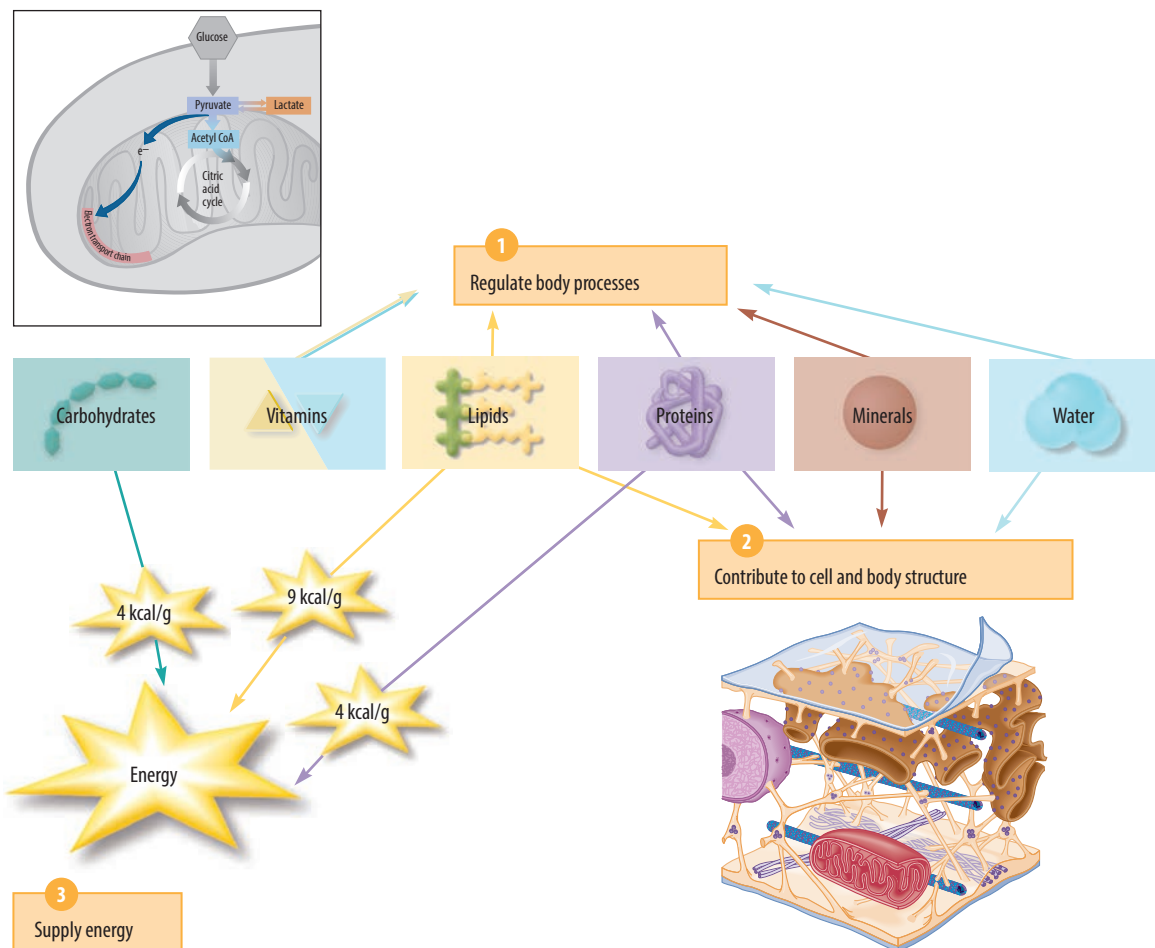








Figure 1.10 Nutrients have three general functions in your body. (1) Micronutrients, some lipids and proteins, and water help regulate body processes such as blood pressure, energy production, and temperature. (2) Lipids, proteins, minerals, and water help provide structure to bone, muscle, and other cells. (3) Macronutrients supply energy to power muscle contractions and cellular functions.

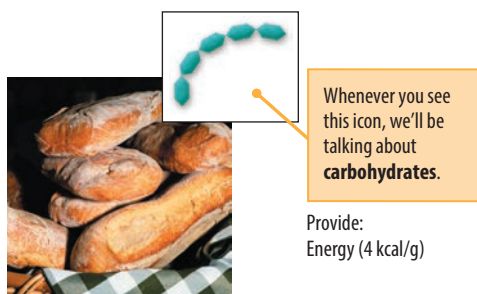
			
Vitamins	Carbohydrates	Lipids	Proteins
Complex chemical structures			

Organic – contains carbon

	
Minerals	Water
Simple chemical structures	

Inorganic – no carbon

Photo: © Photodisc



are made of smaller building blocks whereas the vitamins are elaborately structured compounds.

It is rare for a food to contain just one nutrient. Meat is not just protein and bread is not solely carbohydrate. Foods contain mixtures of nutrients, although in many cases protein, fat, or carbohydrate dominates. So, although bread is certainly rich in carbohydrates, it also contains some protein, a little fat, and many vitamins and minerals. If you're eating whole-grain bread, you also get fiber, which is not technically a nutrient, but an important compound for good health nonetheless.

Key Concepts Nutrients are the essential chemicals in food that the body needs for normal functioning and good health and that must come from the diet because they either cannot be made in the body or cannot be made in sufficient quantities. Six classes of nutrients—carbohydrates, proteins, lipids, vitamins, minerals, and water—can be described by their composition or by their function in the body.

Carbohydrates

If you think of water when you hear the word *hydrate*, then the word *carbohydrate*—or literally “hydrate of carbon”—tells you exactly what this nutrient is made of. **Carbohydrates** are made of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen and are a major source of fuel for the body. Dietary carbohydrates are the starches and sugars found in grains, vegetables, legumes (dry beans and peas), and fruits. We also get carbohydrates from dairy products, but practically none from meats. Your body converts most dietary carbohydrates to glucose, a simple sugar compound. It is glucose that we find in **circulation**, providing a source of energy for cells and tissues.

Lipids

The term **lipids** refers to substances we know as fats and oils but also to fat-like substances in foods, such as cholesterol and phospholipids. Lipids are organic compounds and, like carbohydrates, contain carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. Fats and oils—or, more correctly, **triglycerides**—are another major fuel source for the body. In addition, triglycerides, cholesterol, and phospholipids have other important functions: providing structure for body cells, carrying the fat-soluble vitamins (A, D, E, and K), and providing the starting material (cholesterol) for making many **hormones**. Dietary sources of lipids include the fats and oils we cook with or add to foods, the naturally occurring fats in meats and dairy products, and some less obvious plant sources, such as coconut, olives, and avocado.

Proteins

Proteins are organic compounds made of smaller building blocks called **amino acids**. Unlike carbohydrates and lipids, amino acids contain nitrogen as well as carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. Some amino acids also contain the mineral sulfur. The amino acids that we get from dietary protein combine with the amino acids made in the body to make hundreds of different body proteins. Body proteins help build and maintain body structures and regulate body processes. Protein also can be used for energy.

