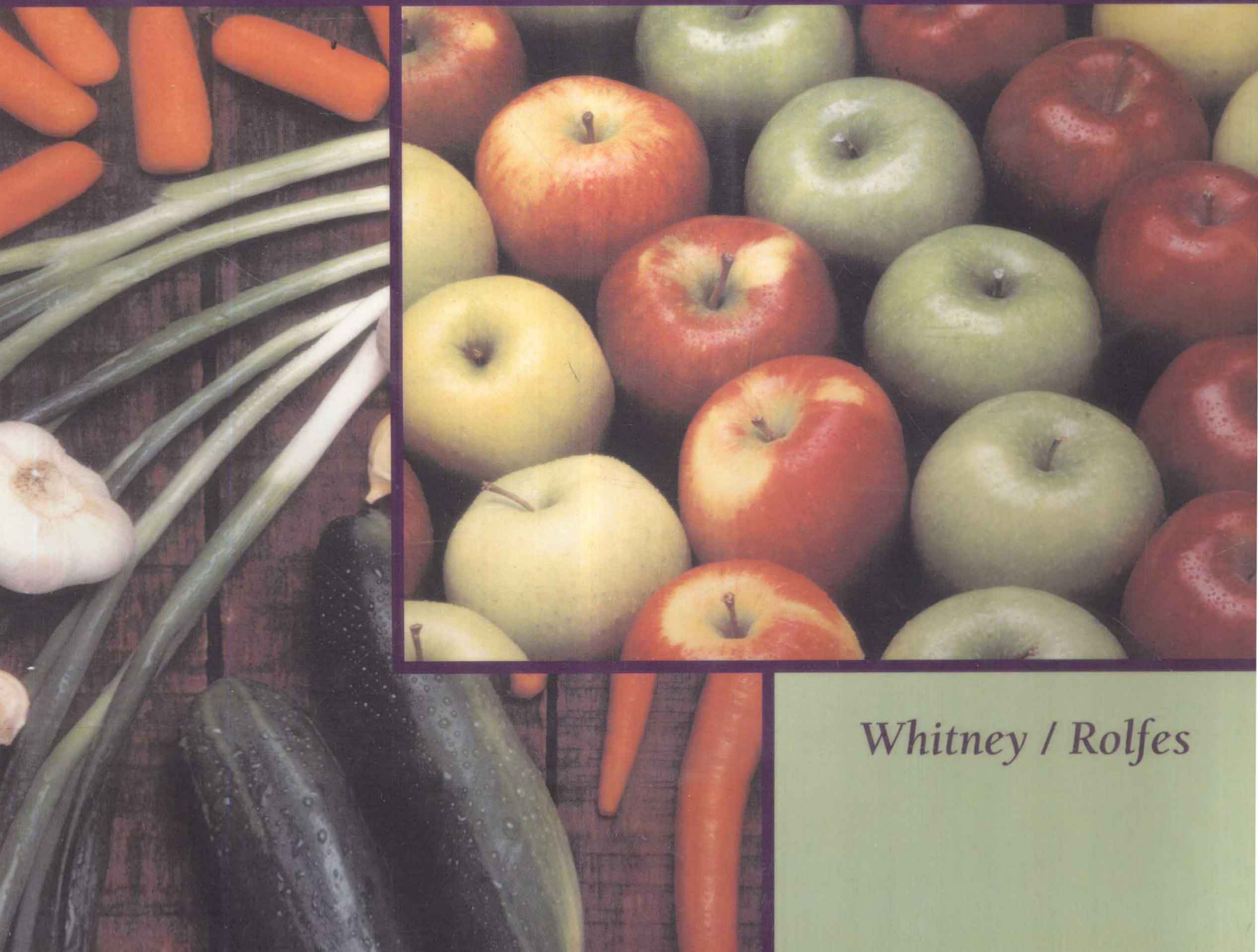




# Understanding Nutrition

*Reedley College Edition*



*Whitney / Rolfes*

# Understanding Nutrition

## Reedley College Edition

Whitney/Rolfes

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# UNDERSTANDING NUTRITION

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# An Overview of Nutrition

## Chapter Outline

### Food Choices

**The Nutrients:** *Nutrients in Foods and in the Body* • *The Energy-Yielding Nutrients* • *The Vitamins* • *The Minerals* • *Water*

