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Incorporating Dietary Guidelines for Americans vegetable recommendations into the diet alters dietary intake patterns of other foods and improves diet quality in adults with overweight and obesity

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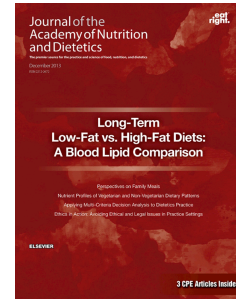
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1 **Research Snapshot**

2 *Research Question:* How do people incorporate DGA recommended types and amounts of
3 vegetables into their diet and how does this impact dietary intake patterns, diet quality, and body
4 weight and composition?

5 *Key Findings:* In this community-based parallel, randomized controlled trial that included 51
6 adults with overweight or obesity increasing vegetable consumption to meet DGA
7 recommendations for 8 weeks improved diet quality and decreased the energy density of the diet.
8 With the increase in vegetable consumption there were decreases in the number of servings of
9 total grains, protein foods, saturated fats and added sugars consumed. There was no change in
10 energy intake or body weight and composition.

Incorporating Dietary Guidelines for Americans vegetable recommendations into the diet alters dietary intake patterns and improves diet quality in adults with overweight and obesity

11 **Abstract**

12 *Background.* Understanding how vegetables are incorporated into the diet, especially in the types
13 and amounts recommended by the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (DGA), and how this alters
14 dietary intake patterns is vital for developing targeted behavior change interventions.

15 *Objective.* To determine how a provision of vegetables was incorporated into the diet of adults
16 with overweight and obesity, whether the provided vegetables displaced other foods and what, if
17 any, effect this had on diet quality and body weight and composition.

18 *Design.* This study investigated secondary outcomes from the “Motivating Value of Vegetables
19 Study”, a community-based, randomized, parallel, non-blinded controlled trial. Participants were
20 randomly assigned to a provided vegetable intervention or attention control group using a 1:1
21 allocation ratio.

22 *Participants/setting.* Men and women with self-reported low vegetable consumption, aged 18-65
23 years, with a body mass index ≥ 25 were recruited from Grand Forks, ND, between October
24 2015 and September 2017. Only participants randomized to the provided vegetable intervention
25 group (n=51; attrition=8%) were included in this secondary analysis.

26 *Intervention.* DGA recommended types and amounts of vegetables were provided weekly for 8
27 weeks.

28 *Main outcome measures.* How the provided vegetables were incorporated into the diet was
29 measured using daily self-report and 24-hour dietary recalls. Diet quality was assessed via the

30 Healthy Eating Index (HEI)-2015. Body weight and composition were measured before and after
31 the intervention.

32 *Statistical analyses performed.* Data were assessed using generalized linear mixed models where
33 phase (pre, post) was the within-subject factor and subject was the random effect.

34 *Results.* Participants self-reported using 29% of the provided vegetables as substitutes for other
35 foods. With the increase in vegetable consumption there were decreases in total grains (mean
36 difference \pm standard deviation; -0.97 ± 3.23 ounce-equivalents; $p = .02$), protein foods ($-1.24 \pm$
37 3.86 ounce-equivalents; $p = .01$), saturated fats (-6.44 ± 19.63 g; $p = .02$) and added sugars (-2.44
38 ± 6.78 teaspoon-equivalents; $p = .02$) consumed. Total HEI-2015 scores increased ($+4.48 \pm 9.63$;
39 $p = .001$) and dietary energy density decreased ($-.44 \pm .52$ kcals/g; $p < .0001$). There was no
40 change in total energy intake or body weight and composition.

41 *Conclusions.* Increasing vegetable consumption to meet DGA recommendations alters dietary
42 intake patterns, improving diet quality and energy density. These findings highlight the
43 importance of characterizing how individuals incorporate DGA recommendations into their diet.

Incorporating Dietary Guidelines for Americans vegetable recommendations into the diet alters dietary intake patterns and improves diet quality in adults with overweight and obesity

44 **Introduction**

45 The health benefits of eating vegetables are well known, yet consumption continues to be
46 below recommended amounts set forth by the Dietary Guidelines for Americans (DGA) for all
47 vegetable groups across all age groups with few exceptions.^{1,2} A variety of interventions can
48 increase vegetable consumption;^{3,4} however, upon cessation of the intervention, vegetable
49 consumption either returns to pre-study consumption amounts⁵ or remains only marginally
50 greater (less than 80 g per day).⁶ When attempting to incorporate vegetables into the diet,
51 individuals may add them without reducing the consumption of other foods or, alternatively, they
52 may substitute them into the diet by displacing other foods. DGA recommendations state that a
53 healthy eating pattern requires not only an increase in vegetable consumption from all vegetable
54 groups but that these nutrient-dense foods replace more energy-dense foods.¹ However, there is a
55 dearth of evidence on how interventions focused on increasing vegetable consumption alter
56 dietary intake patterns. Understanding how vegetables are incorporated into the diet, especially
57 in the types and amounts recommended by the DGA, and how this alters dietary intake patterns
58 is vital for developing targeted behavior change interventions that improve long-term adherence
59 to DGA recommendations.⁴

60 The relationship between vegetable consumption, energy intake, and weight management
61 has long been a topic of interest. Nonetheless, research into these relationships has provided
62 mixed results^{2,7-12} that may be explained by how the vegetables are incorporated into the diet.
63 DGA recommendations are based on energy needs.¹ Accordingly, when striving to increase

64 vegetable consumption simply adding vegetables to the diet could result in an increase in energy
65 intake whereas the substitution of vegetables could result in no change or a decrease in energy
66 intake. This is especially important for individuals with overweight and obesity. Therefore, the
67 aims of this study were threefold: 1) to determine how the provision of vegetables in the types
68 and amounts recommended by the DGA was incorporated into the diet; 2) to determine whether
69 the provided vegetables displaced other foods and what, if any, effect this had on diet quality; 3)
70 to determine whether incorporation of vegetables was associated with changes in body weight
71 (BW) and adiposity (percent body fat; %BF). The hypotheses were that participants would
72 substitute the provided vegetables into the diet, displacing energy-dense foods, resulting in lower
73 energy intake, better diet quality and decreased BW and %BF.