Proteins are found in a variety of foods, but meats and dairy products are among the most concentrated sources. Grains, **legumes**, and vegetables all contribute protein to the diet, whereas fruits contribute negligible amounts.

Vitamins

Vitamins are organic compounds that contain carbon and hydrogen and perhaps nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, sulfur, or other elements. Vitamins

carbohydrates Compounds, including sugars, starches, and dietary fibers, that usually have the general chemical formula $(CH_2O)_n$, where n represents the number of CH_2O units in the molecule. Carbohydrates are a major source of energy for body functions.

circulation Movement of substances through the vessels of the cardiovascular or lymphatic system.

lipids A group of fat-soluble compounds that includes triglycerides, sterols, and phospholipids.

triglycerides Fats composed of three fatty acid chains linked to a glycerol molecule.

hormones Chemical messengers that are secreted into the blood by one tissue and act on cells in another part of the body.

proteins Large, complex compounds consisting of many amino acids connected in varying sequences and forming unique shapes.

amino acids Organic compounds that function as the building blocks of protein.

legumes A family of plants with edible seed pods, such as peas, beans, lentils, and soybeans; also called *pulses*.

vitamins Organic compounds necessary for reproduction, growth, and maintenance of the body. Vitamins are required in minuscule amounts.

regulate body processes such as energy production, blood clotting, and calcium balance. Vitamins help to keep organs and tissues functioning and healthy. Because vitamins have such diverse functions, a lack of a particular vitamin can have widespread effects. Although the body does not break down vitamins to yield energy, vitamins have vital roles in the extraction of energy from carbohydrate, fat, and protein.

Vitamins are usually divided into two groups: fat-soluble and water-soluble. The four fat-soluble vitamins—A, D, E, and K—have very diverse roles. What they have in common is the way they are absorbed and transported in the body and the fact that they are more likely to be stored in larger quantities than the water-soluble vitamins are. The water-soluble vitamins include vitamin C and eight B vitamins: thiamin (B₁), riboflavin (B₂), niacin (B₃), pyridoxine (B₆), cobalamin (B₁₂), folate, pantothenic acid, and biotin. Most of the B vitamins are involved in some way with the pathways for energy metabolism. Vitamins are found in a wide variety of foods, not just fruits and vegetables—although these are important sources—but also meats, grains, legumes, dairy products, and even fats. Choosing a well-balanced diet usually makes vitamin supplements unnecessary. In fact, when taken in large doses, vitamin supplements (especially those containing vitamins A, D, B₆, or niacin) can be harmful.

THINK
About It
3

Minerals

Structurally, **minerals** are simple, inorganic substances. At least 16 minerals are essential to health; among them are sodium, chloride, potassium, calcium, phosphorus, and magnesium. Because the body needs these minerals in relatively large quantities compared with other minerals, they are often called **macrominerals**. The body needs the remaining minerals only in very small amounts. These **microminerals**, or **trace minerals**, include iron, zinc, copper, manganese, molybdenum, selenium, iodine, and fluoride. As with vitamins, the functions of minerals are diverse. Minerals can be found in structural roles (e.g., calcium, phosphorus, and fluoride in bones and teeth) as well as regulatory roles (e.g., control of fluid balance, regulation of muscle contraction).

Food sources of minerals are just as diverse. Deficiencies of minerals, except iron and perhaps calcium, are uncommon in the United States. A balanced diet provides enough minerals for most people. However, individuals with iron-deficiency anemia may need iron supplements, and others may need calcium supplements if they cannot or will not drink milk or eat dairy products. As is true for vitamins, excessive intake of some minerals as supplements can be toxic.

Water

Water is the most essential nutrient! We can survive far longer without any of the other nutrients in the diet, indeed without food at all, than we can without water. Water has many roles in the body, including temperature control, lubrication of joints, and transportation of nutrients and wastes.

Because your body is nearly 60 percent water, regular fluid intake to maintain adequate hydration is important. Water is found not only in beverages but also in most food products. Fruits and vegetables in particular are high in water content. Through many chemical reactions, the body makes some of its own water, but this is only a fraction of the amount needed for normal function.

Key Concepts The body needs larger amounts of carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins (macronutrients) than vitamins and minerals (micronutrients). Carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins provide energy; proteins, vitamins, minerals, water, and some fatty acids regulate body processes; and proteins, lipids, minerals, and water contribute to body structure.

Photo: © Photodisc

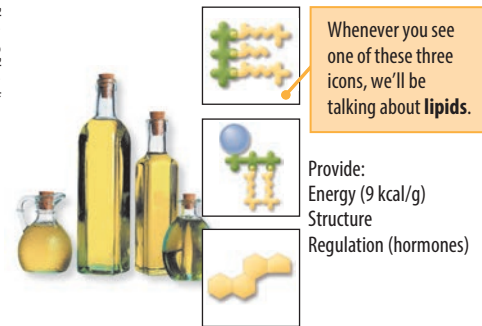


Photo: © Photodisc

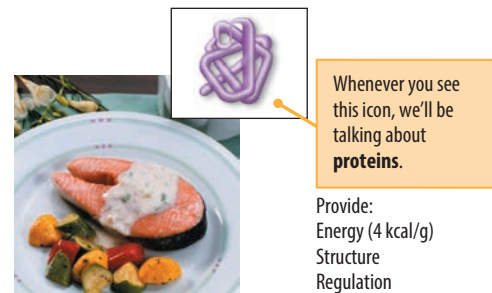


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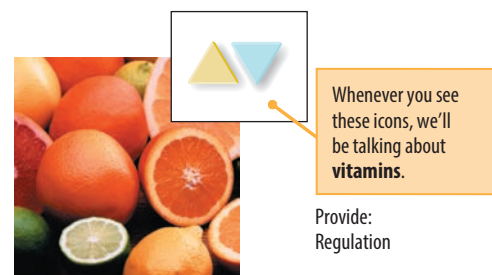


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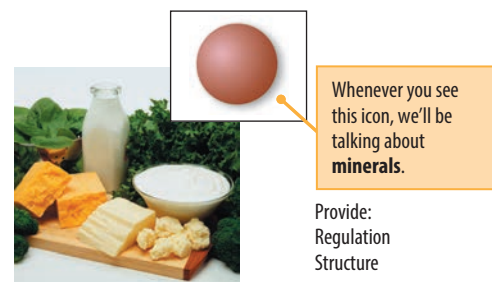
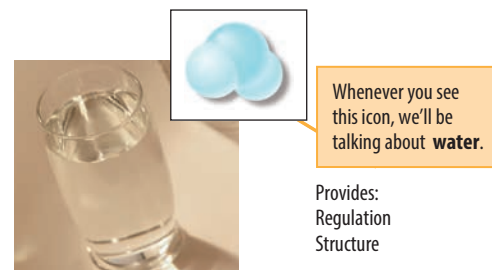
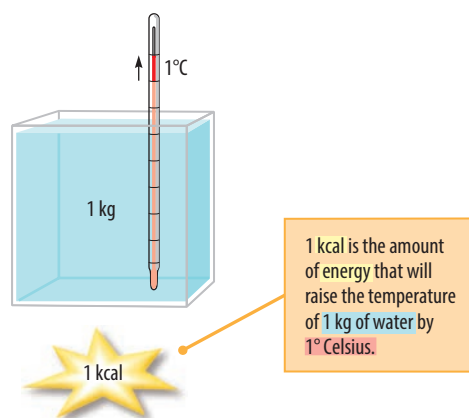