**The Science of Nutrition:** *Nutrition Research* • *Research versus Rumors*

**Dietary Reference Intakes:** *Establishing Nutrient Recommendations* • *Establishing Energy Recommendations* • *Using Nutrient Recommendations* • *Comparing Nutrient Recommendations*

**Nutrition Assessment:** *Nutrition Assessment of Individuals* • *Nutrition Assessment of Populations*

**Diet and Health:** *Chronic Diseases* • *Risk Factors for Chronic Diseases*

**Highlight:** *Nutrition Information and Misinformation—On the Net and in the News*

## Nutrition Explorer CD-ROM Outline

**Nutrition Animation:** *Consumer Concerns, Quackery and Sensationalism*

**Case Study:** *Cultural Differences and Nutrition*

**Student Practice Test**

**Glossary Terms**

**Nutrition on the Net**



# Nutrition in Your Life



Believe it or not, you have probably eaten at least 20,000 meals in your life. Without any conscious effort on your part, your body uses the nutrients from those foods to make all its components, fuel all its activities, and defend itself against diseases. How successfully your body handles these tasks depends, in part, on your food choices. Nutritious food choices support healthy bodies.

---

Welcome to the world of **nutrition**. Nutrition has played a significant role in your life, even from before your birth, although you may not always have been aware of it. And it will continue to affect you in major ways, depending on the **foods** you select.

Every day, several times a day, you make food choices that influence your body's health for better or worse. Each day's choices may benefit or harm your health only a little, but when these choices are repeated over years and decades, the rewards or consequences become major. That being the case, close attention to good eating habits now can bring health benefits later. Conversely, carelessness about food choices from youth on can contribute to many chronic diseases ■ prevalent in later life, including heart disease and cancer. Of course, some people will become ill or die young no matter what choices they make, and others will live long lives despite making poor choices. For the large majority, however, the food choices they make each and every day will benefit or impair their health in proportion to the wisdom of those choices.

Although most people realize that their food habits affect their health, they often choose foods for other reasons. After all, foods bring to the table a variety of pleasures, traditions, and associations as well as nourishment. The challenge, then, is to combine favorite foods and fun times with a nutritionally balanced **diet**.

■ In general, a **chronic** disease progresses slowly or with little change and lasts a long time. By comparison, an **acute** disease develops quickly, produces sharp symptoms, and runs a short course.

- **chronos** = time
- **acute** = sharp

**nutrition:** the science of foods and the nutrients and other substances they contain, and of their actions within the body (including ingestion, digestion, absorption, transport, metabolism, and excretion). A broader definition includes the social, economic, cultural, and psychological implications of food and eating.

**foods:** products derived from plants or animals that can be taken into the body to yield energy and nutrients for the maintenance of life and the growth and repair of tissues.

**diet:** the foods and beverages a person eats and drinks.

## Food Choices

People decide what to eat, when to eat, and even whether to eat in highly personal ways, often based on behavioral or social motives rather than on awareness of nutrition's importance to health. Fortunately, many different food choices can be healthy ones, but nutrition awareness helps to make them so.

**Personal Preference** As you might expect, the number one reason people choose foods is taste—they like certain flavors. Two widely shared preferences are for the sweetness of sugar and the savoriness of salt. Liking high-fat foods appears to be another universally common preference. Other preferences might be for the hot peppers common in Mexican cooking or the curry spices of Indian cuisine. Some research suggests that genetics may influence people's food preferences.<sup>1</sup>



© Michael Newman/PhotoEdit

An enjoyable way to learn about other cultures is to taste their ethnic foods.

**Habit** People sometimes select foods out of habit. They eat cereal every morning, for example, simply because they have always eaten cereal for breakfast. Eating a familiar food and not having to make any decisions can be comforting.

**Ethnic Heritage or Tradition** Among the strongest influences on food choices are ethnic heritage and tradition. People eat the foods they grew up eating. Every country, and in fact every region of a country, has its own typical foods and ways of combining them into meals. The “American diet” includes many ethnic foods from various countries, all adding variety to the diet. This is most evident when eating out: 60 percent of U.S. restaurants (excluding fast-food places) have an ethnic emphasis, most commonly Chinese, Italian, or Mexican.