74 **Materials and Methods**

75 This study investigated a secondary outcome of a larger parent study.^{5, 13} The parent
76 study was conducted in accordance with CONSORT between October 2015 and January 2018 at
77 the Grand Forks Human Nutrition Research Center (GFHNRC). The trial was approved by the
78 University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board and is registered on ClinicalTrials.gov as
79 NCT02585102 (Motivating Value of Vegetables Study). All participants were recruited from the
80 Greater Grand Forks area through posted flyers and newspaper advertisements and provided
81 written informed consent prior to enrollment into the study. Detailed information on the study
82 design, participant selection, and procedures has been published.^{5, 13} Briefly, participants were
83 men and women aged 18-65 years with a body mass index (BMI) ≥ 25 kg/m² who self-reported
84 low habitual vegetable consumption (≤ 1 serving per day – excluding fried potatoes).^{5, 13} Habitual
85 vegetable consumption was established by asking participants during their initial visit “About
86 how many cups of vegetables (excluding fried potatoes) do you eat each day?” Responses were

87 none, ½ cup or less, ½ to 1 cup, 1-2 cups, 2-3 cups, 3-4 cups, 4 cups or more. Habitual vegetable
88 consumption was then confirmed by having participants complete three non-consecutive 24-hour
89 dietary recalls prior to starting the intervention. Participants exceeding the predefined cutoff of
90 ≤ 1 serving per day (excluding fried potatoes) were excluded from participation.

91 The parent study was a 16-week community-based randomized controlled trial designed
92 to determine the impact of increasing daily vegetable consumption to meet DGA
93 recommendations on the sensitization of vegetable reinforcement.⁵ The parent study consisted of
94 two study arms – an attention control group (n = 55; age: 40 ± 14 years; BMI: 35 ± 7 kg/m²) who
95 received no vegetables and an intervention group (n = 55; age: 40 ± 16 years; BMI: 34 ± 7
96 kg/m²) who were provided with DGA-recommended types and amounts of vegetables for 8
97 weeks.⁵ Both groups were then followed for another 8 weeks to ascertain the impact of the
98 repeated exposure to increased vegetable consumption beyond the 8-week intervention.⁵ **Figure**
99 **1** shows the flow of participants through this study including reasons for losses and exclusions.
100 Due to the nature of the intervention blinding was not possible for this study. Participants
101 assigned to the intervention group who completed all study requirements during the intervention
102 phase when all vegetables were provided (n = 51; age: 41 ± 16 years; BMI: 34 ± 7 kg/m²) are the
103 focus of this report. Participants completed a demographics questionnaire, and their demographic
104 characteristics are presented in **Table 1**. All participants received monetary reimbursement for
105 their participation.

106 *Vegetable Intervention*

107 The types and amount of vegetables provided during the 8-week intervention phase of the
108 parent study were based on the recommendations set forth by the DGA 2010-2015 USDA Food
109 Patterns.¹⁴ Energy requirements were calculated using indirect calorimetry and adjusted for

110 physical activity level using the Stanford 7-day recall.¹⁵ As previously reported, mean estimated
111 energy requirement for the participants assigned to the intervention group was 3140 ± 830
112 kcal/day and as such they were provided with a mean amount of 3.7 ± 0.41 cup equivalents
113 (approximately 270 g supplying about 300 kcals) of vegetables daily.⁵ Each week participants
114 completed an order form consisting of 31 vegetable and 3 vegetable juice options representing
115 each vegetable group (**Table 2**). Participants were required to pick the DGA recommended
116 number of servings for each vegetable group based on their energy needs and were limited to no
117 more than 4 juice servings per week. Participants came to the GFHNRC twice each week to pick
118 up their pre-packaged, minimally processed fresh or frozen vegetables and were given a booklet
119 with recipes and preparation instructions for those vegetables. Participants were instructed to eat
120 everything given to them but were free to choose how to prepare and consume their vegetables.
121 Compliance with the vegetable intervention was determined via weekly skin carotenoid scans
122 using resonance Raman spectroscopy (RRS).^{5, 13} Mean RRS intensities in the vegetable
123 intervention group increased weekly throughout the intervention as previously reported.⁵

124 *Vegetable incorporation into the diet*

125 Determination of how the provided vegetables were incorporated into the diet was
126 measured by a paper-pencil questionnaire and 24-hour dietary recalls. For the paper-pencil
127 questionnaire, participants were given a consumption log at each twice-weekly visit in which
128 they recorded whether the provided vegetables were substituted for another food item. The
129 consumption log was returned at the next visit. For each vegetable received, the participant
130 answered the following questions:

- 131 1. Did you substitute for another food? Y or N
- 132 2. If substituted, what food would you normally have eaten? _____

133 Dietary intake was collected and analyzed using the Automated Self-Administered 24-hour
134 (ASA24[®]) Dietary Assessment Tool, versions 2014 and 2016, developed by the National Cancer
135 Institute, Bethesda, MD.¹⁶ Participants completed their first 24-hour dietary recall at the
136 GFHNRC under the instruction of a Registered Dietitian and then completed two more 24-hour
137 dietary recalls before their baseline visit.¹³ Thereafter, participants completed three non-
138 consecutive 24-hour dietary recalls during each 4-week study period.¹³ The days of the recalls
139 were randomly scheduled at least three days apart and included both weekdays and weekends.
140 Energy density of the diet was calculated for all energy containing food and beverage items
141 consumed based on the nutritional composition. The 24-hour dietary recalls for each participant
142 were averaged to represent dietary intake and energy density before (Pre) and in response to the
143 vegetable intervention (Post).