Photo: © Nancy R. Choe/Photodisc/Getty Images





minerals Inorganic compounds needed for growth and for regulation of body processes.

macrominerals Major minerals required in the diet and present in the body in large amounts compared with trace minerals.

microminerals See *trace minerals*.

trace minerals Trace minerals are present in the body and required in the diet in relatively small amounts compared with major minerals; also known as microminerals.

energy The capacity to do work. The energy in food is chemical energy, which the body converts to mechanical, electrical, or heat energy.

kilocalories (kcal) [KILL-oh-kal-oh-rees] Units used to measure energy. Food energy is measured in kilocalories (1,000 calories = 1 kilocalorie).

calorie The general term for energy in food and used synonymously with the term *energy*. Often used instead of kilocalorie on food labels, in diet books, and in other sources of nutrition information.

nutrients and energy

One major reason we eat food, and the nutrients it contains, is for **energy**. Every cellular reaction, every muscle movement, every nerve impulse requires energy. Three of the nutrient classes—carbohydrates, lipids (triglycerides only), and proteins—are energy sources. When we speak of the energy in foods, we are really talking about the *potential* energy that foods contain. Energy itself is not a food component.

Different scientific disciplines use different measures of energy. In nutrition, we discuss the potential energy in food, or the body's use of energy, in units of heat called **kilocalories** (1,000 calories). One kilocalorie (or kcal) is the amount of energy (heat) it would take to raise the temperature of 1 kilogram (kg) of water by 1 degree Celsius. For now, this may be an abstract concept, but, as you learn more about nutrition, you will discover how much energy you likely need to fuel your daily activities. You also will learn about the amounts of potential energy in various foods.

energy in Foods

Energy is available from foods because foods contain carbohydrate, fat, and protein. These nutrients can be broken down completely (metabolized) to yield energy in a form that cells can use. When completely metabolized in the body, carbohydrate and protein yield 4 kilocalories of energy for every gram (g) consumed; fat yields 9 kilocalories per gram; and alcohol contributes 7 kilocalories per gram (see **Figure 1.11**). Therefore, the energy available from a given food or from a total diet is reflected by the amount of each of these substances consumed. Because fat is a concentrated source of energy, adding or removing fat from the diet can have a big effect on available energy.

When Is a Kilocalorie a Calorie?

Food energy is measured in kilocalories; however, many people use the terms **calorie** and *kilocalorie* interchangeably. You should use the term *calorie* as a general term for energy and *kilocalorie* as a specific measurement or unit of that energy. The following sentence illustrates the use of kilocalorie and calorie: Because fat contains 9 *kilocalories* per gram, more than double that of protein or carbohydrate, foods high in fat are rich in *calories* (energy).

You'll find that food labels, diet books, and other sources of nutrition information use the term *calorie*, not *kilocalorie*. Technically, the potential energy in foods is best measured in kilocalories; however, the term *calorie* has become familiar and commonplace.

How Can We Calculate the Energy Available from Foods?

To calculate the energy available from food, multiply the number of grams of fat, carbohydrate, and protein by 9, 4, and 4, respectively; then, add the results. For example, if we assume that one bagel with one and a half ounces of cream cheese contains 39 grams of carbohydrate, 10 grams of protein, and 16 grams of fat, we can determine the available energy from each component.

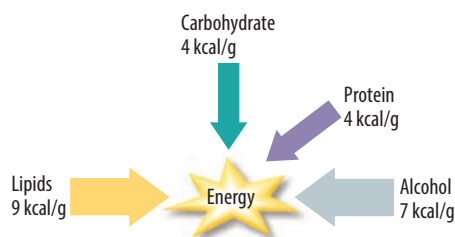


Figure 1.11 **Energy sources.** Carbohydrate, fat, protein, and alcohol provide different amounts of energy per gram.

39 g carbohydrate × 4 kcal/g	=	156 kcal
10 g protein × 4 kcal/g	=	40 kcal
16 g fat × 9 kcal/g	=	144 kcal
Total	=	340 kcal

Be Food Smart: Calculate the Percentages of Calories in Food

To calculate the *percentage* of calories that carbohydrate, protein, and fat each contribute to the total, divide the individual results by the total, and then multiply by 100. For example, to determine the percentage of calories from fat in a bagel with cream cheese, divide the 144 fat kilocalories by the total of 340 kilocalories, and then multiply by 100 ($144 \div 340 \times 100 = 42$ percent).

Current health recommendations suggest limiting fat intake to about 20 to 35 percent of *total* energy intake. You can monitor this for yourself in two ways. If you like counting fat grams, you can first determine your suggested maximum fat intake. For example, if you need to eat 2,000 kilocalories each day to maintain your current weight, at most 35 percent of those calories can come from fat:

$2,000 \text{ kcal} \times 0.35$	=	700 kcal from fat
$700 \text{ kcal from fat} \div 9 \text{ kcal/g}$	=	77.8 g of fat

Therefore, your maximum fat intake should be about 78 grams. You can check food labels to see how many fat grams you typically eat.

Another way to monitor your fat intake is to know the percentage of calories that come from fat in various foods. If the proportion of fat in each food choice throughout the day exceeds 35 percent of calories, then the day's total of fat will be too high as well. Some foods contain virtually no fat calories (e.g., fruits, vegetables) whereas others are nearly 100 percent fat calories (e.g., margarine, salad dressing). Being aware that a snack like the bagel with cream cheese provides 42 percent of its calories from fat can help you select lower-fat foods at other times of the day.

Diet and health

What does it mean to be healthy? The World Health Organization (WHO) defines health as “a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.”²⁵ Although we often focus on the last part of that definition, “the absence of disease or infirmity,” the first part is equally important. As you have learned, nutrition is an important part of physical, mental, and social well-being. It also is important for preventing disease.