**Social Interactions** Most people enjoy companionship while eating. It's fun to join friends when they are ordering pizza or going out for ice cream. Meals are social events, and the sharing of food is part of hospitality. Social customs almost compel people to accept food or drink offered by a host or shared by a group.

**Availability, Convenience, and Economy** People eat foods that are accessible, quick and easy to prepare, and within their financial means. Consumers today value convenience highly and are willing to spend over half of their food budget on meals that require little, if any, further preparation.<sup>2</sup> They frequently eat out, bring home ready-to-eat meals, or have food delivered. Even when they venture into the kitchen, they want to prepare a meal in 15 to 20 minutes, using less than a half dozen ingredients—and those “ingredients” are often semiprepared foods, such as canned soups. Such emphasis on convenience limits food choices to the selections offered on menus and products designed for quick preparation. Whether decisions based on convenience meet a person's nutrition needs depends on the choices made. Eating a banana or a candy bar may be equally convenient, but the fruit offers more vitamins and minerals and less sugar and fat.

**Positive and Negative Associations** People tend to like foods with happy associations—such as hot dogs at ball games or cake and ice cream at birthday parties. By the same token, people can attach intense and unalterable dislikes to foods that they ate when they felt sick or that were forced on them when they weren't hungry. Parents may teach their children to like and dislike certain foods by using those foods as rewards or punishments.



**Emotional Comfort** Some people cannot eat when they are emotionally upset. Others may eat in response to a variety of emotional stimuli—for example, to relieve boredom or depression or to calm anxiety.<sup>3</sup> A depressed person may choose to eat chocolates rather than to call a friend. A person who has returned home from an exciting evening out may unwind with a late-night sandwich. These people may find emotional comfort, in part, because foods can influence the brain's chemistry and the mind's response. Carbohydrates and alcohol, for example, tend to calm, whereas proteins and caffeine are more likely to activate.<sup>4</sup> Eating in response to emotions can easily lead to overeating and obesity, but may be appropriate at times. For example, sharing food at times of bereavement serves both the giver's need to provide comfort and the receiver's need to be cared for and to interact with others, as well as to take nourishment.

**Values** Food choices may reflect people's religious beliefs, political views, or environmental concerns. For example, many Christians forgo meat during Lent, the period prior to Easter, and Jewish law includes an extensive set of dietary rules that govern the use of foods derived from animals. Muslims fast between sunrise and sunset during Ramadan, the ninth month of the Islamic calendar. A concerned consumer may boycott fruit picked by migrant workers who have been exploited. People may buy vegetables from local farmers to save the fuel and environmental costs of foods shipped in from far away. They may also select foods packaged in containers that can be reused or recycled. Some consumers accept or reject foods that have been irradiated or genetically modified, depending on their approval of these processes (see Chapter and Highlight 19 for a complete discussion).

**Body Weight and Image** Sometimes people select certain foods and supplements that they believe will improve their physical appearance and avoid those they believe might be detrimental. Such decisions can be beneficial when based on sound nutrition and fitness knowledge, but undermine good health when based on faddism or carried to extremes, as pointed out in later discussions of eating disorders (Highlight 9) and supplements athletes commonly use (Highlight 14).

**Nutrition and Health Benefits** Finally, of course, many consumers make food choices that will benefit health. Food manufacturers and restaurant chefs have responded to scientific findings linking health with nutrition by offering an abundant selection of health-promoting foods and beverages. Foods that provide health benefits beyond their nutrient contributions are called **functional foods**. In some cases, functional foods are as natural and familiar as oatmeal or tomatoes. In other cases, the foods have been modified in a way that provides health benefits, perhaps by lowering the fat contents. In still other cases, manufacturers have fortified foods by adding nutrients or phytochemicals that provide health benefits (see Highlight 13). Examples of these functional foods include orange juice fortified with calcium to help build strong bones and margarine made with a plant sterol that lowers blood cholesterol.

Consumers welcome these new foods into their diets, provided that the foods are reasonably priced, clearly labeled, easy to find in the grocery store, and convenient to prepare. These foods must also taste good—as good as the traditional choices. Of course, a person need not eat any of these “special” foods to enjoy a healthy diet; many “regular” foods provide numerous health benefits as well. In fact, “regular” foods such as whole grains; vegetables and legumes; fruits; meats, fish, and poultry; and milk products are among the healthiest choices a person can make.