144 *Diet quality*

145 The Healthy Eating Index (HEI) is a measure of diet quality in terms of adherence to
146 DGA recommendations. The HEI-2015 consists of 13 components and the scoring method is
147 described in full at <https://epi.grants.cancer.gov/hei>.¹⁷ Briefly, the simple HEI scoring algorithm
148 method was used to calculate the HEI total and component scores per individual across all 24-
149 hour dietary recalls collected before (Pre) and in response to the vegetable intervention (Post).

150 The HEI component score was calculated as follows:

$$151 \quad \sum \text{total amount of HEI component over } \times \text{ days} \div \sum \text{total energy over } \times \text{ days}$$

152 The calculated ratio for each component was then compared with the applicable HEI standard
153 per 1000 kcal to determine each HEI component score.¹⁷ There are nine adequacy components
154 for which greater consumption corresponds to a greater score – total vegetables, greens and
155 beans, total fruits, whole fruits, whole grains, dairy, total protein foods, seafood and plant

156 proteins, and fatty acids (defined as the ratio of polyunsaturated and monounsaturated fatty acids
157 to saturated fatty acids). For each of the adequacy components the score ranges from 0 to 5
158 points, except for whole grains, dairy, and fatty acids which have a maximum score of 10 points.
159 In all cases, a greater score represents greater consumption and better adherence to DGA
160 recommendations. There are four moderation components for which lower consumption
161 corresponds to a greater score – refined grains, sodium, added sugars, and saturated fats. For
162 each of the moderation components the score ranges from 0 to 10 points, where a greater score
163 represents lower consumption and better adherence to DGA recommendations. Therefore, an
164 individual's total HEI-2015 score which is calculated by summing the component scores can
165 range from 0 (absolute nonadherence) to 100 (perfect adherence).

166 *Food, Attitudes and Behaviors (FAB) Survey*

167 To explore potential factors associated with the incorporation of vegetables into the diet,
168 participants completed a questionnaire adapted from the Food Attitudes and Behaviors (FAB)
169 Survey developed by the National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD.¹⁸ The FAB survey measures
170 factors related to social support, perceived barriers, perceived benefits, motivation, and self-
171 efficacy of vegetable consumption and was administered prior to and again at the end of the
172 intervention.

173 *Body weight and body composition*

174 Body weight was assessed once immediately before and then again once at the end of the
175 8-week intervention in the morning after an overnight fast using a digital scale (Health-O-Meter
176 Professional digital scale) without shoes and wearing light street clothing to the nearest 0.1 kg.
177 Body composition was assessed immediately before and at the end of the 8-week intervention in
178 the morning after an overnight fast via whole-body Dual Energy X-ray absorptiometry (iDXA

179 with enCORE software Version 13.60.033; GE Lunar, Madison, WI).

180 **Statistical Analysis**

181 For this secondary outcome of a larger randomized intervention study (n = 110) only
182 participants assigned to the intervention group who completed all study requirements (n = 51) are
183 included in the analysis and reported here. Sample size calculation, power analysis and
184 randomization for the larger parent study have been reported.^{5, 13} Dietary intake data were
185 analyzed using SAS[®] software, version 9.4 (SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC, USA)¹⁹ using
186 generalized linear mixed models (GLIMMIX) where phase (pre, post) was a within-subject
187 factor and subject was a random effect. The Gaussian distribution was used with the Identity link
188 function. Tukey-Kramer contrast were used for post-hoc pairwise comparison of means. The
189 FAB survey was analyzed with IBM SPSS Statistics[®], version 27.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY,
190 USA)²⁰ using a generalized linear model (GLM) model where phase (pre, post) was a within-
191 subject factor. Significance was set at a *p*-value < 0.05. Data are reported as means ± standard
192 deviations (SD) unless otherwise noted.

193 **Results**

194 *ASA24[®] dietary recalls*

195 Participants completed 306 (67%) weekday and 148 (33%) weekend day 24-hour dietary
196 recalls – completing 99% of the 459 total number of recalls that were scheduled throughout the
197 study. Prior to starting the study participants completed 151 recalls (102 weekday and 49
198 weekend day), two participants had recalls coded as incomplete or having items with no amounts
199 and these recalls were not used in the data analyses. During the vegetable intervention
200 participants completed 303 recalls (204 weekday and 99 weekend day), three participants had
201 recalls coded as incomplete or having items with no amounts and these recalls were not used in

202 the data analyses. Participants reported that the amount of food they consumed on each of the
203 days they recorded their dietary intake represented their usual daily intake 71% of the time, was
204 much less than their usual intake 12% of the time and was much more than their usual intake
205 17% of the time. There was no effect of the vegetable intervention on factors related to vegetable
206 consumption as measured by the FAB survey (data not shown).

207 *Vegetable incorporation into the diet*

208 From the paper-pencil questionnaire of vegetable incorporation, 29% of the total amount
209 of provided vegetables were reported as being used as a substitute for another food item. The
210 substitution rate (percent frequency distribution) for each vegetable group was: 28% for dark
211 green vegetables, 33% for red and orange vegetables, 28% for starchy vegetables, 29% for
212 legumes, and 25% for other vegetables. Of the 29% of total vegetables reported being used as a
213 substitute, the majority were reported as replacing a main meal (44%), meaning that the
214 vegetables were combined to make a salad or a stir fry that was then consumed as a meal. **Figure**
215 **2** presents all the food items participants reported substituting the provided vegetables for and the
216 percent frequency distribution that vegetables replaced those food items.