Disease can be defined as “an impairment of the normal state of the living animal or plant body or one of its parts that interrupts or modifies the performance of the vital functions” and can arise from environmental factors or specific infectious agents, such as bacteria or viruses.²⁶ Diseases can be *acute* (short-lived illnesses that arise and resolve quickly) or *chronic* (diseases with a slow onset and long duration). Although nutrition can affect our susceptibility to acute diseases—and contaminated food is certainly a source of acute disease—our food choices are more likely to affect our risk for developing chronic diseases such as heart disease or cancer. Other lifestyle factors, such as smoking and exercise, in addition to genetic factors, also determine who gets sick and who remains healthy. The 10 leading causes of death are listed in [Table 1.3](#). Nutrition plays a role in the prevention or treatment of more than half of the conditions listed. Heart disease and cancer, together, account for almost half of all deaths.²⁷

Calculating the energy available from foods

$\text{g carbo} \times 4 =$	_____
+	$\text{g protein} \times 4 =$ _____
+	$\text{g fat} \times 9 =$ _____
=	Total kcal

Example:

$$275 \text{ g carbohydrate} \times 4 \text{ kcal/g} = 1,100 \text{ kcal}$$

$$75 \text{ g protein} \times 4 \text{ kcal/g} = 300 \text{ kcal}$$

$$67 \text{ g fat} \times 9 \text{ kcal/g} = 600 \text{ kcal (rounded from 603 kcal)}$$

$$\text{Total} = 2,000 \text{ kcal}$$

Calculating the percentage of kilocalories from nutrients

$\text{g carbo} \times 4 =$	_____
\div	$\frac{\text{Total kcal}}{\text{Total kcal}} \times 100 = \% \text{ carbo kcal}$
$\text{g protein} \times 4 =$	_____
\div	$\frac{\text{Total kcal}}{\text{Total kcal}} \times 100 = \% \text{ protein kcal}$
$\text{g fat} \times 9 =$	_____
\div	$\frac{\text{Total kcal}}{\text{Total kcal}} \times 100 = \% \text{ fat kcal}$

Example:

$$275 \text{ g carbohydrate} \times 4 = 1,100 \text{ kcal}$$

$$1,100 \text{ kcal} \div 2,000 \text{ kcal} \times 100 = 55\% \text{ carbo. kcal}$$

$$75 \text{ g protein} \times 4 = 300 \text{ kcal}$$

$$300 \text{ kcal} \div 2,000 \text{ kcal} \times 100 = 15\% \text{ protein kcal}$$

$$67 \text{ g fat} \times 9 = 600 \text{ kcal (rounded from 603 kcal)}$$

$$600 \text{ kcal} \div 2,000 \text{ kcal} \times 100 = 30\% \text{ fat kcal}$$

Table 1.3 Leading Causes of Death: United States

rank	Cause of Death
1	Heart disease ^a
2	Cancer ^a
3	Chronic lower respiratory diseases
4	Stroke
5	Accidents (unintentional injuries)
6	Alzheimer's disease
7	Diabetes mellitus ^a
8	Influenza and pneumonia
9	Kidney disease ^a
10	Intentional self-harm (suicide)

^a Causes for which nutrition is thought to be important in the prevention or treatment of the condition.

Source: Reproduced from Kochanek KD, Xu J, Murphy SL, Miniño AM, Kung H-C. Deaths: preliminary data for 2009. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. 2011;59(4). www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/nvsr/nvsr59/nvsr59_04.pdf. Accessed 3/1/12.

Table 1.4 health risks from Overweight and Obesity

- Type 2 diabetes
- Coronary heart disease
- High LDL ("bad") cholesterol
- Stroke
- Hypertension
- Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease
- Gallbladder disease
- Osteoarthritis (degeneration of cartilage and bone of joints)
- Sleep apnea and other breathing problems
- Some forms of cancer (breast, colorectal, endometrial, and kidney)
- Complications of pregnancy
- Menstrual irregularities

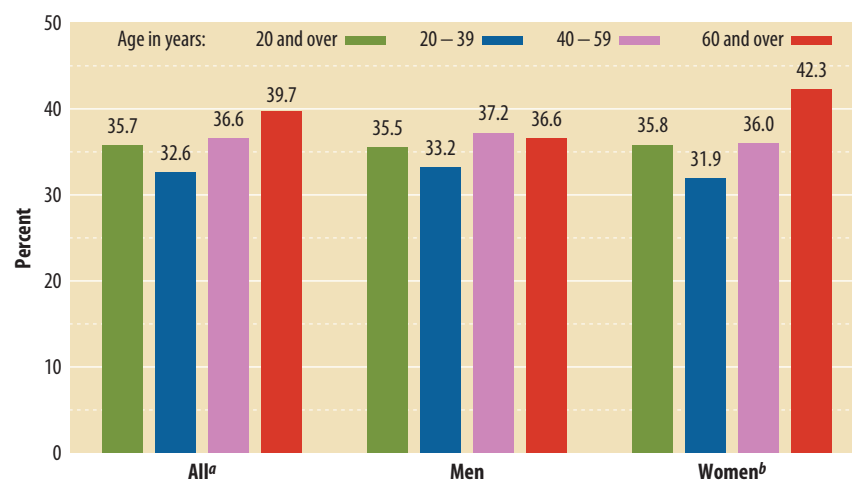
Source: Reproduced from Weight-Control Information Network (WIN). Overweight and obesity statistics. <http://win.niddk.nih.gov/statistics/#overweight>. Accessed 3/1/12.

The foods we choose do more than provide us with an adequate diet. The balance of energy sources can affect our risk of chronic disease. For example, high-fat diets have been linked to heart disease and cancer. Excess calories contribute to obesity, which also increases disease risk. Other nutrients, such as the minerals sodium, chloride, calcium, and magnesium, affect blood pressure while a lack of the vitamin folate prior to conception and in early pregnancy can cause serious birth defects. Non-nutrient components in the diet (e.g., phytochemicals) may have antioxidant or immune-enhancing properties that also can keep us healthy. The choices we make can reduce our disease risk as well as provide energy and essential nutrients.

Obesity

Once considered merely an aesthetic issue, obesity is now widely recognized as a major public health problem. The prevalence of obesity has steadily increased among men, women, and children of all ages, racial/ethnic groups, and educational levels. Currently, more than two-thirds of U.S. adults are overweight or obese (see the graph below). Among children, approximately 12.4 percent of those ages 2 to 5 years, 17 percent of those ages 6 to 11 years, and 17.6 percent of those ages 12 to 19 years are overweight or obese.²⁸

Overweight and obesity are risk factors for the major chronic diseases of public health significance in the United States and Canada: coronary heart disease, cancer, diabetes, hypertension, and metabolic syndrome as well as conditions such as those shown in **Table 1.4**. Individuals who are obese have a significantly increased risk of death from all causes, but most often cardiovascular causes, compared with individuals at a healthy weight. Obesity is associated with more than 112,000 excess deaths resulting from cardiovascular disease, more than 15,000 excess deaths resulting from cancer, and more than 35,000 excess deaths resulting from noncancer, noncardiovascular disease causes per year in the U.S. population, relative to healthy-weight individuals.²⁹



Prevalence of obesity in the United States, 2009–2010.

^a Significant increasing linear trend by age ($p < 0.01$).

^b Significant increasing linear trend by age ($p < 0.001$).

Note: Estimates were age adjusted by the direct method to the 2000 U.S. Census population using the age groups 20–39, 40–59, and 60+.