## IN SUMMARY

A person selects foods for a variety of reasons. Whatever those reasons may be, food choices influence health. Individual food selections neither make nor break a diet's healthfulness, but the balance of foods selected over time can make an important difference to health.<sup>5</sup> For this reason, people are wise to think “nutrition” when making their food choices.



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To enhance your health, keep nutrition in mind when selecting foods.

**functional foods:** foods that provide health benefits beyond their nutrient contributions. Functional foods may include whole foods, fortified foods, and modified foods.



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Foods bring pleasure—and nutrients.

## The Nutrients

Biologically speaking, people eat to receive nourishment. Do you ever think of yourself as a biological being made of carefully arranged atoms, molecules, cells, tissues, and organs? Are you aware of the activity going on within your body even as you sit still? The atoms, molecules, and cells of your body continually move and change, even though the structures of your tissues and organs and your external appearance remain relatively constant. Your skin, which has covered you since your birth, is replaced entirely by new cells every seven years. The fat beneath your skin is not the same fat that was there a year ago. Your oldest red blood cell is only 120 days old, and the entire lining of your digestive tract is renewed every 3 days. To maintain your “self,” you must continually replenish, from foods, the **energy** and the **nutrients** you deplete in maintaining your body.

### Nutrients in Foods and in the Body

Amazingly, the body can derive all the energy, structural materials, and regulating agents that it needs from the foods we eat. This section introduces the nutrients that foods deliver and shows how they participate in the dynamic processes that keep people alive and well.

■ As Chapter 5 explains, most lipids are fats.

**energy:** the capacity to do work. The energy in food is chemical energy. The body can convert this chemical energy to mechanical, electrical, or heat energy.

**nutrients:** chemical substances obtained from food and used in the body to provide energy, structural materials, and regulating agents to support growth, maintenance, and repair of the body’s tissues. Nutrients may also reduce the risks of some diseases.

**phytochemicals** (FIE-toe-KEM-ih-cals): nonnutrient compounds found in plant-derived foods that have biological activity in the body.

- **phyto** = plant

**nonnutrients:** compounds in foods that do not fit within the six classes of nutrients.

**inorganic:** not containing carbon or pertaining to living things.

- **in** = not

**organic:** in chemistry, a substance or molecule containing carbon-carbon bonds or carbon-hydrogen bonds.\* In agriculture, organic means growing crops and raising livestock according to U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) standards (see Chapter 19).

\* This definition excludes coal, diamonds, and a few carbon-containing compounds that contain only a single carbon and no hydrogen, such as carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>), magnesium carbonate (MgCO<sub>3</sub>), and sodium cyanide (NaCN).

**Composition of Foods** Chemical analysis of a food such as a tomato shows that it is composed primarily of water (95 percent). Most of the solid materials are carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins. If you could remove these materials, you would find a tiny residue of vitamins, minerals, and other compounds. Water, carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, vitamins, and some of the minerals found in foods are nutrients—substances the body uses for the growth, maintenance, and repair of its tissues.

This book focuses mostly on the nutrients, but foods contain other compounds as well—fibers, **phytochemicals**, pigments, additives, alcohols, and others. Some are beneficial, some are neutral, and a few are harmful. Later sections of the book touch on these **nonnutrients** and their significance.

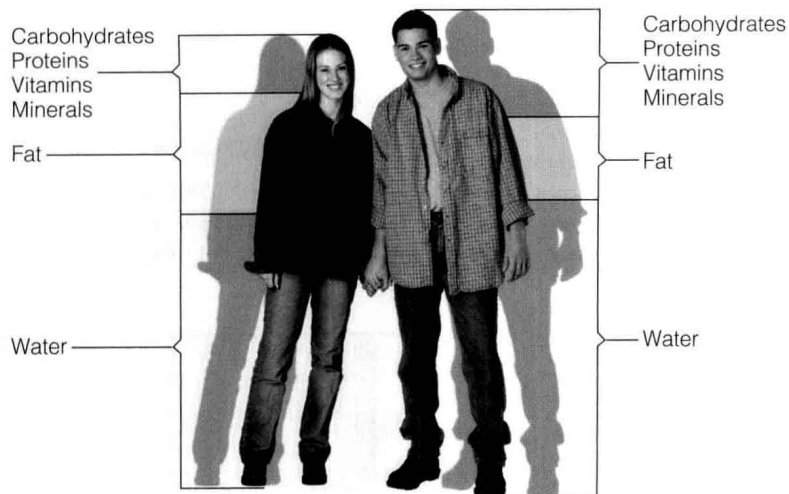
**Composition of the Body** A complete chemical analysis of your body would show that it is made of materials similar to those found in foods (see Figure 1-1). A healthy 150-pound body contains about 90 pounds of water and about 20 to 45 pounds of fat. The remaining pounds are mostly protein, carbohydrate, and the major minerals of the bones. Vitamins, other minerals, and incidental extras constitute a fraction of a pound.