217 *Changes in energy intake and dietary intake patterns in response to the vegetable intervention*

218 Dietary intake before (Pre) and in response to the vegetable intervention (Post) is
219 presented in **Table 3**. Energy intake did not change in response to the intervention (-69 ± 602
220 kcal; $p = 0.3838$); however, the energy density of the diet decreased (-0.44 ± 0.52 kcal/g; p
221 <0.0001). Changes in the relative composition of the diet were also observed. There was an
222 increase in the percentage of energy (E%) consumed from carbohydrates ($+3.1 \pm 6.6$ E%; $p =$
223 0.0015). This change in carbohydrate intake was accompanied by a decrease in the E% from fat
224 (-1.7 ± 5.3 E%; $p = 0.0337$). There was no change in E% from protein (-0.5 ± 3.9 E%; $p =$

225 0.3442). Total vegetable consumption increased by 2.43 ± 1.38 cup-equivalents ($p < 0.0001$), as
226 did consumption of all the vegetable subgroups (**Table 3**), as expected by study design. With the
227 increase in vegetable consumption there were decreases in consumption of total grains ($-0.97 \pm$
228 3.23 ounce-equivalents; $p = 0.0240$), protein foods (-1.24 ± 3.86 ounce-equivalents; $p = 0.0094$),
229 saturated fats (-6.44 ± 19.63 grams; $p = 0.0156$) and added sugars (-2.44 ± 6.78 teaspoon-
230 equivalents; $p = 0.0154$).

231 *Changes in diet quality in response to the vegetable intervention*

232 Overall diet quality as measured by total HEI-2015 scores increased ($p = 0.0013$) from 52
233 ± 10 at baseline to 57 ± 9 in response to the 8-week vegetable intervention (**Figure 3**). As
234 expected by study design, there was an increase in total vegetables scores (3.3 ± 1.2 vs 5.0 ± 0.0 ;
235 $p < 0.0001$) as well as greens and beans scores (2.5 ± 2.0 vs 4.6 ± 0.8 ; $p < 0.0001$) and seafood
236 and plant proteins scores (2.9 ± 2.1 vs 4.1 ± 1.4 ; $p = 0.0002$). There was a decrease in whole
237 fruits scores (2.5 ± 1.9 vs 1.7 ± 1.6 ; $p = 0.0022$) in response to increasing vegetable consumption
238 to meet DGA recommendations. There were no changes in scores for the other five dietary
239 components that focus on adequacy (dietary components to increase). Interestingly, there were
240 significant changes in three of the four dietary components that focus on moderation (dietary
241 components to decrease). For these dietary components greater scores correspond with lower
242 intake whereas lower scores correspond with greater intake. There was an increase in scores for
243 both refined grains (6.5 ± 2.9 vs 7.9 ± 2.4 ; $p = 0.0064$) and saturated fats (4.5 ± 3.2 vs 5.5 ± 2.8 ;
244 $p = 0.0074$) but there was a decrease in sodium scores (2.7 ± 2.6 vs 1.2 ± 1.7 ; $p < 0.0001$). The
245 change in added sugars scores did not reach significance (7.2 ± 2.6 vs 7.7 ± 2.6 ; $p = 0.0687$).

246 *Changes in body weight and composition in response to the vegetable intervention*

247 Body weight and body composition measures can be found in **Table 4**. There was no

248 change in body weight (-0.23 ± 1.97 kg; $p = 0.4022$), fat mass ($+0.10 \pm 1.27$ kg; $p = 0.5725$), fat
249 free mass (-0.06 ± 1.47 kg; $p = 0.7817$), or %BF ($+0.22 \pm 1.62\%$; $p = 0.3284$) in response to the
250 8-week vegetable intervention.

251 **Discussion**

252 To develop successful interventions targeted at increasing the healthfulness of the
253 American diet, such as increasing vegetable consumption, it is essential to understand how
254 dietary intake patterns change as DGA recommendations are incorporated into the diet. The
255 provision of vegetables during an intervention offers a unique opportunity to understand how
256 people incorporate vegetables into their diet and how this influences dietary intake patterns and
257 diet quality. To our knowledge, this is the first study to directly ascertain how adults with
258 overweight and obesity incorporated a provision of DGA recommended types and amounts of
259 vegetables into their diet and how this impacted dietary intake patterns and diet quality. There
260 were noteworthy alterations in the consumption of other dietary components and improvements
261 in diet quality and energy density. Increasing vegetable consumption to meet DGA
262 recommendations reduced the consumption of total grains, protein foods, saturated fats and
263 added sugars. Comparing dietary intakes to those recommended by the DGA, increasing
264 vegetable consumption resulted in increases in HEI-2015 component scores for refined grains
265 and saturated fats; however, the observed decreases for whole fruit and sodium scores are areas
266 of concern. These results highlight the complexity in helping Americans meet DGA
267 recommendations.