Source: Reproduced from Ogden CL, Carroll MD, Kit BK, Flegal KM. *Prevalence of Obesity in the United States, 2009–2010*. NCHS data brief, no 82. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics; 2012.

A number of factors influence overweight or obesity, including the following:

- *Behavior:* Eating too many calories while not getting enough physical activity.
- *Environment:* Home, work, school, or community can provide barriers to or opportunities for an active lifestyle.
- *Genetics:* Heredity plays a large role in determining how susceptible people are to overweight and obesity. Genes also influence how the body burns calories for energy or stores fat.

Behavioral and environmental factors are the main contributors to overweight and obesity and provide the greatest opportunity for prevention and treatment.

Physical Activity

A sedentary lifestyle also is a significant risk factor for chronic disease. Physically active people generally outlive those who are inactive, and, as a risk factor for heart disease, inactivity can be almost as significant as high blood pressure, smoking, or high blood cholesterol. Physical activity plays a significant role in long-term weight management. The 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans states, “Physical activity is safe for almost everyone and the health benefits of physical activity far outweigh the risks. ... For all individuals, some activity is better than none.”³⁰ At least 30 minutes per day of moderate physical activity such as brisk walking or cycling helps reduce chronic disease risk, and higher amounts of exercise—at least 60 minutes per day—have a positive impact on weight-management efforts.

Key Concepts All cells and tissues need energy to keep the body functioning. Energy in foods and in the body is measured in kilocalories. The carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins in food are potential sources of energy, meaning that the body can extract energy from them. Triglycerides (fats) are the most concentrated source of energy, with 9 kilocalories per gram. Carbohydrates and proteins provide 4 kilocalories per gram, while alcohol has 7 kilocalories per gram. Excess energy intake is a contributing factor to obesity, a major public health issue. All individuals should aim to be physically active for at least 30 minutes daily to reduce risk of chronic disease and manage body weight.

applying the Scientific Process to nutrition

Whether it’s identifying essential nutrients, establishing recommended intake levels, or exploring the effects of vitamins on cancer risk, scientific studies are the cornerstone of nutrition. Although we may use creative, artistic talents to choose and serve a pleasing array of healthful foods, the fundamentals of nutrition are developed through the scientific process of observation and inquiry.

The scientific process enables researchers to test the validity of **hypotheses** that arise from observations of natural phenomena. For example, it was common knowledge in the eighteenth century that sailors on long voyages would likely develop scurvy (which we now know results from a deficiency of vitamin C). Scurvy had been recognized since ancient times, and its common symptoms—pinpoint skin hemorrhages, swollen and bleeding gums, joint pain, fatigue and lethargy, and psychological changes such as depression and hysteria—were well known. Native populations discovered plant foods that would cure this illness; among Native Americans these included cranberries in the Northeast and many tree extracts in other parts of the country. From observations such as these come questions that lead to hypotheses, or “educated guesses,” about factors that might be responsible for the observed phenomenon. Scientists then test hypotheses using appropriate research designs. Poorly designed research can produce useless results or false conclusions.

Nutrition research is exciting and always changing. Scientists ask questions to be answered and define problems to be solved. Investigators choose a study

hypotheses Scientists’ “educated guesses” to explain phenomena.

Table 1.5

Common Study Designs Used in nutrition research

Epidemiological studies	An epidemiological study compares disease rates among population groups and attempts to identify related conditions or behaviors such as diet and smoking habits. Epidemiological studies can provide useful information about relationships but often do not clarify cause and effect. The results of these studies show correlations —relationships between two or more factors, however. Epidemiological studies can provide important clues and insights that lead to animal and human studies that can further clarify diet and disease relationships. The relationship between inadequate vitamin C intake and scurvy is one example of this.
Animal studies	Animal studies can provide preliminary data that often lead to human studies. Although animal studies can provide scientists with important information that furthers nutrition knowledge, the results of animal studies cannot be assumed to transfer directly to humans. Animal studies need to be followed with cell culture studies and ultimately human clinical studies to determine specific effects on humans.
Cell culture studies	Another way to study nutrition is to isolate specific types of cells and grow them in the laboratory. Scientists then can use these cells to study the effects of nutrients or other components on metabolic processes in the cell. An important area of nutrition research, called nutrigenomics , explores the effect of specific nutrients and other chemical compounds on gene expression. This area of molecular biology helps us explain individual differences in chronic disease risk factors and may lead to designing diets based on an individual's genetic profile.
Case control studies	Case control studies are small-scale epidemiological studies in which individuals who have a condition (e.g., breast cancer) are compared with similar individuals who do not have the condition. Researchers then identify factors other than the disease in question that differ between the two groups. These factors provide researchers with clues about the cause, progression, and prevention of the disease.
Clinical trials	Clinical trials , also called intervention studies , are controlled studies where some type of intervention (e.g., a nutrient supplement, controlled diet, exercise program) is used to determine its impact on certain health parameters. These studies include an experimental group (the people experience the intervention) and a control group (similar people who are not treated). Scientists measure aspects of health or disease in each group and compare the results.

design that will best answer their research question or hypothesis. Throughout the research process researchers must follow rigorous ethical procedures in all areas of the study design. Common study designs used in nutrition research are defined in [Table 1.5](#).

James Lind’s experiments with sailors aboard the *Salisbury* in 1747 are considered to be the first dietary clinical trial (see [Figure 1.12](#)). His observation that oranges and lemons were the only dietary elements that seemed to cure scurvy was an important finding. However, it took more than 40 years before the British Navy began routinely giving all sailors citrus juice or fruit, such as lemons or limes—a practice that led to the nickname “limeys” when referring to British sailors. It took nearly 200 years (until the 1930s) for scientists to isolate the compound we call vitamin C and show that it had anti-scurvy properties.³¹ The chemical name for vitamin C, ascorbic acid, comes from its role as an antiscorbutic (antiscurvy) compound.

Modern clinical trials include several important elements: random assignment to groups, use of placebos, and the double-blind method. Subjects are assigned randomly—as by the flip of a coin—to the experimental group or the control group. This reduces the risk of introducing bias into either group. People in the experimental group receive the treatment or specific protocol (e.g., consuming a certain nutrient at a specific level). People in the control group do not receive the treatment but usually receive a **placebo**. A placebo is an imitation treatment (such as a sugar pill) that looks the same as the experimental treatment but has no effect. The placebo also is important for reducing bias because subjects do not know if they are receiving the intervention and are less inclined to alter their responses or reported symptoms based on what they think should happen. The *expectation* that a medication will be effective can be nearly as effective as the medication itself—a phenomenon called the **placebo effect**. Because the placebo effect can exert a powerful influence, research studies must take it into account.

correlations

Connections co-occurring more frequently than can be explained by chance or coincidence but without a proven cause.

nutrigenomics

The study of how nutrition interacts with specific genes to influence a person's health.

case control studies

Investigations that use a group of people with a particular condition rather than a randomly selected population. These cases are compared with a control group of people who do not have the condition.

clinical trials

Studies that collect large amounts of data to evaluate the effectiveness of a treatment.

intervention studies

See *clinical trials*.

experimental group

A set of people being studied to evaluate the effect of an event, substance, or technique.

control group

A set of people used as a standard of comparison to the experimental group. The people in the control group have characteristics similar to those in the experimental group and are selected at random.

placebo

An inactive substance that is outwardly indistinguishable from the active substance whose effects are being studied.

placebo effect

A physical or emotional change that is not caused by properties of an administered substance. The change reflects participants' expectations.