**Chemical Composition of Nutrients** The simplest of the nutrients are the minerals. Each mineral is a chemical element; its atoms are all alike. As a result, its identity never changes. Iron may change its form, for example, but it remains iron when a food is cooked, when a person eats the food, when iron becomes part of a red blood cell, when the cell is broken down, and when the iron is lost from the body by excretion. The next simplest nutrient is water, a compound made of two elements—hydrogen and oxygen. Minerals and water are **inorganic** nutrients—they contain no carbon.

The other four classes of nutrients (carbohydrates, lipids, proteins, and vitamins) are more complex. In addition to hydrogen and oxygen, they all contain carbon, an element found in all living things. They are therefore called **organic** compounds (meaning, literally, “alive”). Protein and some vitamins also contain nitrogen and may contain other elements as well (see Table 1-1).

**FIGURE 1-1** Body Composition of Healthy-Weight Men and Women

The human body is made of compounds similar to those found in foods—mostly water (60 percent) and some fat (13 to 21 percent for young men, 23 to 31 percent for young women), with carbohydrate, protein, vitamins, minerals, and other minor constituents making up the remainder. (Chapter 8 describes the health hazards of too little or too much body fat.)



**Essential Nutrients** The body can make some nutrients, but it cannot make all of them, and it makes some in insufficient quantities to meet its needs. It must obtain these nutrients from foods. The nutrients that foods must supply are **essential nutrients**. When used to refer to nutrients, the word *essential* means more than just “necessary”; it means “needed from outside the body”—normally, from foods.

## The Energy-Yielding Nutrients

In the body, three of the organic nutrients can be used to provide energy: carbohydrate, fat, and protein. ■ In contrast to these **energy-yielding nutrients**, vitamins, minerals, and water do not yield energy in the human body.

- Carbohydrate, fat, and protein are sometimes called **macronutrients** because they are required by the body in relatively large amounts (many grams daily). In contrast, vitamins and minerals are **micronutrients**, required in small amounts (milligrams or micrograms daily).

**TABLE 1-1** Elements in the Six Classes of Nutrients

Notice that organic nutrients contain carbon.

	Carbon	Hydrogen	Oxygen	Nitrogen	Minerals
<b>Inorganic nutrients</b>					
Minerals					✓
Water		✓	✓		
<b>Organic nutrients</b>					
Carbohydrates	✓	✓	✓		
Lipids (fats)	✓	✓	✓		
Proteins <sup>a</sup>	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Vitamins <sup>b</sup>	✓	✓	✓		

<sup>a</sup>Some proteins also contain the mineral sulfur.

<sup>b</sup>Some vitamins contain nitrogen; some contain minerals.

**essential nutrients:** nutrients a person must obtain from food because the body cannot make them for itself in sufficient quantity to meet physiological needs; also called **indispensable nutrients**. About 40 nutrients are currently known to be essential for human beings.

**energy-yielding nutrients:** the nutrients that break down to yield energy the body can use:

- Carbohydrate.
- Fat.
- Protein.

**HOW TO** Think Metric

Like other scientists, nutrition scientists use metric units of measure. They measure food energy in kilocalories, people's height in centimeters, people's weight in kilograms, and the weights of foods and nutrients in grams, milligrams, or micrograms. For ease in using these measures, it helps to remember that the prefixes on the grams imply 1000. For example, a *kilogram* is 1000 grams, a *milligram* is 1/1000 of a gram, and a *microgram* is 1/1000 of a milligram.