268 Increasing fruit intake is another goal of the DGA, yet these results suggest that
269 increasing both vegetable and fruit consumption to meet DGA recommendations may prove to
270 be difficult. One potential explanation for this result may stem from the fact that fruits and

271 vegetables are typically considered and promoted together as a single food category. This is most
272 evident by the well-known public health campaign “5-a-day” (other countries have similar
273 promotion campaigns²¹). However, there exists a lack of understanding and clarity of the details
274 encompassing the message.^{22,23} This is demonstrated by the fact that fruit and vegetable
275 consumption fell slightly during the “5-a-day” public health campaign in the U.S.²⁴ The need to
276 include a *variety of both* fruits and vegetables has been reported as a main point of
277 misunderstanding.²³ Therefore, it is foreseeable that the seemingly large quantity of vegetables
278 that was provided to the habitual low-vegetable consumers who participated in the current study
279 may have unintentionally offset fruit consumption. Distinguishing fruits and vegetables as
280 separate food categories in public health campaigns may improve adherence to dietary
281 guidelines. Following the “Go for 2 & 5” public health campaign in Australia that focused on
282 consuming 2 fruits and 5 vegetables each day there was an increase, albeit modest, in both fruit
283 and vegetable consumption.²⁵ In analyzing fruits and vegetables separately, there was a greater
284 increase in vegetable consumption compared to fruit consumption (0.6 and 0.2 servings/day,
285 respectively).²⁵ Taken together with the findings from the current study, targeting fruits and
286 vegetables separately may be beneficial to achieving better adherence to dietary guidance.
287 However, this requires further research as public health campaigns continue to adjust messaging
288 (such as the Fruits and Veggies-More Matters[®] campaign in the U.S.²⁴) to increase fruit and
289 vegetable consumption and improve diet quality.

290 Increasing vegetable consumption in these self-reported low vegetable consumers
291 resulted in a decrease in HEI-2015 sodium scores (representing an increase in consumption).
292 This effect of increasing vegetable consumption on sodium intake may be reflective of the more
293 common consumption of vegetables in cooked forms⁴ and salt’s ability to improve the positive

294 sensory attributes of foods.²⁶ The addition of salt suppresses the sensory perception of naturally
295 bitter compounds, typically found in vegetables, and can boost the sweetness of a food.²⁶ This
296 attribute of salt can therefore mask the unpleasant taste of vegetables reported by some
297 individuals, especially those who have a greater propensity to experience bitterness (6-*n*-
298 propylthiouracil (PROP) medium- and super-tasters).²⁷ As previously reported, a larger
299 percentage of the participants in the current study were classified as either medium- (38%) or
300 super-tasters (16%), as opposed to non-tasters (46%).⁵ Collectively, these results may explain the
301 observed increase in sodium intake in response to increasing vegetable consumption. Further
302 investigation on this relationship is needed.

303 Dietary guidance emphasizes consuming of a variety of vegetables to increase
304 consumption.¹ A recent epidemiological study demonstrated that a greater variety of vegetables
305 and fruits was associated not only with greater consumption but also greater energy intake.²
306 Compared to individuals who consumed a limited variety of vegetables and fruits (1-2 different
307 items), energy intake was 261 kcal greater in those who consumed a moderate variety (3-4
308 different items) and 385 kcal greater in those who consumed a large variety (≥ 5 different items)
309 as part of their habitual diet.² Contrary to this finding, when vegetable consumption is analyzed
310 separately from that of fruit there appears to be a negative association between the variety of
311 vegetables consumed and energy intake.⁷ The findings from the present study, which was based
312 on the variety of vegetables recommended by the DGA, demonstrated no impact of consuming a
313 greater variety of vegetables on energy intake, even though the vegetable provision contributed
314 approximately 300 additional calories. Remarkably, 71% of the provided vegetables were not
315 reported as being used as a substitute leading to the assumption that they were added to the diet.
316 If indeed these vegetables were simply added to the diet, energy intake would have increased by

317 about 213 kcal/day resulting in a body weight gain. However, no change in body weight was
318 observed in the current study.

319 Given that there is a limit on how much food an individual can comfortably consume, it
320 is understandable that there was a reduction in the consumption of other foods. However, most of
321 the alterations to the diet appeared to have happened outside of conscious effort, and this lack of
322 awareness may explain the slight mismatch between the food items reported as being replaced by
323 the vegetables, the dietary recall data, and the HEI component scores. Eating behavior is
324 predisposed to cognitive biases and environmental cues.²⁸⁻³⁰ Accordingly, the provision of
325 vegetables may have been an efficacious environmental cue that coaxed participants toward
326 healthier food choices resulting in a modest, but significant, increase in the healthfulness of the
327 diet (9% increase in total HEI score and 19% decrease in the energy density of the diet). This
328 substitution effect preserved individual freedom of choice²⁸⁻³⁰ as no other dietary restraints were
329 placed on the participants and they were free to choose how to incorporate the vegetables into
330 their diet. Further research is needed to elucidate the impact of vegetable provisions and the
331 potential of greater vegetable availability in the home environment to alter dietary intake patterns
332 and potentially ‘nudge’ people toward a healthier diet.

333 The present study had some strengths that bear mentioning. First, the experimental
334 design, DGA-recommended amounts and types of vegetables were provided for 8 weeks which
335 removed any barriers to vegetable procurement. Second, the inclusion of self-reported low
336 vegetable consumers with overweight and obesity. Currently 73% of U.S. adults are classified as
337 having overweight or obesity³¹ and consume on average 1.1 cups of vegetables (excluding fried
338 potatoes) in a typical day.²⁴ Perhaps the greatest limitation of this study was that the majority of
339 participants were woman (75%) who self-identified as White (98%), limiting generalizability to

340 men and other racial/ethnic groups. Due to the nature of the intervention participants had to live
341 within driving distance from the research facility and therefore, are representative of the local
342 area. Second, the provision of vegetables, while a strength of the study, limits ‘real-world
343 application’ where barriers to vegetable procurement exist. Third, the overall small sample size,
344 which may prevent the findings from being extrapolated to the larger population. There are also
345 well-recognized methodological challenges associated with 24-hour dietary recalls.³² Lastly, we
346 did not collect information on whether the provided vegetables were consumed raw or cooked
347 and if so, how the vegetables were cooked (i.e., sautéed with butter and salt). This limited the
348 ability to determine how this may have impacted some of the other dietary components.