1. Observation

Sailors on long voyages all became ill with scurvy.

2. Hypothesis

Lack of certain foods causes scurvy.

3. Experimentation

Experiment to test hypothesis.

Predicts that some dietary element will cure scurvy.

Key

Controlled variables
Experimental variables
Results
Conclusions

James Lind: A Treatise of the Scurvy in Three Parts.
Containing an inquiry into the Nature, Causes and Cure of that Disease,
together with a Critical and Chronological View of what has been
published on the subject. A. Millar, London, 1753.

On the 20th May, 1747, I took twelve patients in the scurvy on board the Salisbury at sea. Their cases were as similar as I could have them. They all in general had putrid gums, the spots and lassitude, with weakness of their knees. They lay together in one place, being a proper apartment for the sick in the fore-hold; and had one diet in common to all, viz., water gruel sweetened with sugar in the morning; fresh mutton broth often times for dinner; at other times puddings, boiled biscuit with sugar ect.; and for supper barley, raisins, rice and currants, sago and wine, or the like. Two of these were ordered each, a quart of cyder a day. Two others took twenty five gutts of elixir vitriol three times a day upon an empty stomach, using a gargle strongly acidulated with it for their mouths. Two others took two spoonfuls of vinegar three times a day upon an empty stomach, having their gruels and their other food well acidulated with it, as also the gargle for the mouth. Two of the worst patients, with the tendons in the ham rigid (a symptom none the rest had) were put under, a course of sea water. Of this they drank half a pint every day and sometimes more or less as it operated by way of gentle physic. Two others had each, two oranges and one lemon given them every day. These they eat with greediness at different times upon an empty stomach. They continued but six days under, this course, having consumed the quantity that could be spared. The two remaining patients took the bigness of a nutmeg three times a day of an electuary recommended by an hospital surgeon made of garlic, mustard seed, rad. raphan., balsam of Peru and gum myrrh, using for common drink narley water well acidulated with tamarinds, by a decoction of wich, with the addition of cremor tartar, they were gently purged three or four times during the course.

The consequence was that the most sudden and visible good effects were perceived from the use of the oranges and lemons; one of those who had taken them being at the end of six days fit for duty. The spots were not indeed at that time quite off his body, nor his gums sound; but without any other medicine than a gargarism or, elixir of vitriol he became quite healthy before we came into Plymouth, which was on the 16th June. The other was the best recovered of any in his condition, and being now deemed pretty well was appointed nurse to the rest of the sick...

As I shall have occasion elsewhere to take notice of the effects of other medicines in this disease, I shall here only observe that the result of all my experiments was that oranges and lemons were the most effectual remedies for this distemper at sea. I am apt to think oranges preferable to lemons...

4. Publication

Publication subjects the findings to peer review by fellow scientists.

5. More experiments

Further experiments replicate the findings and extend knowledge.

6. Theory

Scientists consolidate acquired knowledge into a theory that explains the observed phenomenon.

Figure 1.12 The first clinical trial. In 1753, physician James Lind reported the careful process of his clinical trial among British sailors afflicted with scurvy.

double-blind study A research study set up so that neither the subjects nor the investigators know which study group is receiving the placebo and which is receiving the active substance.

peer review An appraisal of research against accepted standards by professionals in the field.

Quick Bite

Controlling the Pesky Placebo

When researchers tested the effectiveness of a medication in reducing binge eating among people with bulimia, they used a double-blind, placebo-controlled study to eliminate the placebo effect. After a baseline number of binge-eating episodes was determined, 22 women with bulimia were given the medication or a placebo. After a period of time, the number of binge-eating episodes was reassessed. The group taking the medication had a 78 percent reduction in binge-eating episodes. Sounds good, right? But, the placebo group had a similar reduction of 70 percent. The placebo effect was nearly as powerful as the medication.



Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics

Food and Nutrition Misinformation

It is the position of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics that food and nutrition misinformation can have harmful effects on the health and economic status of consumers. Nationally credentialed dietetics professionals working in health care, academia, public health, nutrition communications, media, and the food industry and serving in policy-making/regulatory roles are uniquely qualified to advocate for and promote sound, science-based nutrition information to the public, function as primary nutrition educators to health professionals, and actively counter and correct food and nutrition misinformation.

Source: Reproduced from Warsink B. Position of the American Dietetic Association: food and nutrition misinformation. *J Am Diet Assoc.* 2006;106(4):601–607.

When the members of neither the experimental nor the control group know what treatment they are receiving, we say the subjects are “blinded” to the treatment. If a clinical trial is designed so that neither the subjects nor the researchers collecting data are aware of the subjects’ group assignments (experimental or control), the study is called a **double-blind study**. This reduces the possibility that researchers will see the results they want to see even if these results do not occur. In this case, another member of the research team holds the code for subject assignments and does not participate in the data collection. Double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trials are considered the gold standard of nutrition studies. These studies can show clear cause-and-effect relationships but often require large numbers of subjects and are expensive and time consuming to conduct.

Publishing experimental results

Once an experiment is complete, scientists publish the results in a scientific journal to communicate new information to other scientists. Generally, before articles are published in scientific journals, other scientists who have expert knowledge of the subject critically review them. **Peer review** ensures that only high-quality research findings are published. Unfortunately, peer-reviewed journals such as the *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition* and the *Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics* are not the main sources of information presented in the popular media.

Key Concepts The scientific method is used to expand our nutrition knowledge. Hypotheses are formed from observations and are then tested by experiments. Epidemiological studies observe patterns in populations. Animal and cell culture studies can test effects of various treatments. For human studies, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trials are the best research tools for determining cause-and-effect relationships.

Headlines Can Be Confusing

A scientific article can become a 30-second sound bite that often fails to reflect the original data. In some cases, the study may be distorted, with its results misstated or overstated (see **Figure 1.13**). What can we believe about the nutrition and health headlines we see in the newspapers, hear on television, or read on the Internet daily? Consumers often are confused by what they see as the “wishy-washiness” of scientists—for example, coffee is good, then coffee is bad. Margarine is better than butter. ... No wait, maybe butter is better after all. These contradictions, despite the confusion they cause, show us that nutrition is truly a science: dynamic, changing, and growing with each new finding.