Most food labels and many recipe books provide "dual measures," listing both household measures, such as cups, quarts, and teaspoons, and metric measures, such as milliliters, liters, and grams. This practice

gives people an opportunity to gradually learn to "think metric."

A person might begin to "think metric" by simply observing the measure—by noticing the amount of soda in a 2-liter bottle, for example. Through such experiences, a person can become familiar with a measure without having to do any conversions.

To facilitate communication, many members of the international scientific community have adopted a common system of measurement—the International System of Units (SI). In addition to using metric measures, the SI establishes common units of measurement. For example, the SI unit for measuring food energy is the joule (not the calorie). A joule is the amount of energy

expended when 1 kilogram is moved 1 meter by a force of 1 newton. The joule is thus a measure of *work* energy, whereas the calorie is a measure of *heat* energy. While many scientists and journals report their findings in kilojoules (kJ), many others, particularly those in the United States, use calories. To convert energy measures from calories to kilojoules, multiply by 4.2. For example, a 50-kcalorie cookie provides 210 kilojoules:

$$50 \text{ kcal} \times 4.2 = 210 \text{ kJ.}$$

Exact conversion factors for these and other units of measure are in the Aids to Calculation section on the last two pages of the book.

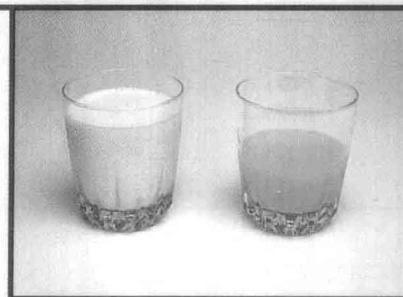
**Volume: Liters (L)**

1 L = 1000 milliliters (mL).  
0.95 L = 1 quart.  
1 mL = 0.03 fluid ounces.  
240 mL = 1 cup.



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A liter of liquid is approximately one U.S. quart. (Four liters are only about 5 percent more than a gallon.)



© PhotoEdit/Felicia Martinez

One cup is about 240 milliliters; a half-cup of liquid is about 120 milliliters.

**Weight: Grams (g)**

1 g = 1000 milligrams (mg).  
1 g = 0.04 ounce (oz).  
1 oz = 28.35 g or ≈ 30 g.  
100 g ≈ 3½ oz.  
1 kilogram (kg) = 1000 g.  
1 kg = 2.2 pounds (lb).  
454 g = 1 lb.



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A half-cup of vegetables weighs about 100 grams; one pea weighs about ½ gram.



© Tony Freeman/Photo Edit

A 5-pound bag of potatoes weighs about 2 kilograms, and a 176-pound person weighs 80 kilograms.

A kilogram is slightly more than 2 lb; conversely, a pound is about ½ kg.

**calories:** units by which energy is measured. Food energy is measured in **kilocalories** (1000 calories equal 1 kilocalorie), abbreviated **kcalories** or **kcal**. One kcalorie is the amount of heat necessary to raise the temperature of 1 kilogram (kg) of water 1°C. The scientific use of the term *kcalorie* is the same as the popular use of the term *calorie*.

**Energy Measured in kcalories** The energy released from carbohydrates, fats, and proteins can be measured in **calories**—tiny units of energy so small that a single apple provides tens of thousands of them. To ease calculations, energy is expressed in 1000-calorie metric units known as kilocalories (shortened to kcalories, but commonly called "calories"). When you read in popular books or magazines that an apple provides "100 calories," understand that it means 100 kcalories. This book uses the term *kcalorie* and its abbreviation *kcal* throughout, as do other scientific books and journals. The accompanying "How to" provides a few tips on how to "think metric."