349 **Conclusion**

350 The results presented here further the knowledge about how habitual low-vegetable consumers
351 with overweight and obesity incorporate vegetables into their diet and how this influences
352 dietary intake patterns. When providing vegetables in the amounts and types recommended by
353 the DGA there appears to be a substitution effect that results in an improvement in overall diet
354 quality, albeit modest. Outside of the vegetable provision, the improvement in diet quality was
355 the result of alterations in dietary moderation components. These findings highlight the
356 importance of characterizing how individuals incorporate DGA recommendations into their diet,
357 providing valuable information that can be used to develop targeted behavior change
358 interventions. Future research could determine which food group(s) to reduce to increase
359 vegetable consumption most effectively while not reducing whole fruit consumption or to
360 simultaneously increase consumption of both vegetables and fruits to meet DGA
361 recommendations. Future work could also investigate the amount of vegetable consumption
362 where fruit consumption begins to wane or the effect of consuming DGA recommended types

363 and amounts of fruits on dietary intake patterns, energy intake and diet quality. Future research
364 should also include more diverse populations to determine potential cultural differences when
365 trying to increase vegetable consumption to meet DGA recommendations.

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Figure Legend

Figure 1: Flow diagram of participants through an 8-week randomized controlled vegetable intervention trial (enrollment, intervention allocation, follow-up, and data analysis), including reasons for losses and exclusions, conducted from October 2015 to January 2018 in Grand Forks, ND.

Figure 2: Food items that were self-reportedly substituted for with the provided vegetables during an 8-week intervention (Motivating Value of Vegetables Study). Participants reported using 29% of the provided vegetables as a substitute for other food items. The food item main meal was reported to represent that the vegetables were combined to make a salad or a stir fry that was then consumed as a meal. The food item snack food was reported to represent any food item that was consumed outside of a main meal. Data are expressed as the percent frequency distribution in which the reported food items were replaced with the provided vegetables.

Figure 3: Healthy Eating Index (HEI)-2015 component scores before (Pre) and in response (Post) to an 8-week vegetable intervention (Motivating Value of Vegetables Study). HEI-2015 component scores increased for total vegetables, greens and beans, seafood and plant protein, refined grains, and saturated fats. HEI-2015 component scores decreased for whole fruits and sodium. Data were analyzed using generalized linear mixed models where phase (pre, post) was a within-subject factor and subject was a random effect. $**P < .01$, $***P < .001$.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the 51 men and women assigned to the vegetable intervention group of the Motivating Value of Vegetables Study conducted from October 2015 to January 2018 in Grand Forks, ND.

Characteristic	Mean \pm standard deviation	n	%
Age (y)	41 \pm 16		
BMI^a (kg/m²)	34 \pm 7		
Sex			
Men		13	25
Women		38	75
Race			
White		50	98
Asian		1	2
Ethnicity			
Not Hispanic or Latino		50	98
No Response		1	2
Annual Income (\$)			
<25,000		12	24
25,000-49,999		11	22
50,000-74,999		9	18
75,000-99,999		5	10
100,000-124,999		8	16
\geq 125,000		2	4
No response		3	6
Employment			
Working full time		38	76
Working part time		8	16
Unemployed		3	6
Retired		1	2
Education			

High school graduate/GED ^b	2	4
Some college or associate degree	7	14
Current college student	9	18
College graduate	17	34
Postgraduate education	15	30

^a BMI = Body Mass Index

^b GED = General Educational Development

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Table 2: Minimally processed vegetable options that were provided during the 8-week vegetable intervention of the Motivating Value of Vegetables Study conducted from October 2015 to January 2018 in Grand Forks, ND. Participants freely chose from the list but were required to pick the recommended number of servings from each subgroup based on their individual energy needs according to the Dietary Guidelines for American. Choices were provided in half cup increments with the exception of leafy vegetables which were provided in one cup increments.

Vegetable group	Vegetable Option
Dark Greens	Broccoli
	Green Leafy Lettuce ^a
	Romaine Lettuce ^a
	Spinach ^a
	Healthy Greens Juice ^b
	Kale ^a
Red and Orange	Carrots
	Red Pepper
	Sweet Potato
	Tomato
	Tomato Juice ^b
	Mango Carrot Juice ^b
Starchy	Corn
	Peas
	Potato
	Water Chestnuts
Beans	Black
	Garbanzo
	Kidney
	Pinto
Other	Asparagus
	Cabbage ^a
	Cauliflower
	Celery
	Cucumber
	Green Beans
	Green Pepper

	Iceberg Lettuce ^a
	Mushrooms
	Onions
	Zucchini

^a Provided in one cup increments

^b Limited to 4 servings a week

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Table 3: Daily dietary intake of the 51 men and women assigned to the vegetable intervention group of the Motivating Value of Vegetables Study conducted from October 2015 to January 2018 in Grand Forks, ND.