Sorting Facts and Fallacies in the Media

People tend to believe what they hear repeatedly. Even when it has no basis in fact, a claim can seem credible if heard often enough. For example, do you believe that sugar makes kids hyperactive? There is little scientific evidence to support this claim! Although news stories may be based on reports in the scientific literature, the media can distort the facts through omission of details.

SCIENTISTS DISPUTE CLAIMS OF GINKGO BILOBA EFFECTIVENESS

There have been over four hundred scientific studies conducted on proprietary standardized

Schwabe Co. of Karlsruhe, Germany, producer of the proprietary extract EGb 761. Ginkgo extract is a good example of a natural product that has been marketed as a dietary supplement. It is sold in many forms, including capsules, tablets, and liquid extracts. The extract is made from the leaves and seeds of the Ginkgo biloba tree, which is a

Researchers Link Caffeine and Cancer

Some Say Ginkgo Biloba Improves Memory

Cancer and Vitamin E Link Disputed

Vitamin E Reduces Risk of Cancer

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The walls recognize the risk of oxidized LDLs as toxic to the

Vitamin E reduces the risk of LDL cholesterol being oxidized

logical cells called foam cells.

As scientific information is made accessible to more and more people, less detail is provided and more opinion and sensationalism are introduced.

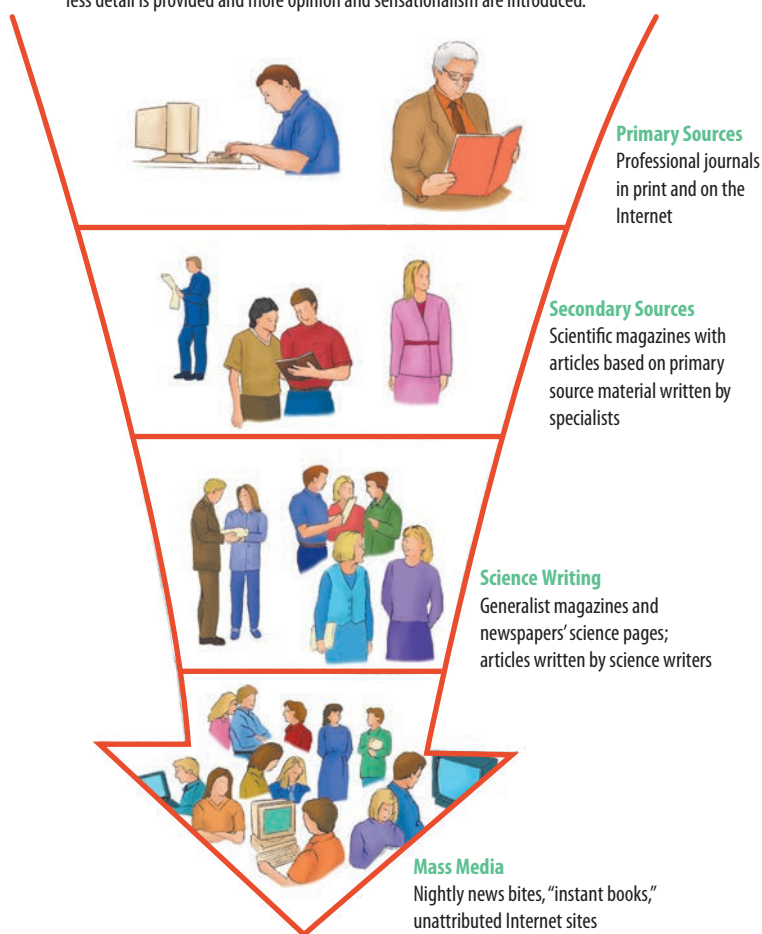


Figure 1.13

Sorting facts and fallacies. From original research to the evening news, each step along the way introduces biases as information is summarized and restated. Whether on television, radio, the Internet, or in print, the best consumer information cites sources for reported facts.

(See the FYI feature "Evaluating Information on the Internet.") **Table 1.6** lists where you can start when looking for reliable nutrition information.

As you learn about nutrition, you will undoubtedly be more aware not only of your eating and shopping habits but also of nutrition-related information in the media. As you see and hear reports, stop to think carefully about what you are hearing. Headlines and news reports often overstate the findings of a study. Two other things to keep in mind: One study does not

Table 1.6 **reliable nutrition information**

Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics	The Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics is an international organization of food and nutrition professionals. The academy's website www.eatright.org has useful consumer education materials.
Registered dietitians	A food and nutrition expert who has met the minimum academic and professional requirements in the study of nutrition and dietetics.
Physicians	Many primary care physicians are knowledgeable about basic nutrition concepts and will refer their patients to registered dietitians for in-depth dietary counseling when needed.
USDA National Agriculture Library and the Food and Nutrition Information Center:	Online access to government food and nutrition information at www.nutrition.gov and www.nal.usda.gov/food-and-nutrition .
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services	Healthfinder.gov lists health and nutrition topics, and ChooseMyPlate.gov provides personalized diet and nutrition information.

provide all the answers to our nutrition questions; and if it sounds too good to be true, it probably is!

Your study of nutrition is just beginning. As you learn about the essential nutrients, their functions, and food sources, be alert to your food choices and the factors that influence them. When the discussion turns to the role of diet in health, think about your preconceived ideas and evaluate your beliefs in light of the current scientific evidence. Keep an open mind, but also think critically. Most of all, remember that food is more than the nutrients it provides; it is part of the way we enjoy and celebrate life!



Evaluating Information on the Internet

Surfing the Web has made life easier in many ways. You can buy a car, check stock prices, search out sources for a paper you're writing, chat with like-minded people, and stay up-to-date on news or sports scores. Hundreds of websites are devoted to nutrition and health topics, and you may be asked to visit such sites as part of your course requirements. So, how do you evaluate the quality of information on the Web? Can you trust what you see?

First, it's important to remember that there are no rules for posting on the Internet. Anyone who has the equipment can set up a website and post any content he or she likes. Although the Health on the Net Foundation has

Use the Internet; it's fun and can be educational. Don't forget about the library, though, because many scientific journals are not available online. Treat claims as "guilty until proven innocent"—in other words, don't accept what you read at face value until you have evaluated the science behind it. If it sounds too good to be true, it probably is!

set up a Code of Conduct for medical and health websites, following their eight principles is completely voluntary.¹

Second, consider the source, if you can tell what it is! Many websites do not specify where the content came from, who is responsible for it, or how often it is updated. If the site lists the authors, what are their credentials? Who sponsors the site itself? Educational institutions (.edu), government agencies (.gov), and organizations (.org) generally have more credibility than commercial (.com) sites, where selling rather than educating is the primary motive.² Identifying the purpose for a site can give you more clues about the validity of its content.

Third, when you see claims for nutrients, dietary supplements, or other products and results of studies or other information, keep in mind the scientific method and the basics of sound science. Who did the study? What type of study was it? How many subjects? Was it double-blind? Were the results published in a peer-reviewed journal? Think critically about the content, look at other sources, and ask questions of experts before you accept information as truth. What is true of books, magazines, and newspapers also applies to the Internet: Just because it is in print or online doesn't mean it's true.