**Energy from Foods** The amount of energy a food provides depends on how much carbohydrate, fat, and protein it contains. When completely broken down

## HOW TO Calculate the Energy Available from Foods

To calculate the energy available from a food, multiply the number of grams of carbohydrate, protein, and fat by 4, 4, and 9, respectively. Then add the results together. For example, 1 slice of bread with 1 tablespoon of peanut butter on it contains 16 grams carbohydrate, 7 grams protein, and 9 grams fat:

$$\begin{aligned} 16 \text{ g carbohydrate} \times 4 \text{ kcal/g} &= 64 \text{ kcal.} \\ 7 \text{ g protein} \times 4 \text{ kcal/g} &= 28 \text{ kcal.} \\ 9 \text{ g fat} \times 9 \text{ kcal/g} &= 81 \text{ kcal.} \\ \text{Total} &= 173 \text{ kcal.} \end{aligned}$$

From this information, you can calculate the percentage of kcalories each of the energy nutrients contributes to the total. To determine the percentage of kcalories from fat,

for example, divide the 81 fat kcalories by the total 173 kcalories:

$$81 \text{ fat kcal} \div 173 \text{ total kcal} = 0.468 \\ \text{(rounded to 0.47).}$$

Then multiply by 100 to get the percentage:

$$0.47 \times 100 = 47\%.$$

Dietary recommendations that urge people to limit fat intake to 20 to 35 percent of kcalories refer to the day's total energy intake, not to individual foods. Still, if the proportion of fat in each food choice throughout a day exceeds 35 percent of kcalories, then the day's total surely will, too. Knowing that this snack provides 47 percent of its kcalories from fat alerts a person to the need to make lower-fat selections at other times that day.

in the body, a gram of carbohydrate yields about 4 kcalories of energy; a gram of protein also yields 4 kcalories; and a gram of fat yields 9 kcalories (see Table 1-2). Fat, therefore, has a greater **energy density** than either carbohydrate or protein. Figure 1-2 (on p. 10) compares the energy density of two breakfast options, and later chapters describe how considering a food's energy density can help with weight management.■ The accompanying "How to" explains how to calculate the energy available from foods.

One other substance contributes energy: alcohol. Alcohol is not considered a nutrient because it interferes with the growth, maintenance, and repair of the body, but it does yield energy (7 kcalories per gram) when metabolized in the body. (Highlight 7 and Chapter 18 present the potential harms and possible benefits of alcohol consumption.)

Most foods contain all three energy-yielding nutrients, as well as water, vitamins, minerals, and other substances. For example, meat contains water, fat, vitamins, and minerals as well as protein. Bread contains water, a trace of fat, a little protein, and some vitamins and minerals in addition to its carbohydrate. Only a few foods are exceptions to this rule, the common ones being sugar (pure carbohydrate) and oil (essentially pure fat).

**Energy in the Body** The body uses the energy-yielding nutrients to fuel all its activities. When the body uses carbohydrate, fat, or protein for energy, the bonds between the nutrient's atoms break. As the bonds break, they release energy.■ Some of this energy is released as heat, but some is used to send electrical impulses through the brain and nerves, to synthesize body compounds, and to move muscles. Thus the energy from food supports every activity from quiet thought to vigorous sports.

If the body does not use these nutrients to fuel its current activities, it rearranges them into storage compounds (such as body fat), to be used between meals and overnight when fresh energy supplies run low. If more energy is consumed than expended, the result is an increase in energy stores and weight gain. Similarly, if less energy is consumed than expended, the result is a decrease in energy stores and weight loss.

When consumed in excess of energy need, alcohol, too, can be converted to body fat and stored. When alcohol contributes a substantial portion of the energy in a person's diet, the harm it does far exceeds the problems of excess body fat. (Highlight 7 describes the effects of alcohol on health and nutrition.)

■ Foods with a high energy density help with weight gain, whereas those with a low energy density help with weight loss.

■ The processes by which nutrients are broken down to yield energy or used to make body structures are known as **metabolism** (defined and described further in Chapter 7).

**TABLE 1-2** kCalorie Values of Energy Nutrients

Energy Nutrients	kCalories <sup>a</sup> (per gram)
Carbohydrate	4 kcal/g
Fat	9 kcal/g
Protein	4 kcal/g

NOTE: Alcohol contributes 7 kcalories per gram that can be used for energy, but it is not considered a nutrient because it interferes with the body's growth, maintenance, and repair.

<sup>a</sup>For those using kilojoules: 1 g carbohydrate = 17 kJ; 1 g protein = 17 kJ; 1 g fat = 37 kJ; and 1 g alcohol = 29 kJ.