Dietary Component	PRE	POST	<i>P</i> -value ^a
	<i>mean ± SD</i>		
Total energy, <i>kcal</i> s	2068 ± 810	1998 ± 894	0.3838
Energy density, <i>kcal</i> s/g	2.26 ± 0.54	1.82 ± 0.49	<0.0001
Carbohydrates, <i>g</i>	237 ± 130	247 ± 140	0.2892
Protein, <i>g</i>	86 ± 38	79 ± 29	0.1125
Fat, <i>g</i>	85 ± 39	78 ± 34	0.1184
Total Vegetables, <i>cup-equivalents</i>	1.49 ± 0.72	3.92 ± 1.23	<0.0001
Dark Green	0.21 ± 0.27	0.39 ± 0.28	0.0004
Red and Orange	0.37 ± 0.26	1.33 ± 0.59	<0.0001
Starchy	0.39 ± 0.34	0.97 ± 0.46	<0.0001
Legumes (Beans and Peas)	0.36 ± 0.72	1.46 ± 1.41	<0.0001
Other	0.52 ± 0.43	1.23 ± 0.54	<0.0001
Total Fruits, <i>cup-equivalents</i>	0.69 ± 0.72	0.51 ± 0.60	0.0645
Citrus, Melons, Berries	0.18 ± 0.33	0.07 ± 0.14	0.0499
Other	0.41 ± 0.51	0.27 ± 0.46	0.0149
Juice	0.10 ± 0.24	0.17 ± 0.31	0.1204
Total Grains, <i>ounce-equivalents</i>	6.23 ± 2.83	5.26 ± 3.38	0.0240
Whole Grains	0.85 ± 0.84	0.66 ± 0.70	0.0994
Refined Grains	5.38 ± 2.59	4.61 ± 3.35	0.0597
Total Protein Foods, <i>ounce-equivalents</i>	6.21 ± 4.34	4.97 ± 2.31	0.0094
Meat	1.99 ± 2.25	1.69 ± 1.51	0.3254
Poultry	1.60 ± 2.75	1.11 ± 1.05	0.1418
Eggs	0.58 ± 0.77	0.53 ± 0.53	0.5497
Seafood	0.40 ± 0.90	0.24 ± 0.51	0.2463
Soy	0.06 ± 0.24	0.07 ± 0.18	0.7204
Nuts and Seeds	0.69 ± 1.15	0.49 ± 0.60	0.1746
Total Dairy, <i>cup-equivalents</i>	1.73 ± 0.96	1.56 ± 1.03	0.2114
Milk	0.61 ± 0.49	0.58 ± 0.52	0.7567
Yogurt	0.09 ± 0.17	0.05 ± 0.12	0.1132
Cheese	1.00 ± 0.84	0.91 ± 0.85	0.3912
Saturated Fats, <i>g</i>	38.84 ± 21.77	32.40 ± 17.26	0.0156
Added Sugars, <i>teaspoon-equivalents</i>	16.51 ± 17.75	14.07 ± 15.90	0.0154

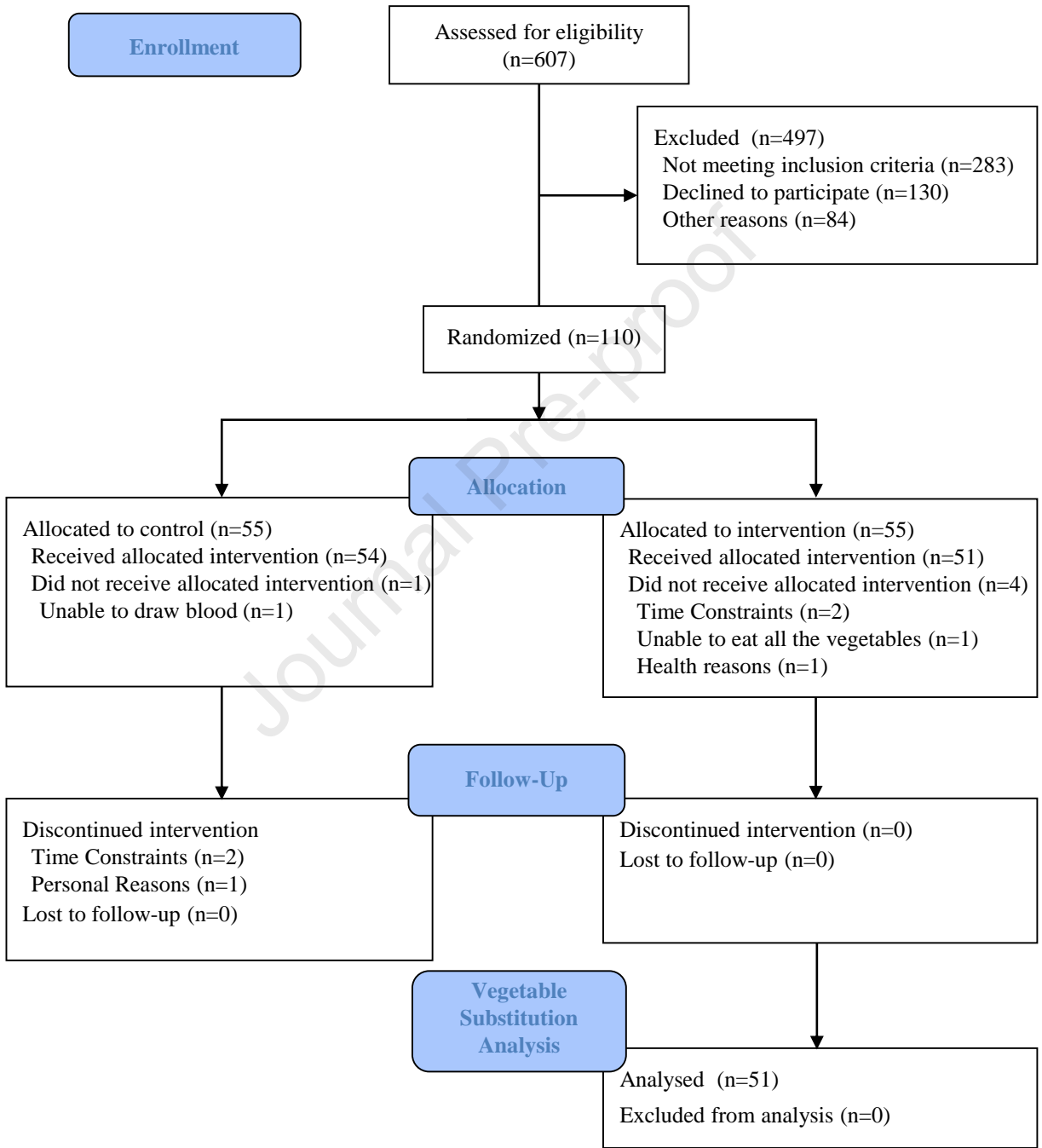
^a Statistical analysis performed using generalized linear mixed models (GLIMMIX) where phase (PRE, POST) was a within-subject factor and subject was a random effect