Finally, be on the lookout for "junk science"—sloppy methods, interpretations, and claims that lead to public misinformation. The Food and Nutrition Science Alliance (FANSA) is a coalition of several health organizations, including the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics. FANSA has developed the "10 Red Flags of Junk Science" to help consumers identify potential misinformation. Use these red flags to evaluate websites.

The 10 Red Flags of Junk Science³

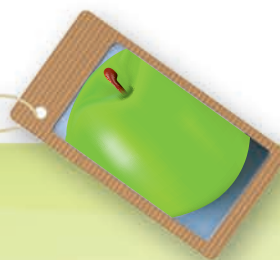
1. Recommendations that promise a quick fix
2. Dire warnings of danger from a single product or regimen
3. Claims that sound too good to be true
4. Simplistic conclusions drawn from a complex study
5. Recommendations based on a single study
6. Statements refuted by reputable scientific organizations
7. Lists of "good" and "bad" foods
8. Recommendations made to help sell a product
9. Recommendations based on studies not peer reviewed
10. Recommendations from studies that ignore differences among individuals or groups

- 1 Health on the Net Foundation. The HON Code of Conduct for medical and health websites (HONcode). www.hon.ch/HONcode/Conduct.html. Accessed 3/1/12.
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Courtesy of CDC

Learning Portfolio



Key Terms

	page	lipids	
amino acids	12	macrominerals	13
antioxidant	11	macronutrients	11
calorie	14	microminerals	13
carbohydrates	12	micronutrients	11
case control studies	18	minerals	13
circulation	12	neophobia	2
clinical trials	18	nutrients	10
control group	18	nutrigenomics	18
correlations	18	nutrition	2
double-blind study	20	obesogenic environment	5
energy	14	organic	11
essential nutrients	10	peer review	20
experimental group	18	phytochemicals	10
flavor	3	placebo	18
hormones	12	placebo effect	18
hypotheses	17	proteins	12
inorganic	11	trace minerals	13
intervention studies	18	triglycerides	12
kilocalories	14	umami	3
legumes	12	vitamins	12

Study Points

- Most people make food choices for reasons other than nutrient value.
- Taste and texture are the two most important factors that influence food choices.
- In all cultures, eating is the primary way of maintaining social relationships.
- Although most North Americans know about healthful food choices, their eating habits do not always reflect this knowledge.
- Food is a mixture of chemicals. Essential chemicals in food are called nutrients.
- Carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, vitamins, minerals, and water are the six classes of nutrients found in food.
- Nutrients have three general functions in the body: They serve as energy sources, structural components, and regulators of metabolic processes.
- Vitamins regulate body processes such as energy metabolism, blood clotting, and calcium balance.
- Minerals contribute to body structures and to regulating processes such as fluid balance.
- Water is the most important nutrient in the body. We can survive much longer without the other nutrients than we can without water.

- Energy in foods and the body is measured in kilocalories. Carbohydrates, fats, and proteins are sources of energy.
- Carbohydrate and protein have a potential energy value of 4 kilocalories per gram, and fat provides 9 kilocalories per gram.
- Scientific studies are the cornerstone of nutrition. The scientific method uses observation and inquiry to test hypotheses.
- Double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trials are considered the gold standard of nutrition studies.
- Research designs used to test hypotheses include epidemiological, animal, cell culture, and human studies.
- Information in the public media is not always an accurate or complete representation of the current state of the science on a particular topic.

Study Questions

1. Name three sensory aspects of food that influence our food choices.
2. How do our health beliefs affect our food choices?
3. List the six classes of nutrients.
4. List the 13 vitamins.
5. What determines whether a mineral is a macromineral or a micro- (trace) mineral?
6. How many kilocalories are in 1 gram of carbohydrate, of protein, and of fat?
7. What is an epidemiological study?
8. What is the difference between an experimental and control group?
9. What is a placebo?

Try This

Try a New Cuisine Challenge

Expand your culinary taste buds and try a new cuisine. In your local phone book, see how many ethnic restaurants are near campus. Choose a cuisine you are not very familiar with and take some friends along for dinner so that you can order and share several dishes. While you're there, don't be afraid to ask questions about the menu so that you can gain a better understanding of the foods, preparation techniques, spices, and even the cultural meaning attached to some of the dishes.

Food Label Puzzle

The purpose of this exercise is to put the individual pieces of the food label together to determine how many kilocalories are in a serving. Pick six foods in your dorm room or home that have complete food labels. Ask a friend to write down the value for calories on each label and then black out these numbers on the labels. Remember that the term *calories* on a food label is really referring to kilocalories. Your job is to determine how many kilocalories are in a serving of each of these foods. You can do this by putting together the individual pieces (carbohydrate, protein, and fat). If you need help, review this chapter and pay close attention to the section on the energy-yielding nutrients. How many kilocalories does each have per gram? You may find that the results of your calculations don't exactly match the numbers on the label. Within labeling guidelines, food manufacturers can round values.

What About Bobbie?

Bobbie is a 20-year-old college sophomore. She lives on campus and has one roommate. She has the standard meal plan with her university, so she eats most of her meals in the cafeteria. Sometimes she'll get a snack from the local coffee shop or a vending machine. Her schedule is fairly typical, with classes spread out in both the morning and afternoon. Occasionally at night, she and her friends will order pizza or go out for ice cream.

Bobbie weighs 155 pounds and is 5 feet, 4 inches tall. She gained 10 pounds her first year in college and would like to lose it because she feels that her ideal weight is more like 145 pounds. She exercises infrequently but likes to walk with her friends and take an occasional aerobics class. Here is a typical day of eating for Bobbie:

Sample one-day menu from Bobbie's diet

7:45 A.M.

1 raisin bagel, toasted
3 tablespoons light cream cheese
10 fluid ounces regular coffee
2 packets of sugar
2 tablespoons of 2% milk

10:15 A.M.

1 banana

12:15 P.M.

Turkey and cheese sandwich
2 slices sourdough bread
2 ounces sliced turkey lunch meat
2 teaspoons regular mayonnaise
2 teaspoons mustard
2 slices tomato
2 slices dill pickle
shredded lettuce
Salad from cafeteria salad bar
2 cups shredded iceberg lettuce
2 tablespoons each:
shredded carrot
chopped egg
croutons
kidney beans
Italian salad dressing
12 fluid ounces diet soda
1 small chocolate chip cookie

3:30 P.M.

16 fluid ounces water
1½ ounces regular tortilla chips
½ cup salsa

6:00 P.M.

Spaghetti with meatballs
1½ cups pasta
3 ounces ground beef (meatballs)
3 ounces spaghetti sauce
2 tablespoons Parmesan cheese
1 piece garlic bread
½ cup green beans
1 teaspoon butter
12 fluid ounces diet soda

10:15 P.M.

1 slice cheese pizza

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