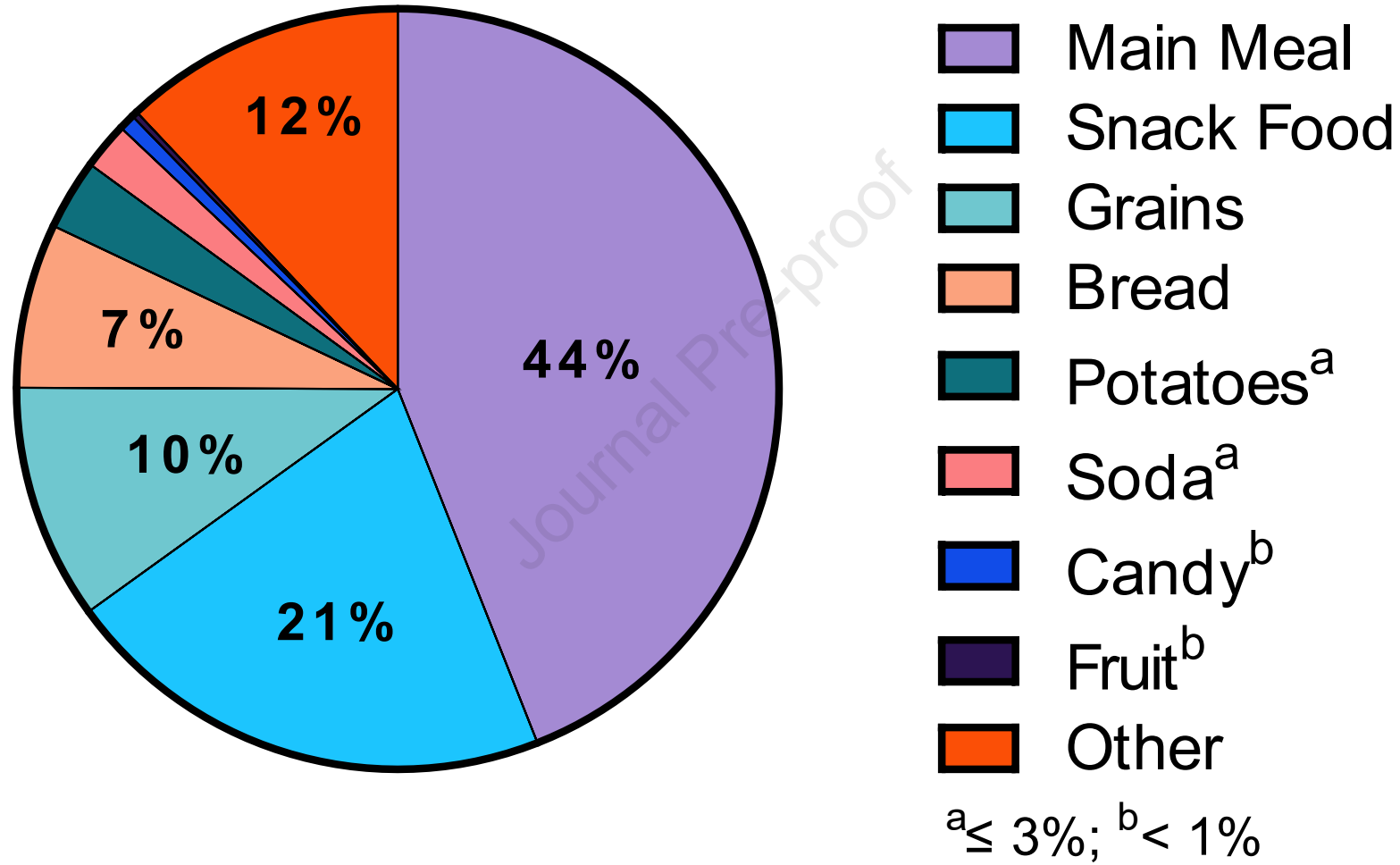
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Table 4: Body composition of the 51 men and women assigned to the vegetable intervention group of the Motivating Value of Vegetables Study conducted from October 2015 to January 2018 in Grand Forks, ND.

Component	PRE	POST	P-value^a
	<i>mean ± SD</i>		
Body weight, <i>kg</i>	99.10 ± 20.91	98.86 ± 20.72	0.4022
Fat Free Mass, <i>kg</i>	51.89 ± 10.26	51.84 ± 10.59	0.7817
Fat Mass, <i>kg</i>	42.96 ± 15.08	43.06 ± 15.36	0.5725
Body Fat, %	42.64 ± 8.92	42.87 ± 9.10	0.3284

^a Statistical analysis performed using generalized linear mixed models (GLIMMIX) where phase (PRE, POST) was a within-subject factor and subject was a random effect





HEI-2015 Components