**energy density:** a measure of the energy a food provides relative to the amount of food (kcalories per gram).

**FIGURE 1-2** Energy Density of Two Breakfast Options Compared

Gram for gram, ounce for ounce, and bite for bite, foods with a high energy density deliver more kcalories than foods with a low energy density. Both of these breakfast options provide 500 kcalories, but the cereal with milk, fruit salad, scrambled egg, turkey sausage, and toast with jam offers three times as much food as the doughnuts (based on weight); it has a lower energy density than the doughnuts. Selecting a variety of foods also helps to ensure nutrient adequacy.

**LOWER ENERGY DENSITY**

This 450-gram breakfast delivers 500 kcalories, for an energy density of 1.1 ( $500 \text{ kcal} \div 450 \text{ g} = 1.1 \text{ kcal/g}$ ).

**HIGHER ENERGY DENSITY**

This 144-gram breakfast also delivers 500 kcalories, for an energy density of 3.5 ( $500 \text{ kcal} \div 144 \text{ g} = 3.5 \text{ kcal/g}$ ).

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**Other Roles of Energy-Yielding Nutrients** In addition to providing energy, carbohydrates, fats, and proteins provide the raw materials for building the body's tissues and regulating its many activities. In fact, protein's role as a fuel source is relatively minor compared with both the other two nutrients and its other roles. Proteins are found in structures such as the muscles and skin and help to regulate activities such as digestion and energy metabolism.

## The Vitamins

The **vitamins** are also organic, but they do not provide energy. Instead, they facilitate the release of energy from carbohydrate, fat, and protein and participate in numerous other activities throughout the body.

There are 13 different vitamins, each with its own special roles to play.\* One vitamin enables the eyes to see in dim light, another helps protect the lungs from air pollution, and still another helps make the sex hormones—among other things. When you cut yourself, one vitamin helps stop the bleeding and another helps repair the skin. Vitamins busily help replace old red blood cells and the lining of the digestive tract. Almost every action in the body requires the assistance of vitamins.

Vitamins can function only if they are intact, but because they are complex organic molecules, they are vulnerable to destruction by heat, light, and chemical agents. This is why the body handles them carefully, and why nutrition-wise cooks do, too. The strategies of cooking vegetables at moderate temperatures, using small amounts of water, and for short times all help to preserve the vitamins.

**vitamins:** organic, essential nutrients required in small amounts by the body for health.

\* The water-soluble vitamins are vitamin C and the eight B vitamins: thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, vitamins B<sub>6</sub> and B<sub>12</sub>, folate, biotin, and pantothenic acid. The fat-soluble vitamins are vitamins A, D, E, and K. The water-soluble vitamins are the subject of Chapter 10 and the fat-soluble vitamins, of Chapter 11.

## The Minerals

In the body, some **minerals** are put together in orderly arrays in such structures as bones and teeth. Minerals are also found in the fluids of the body and influence their properties. Whatever their roles, minerals do not yield energy.

Some 16 minerals are known to be essential in human nutrition.\* Others are still being studied to determine whether they play significant roles in the human body. Still other minerals are *not* essential nutrients, but are important nevertheless because they are environmental contaminants that displace the nutrient minerals from their workplaces in the body, disrupting body functions. The problems caused by contaminant minerals are described in Chapter 13.

Because minerals are inorganic, they are indestructible and need not be handled with the special care that vitamins require. Minerals can, however, be bound by substances that interfere with the body's ability to absorb them. They can also be lost during food-refining processes or during cooking when they leach into water that is discarded.



Water itself is an essential nutrient and naturally carries many minerals.

## Water

Water, indispensable and abundant, provides the environment in which nearly all the body's activities are conducted. It participates in many metabolic reactions and supplies the medium for transporting vital materials to cells and waste products away from them. Water is discussed fully in Chapter 12, but it is mentioned in every chapter. If you watch for it, you cannot help but be impressed by water's participation in all life processes.

### IN SUMMARY

Foods provide nutrients—substances that support the growth, maintenance, and repair of the body's tissues. The six classes of nutrients include:

- Carbohydrates.
- Lipids (fats).
- Proteins.
- Vitamins.
- Minerals.
- Water.

Foods rich in the energy-yielding nutrients (carbohydrates, fats, and proteins) provide the major materials for building the body's tissues and yield energy for the body's use or storage. Energy is measured in kcalories. Vitamins, minerals, and water facilitate a variety of activities in the body. Without exaggeration, nutrients provide the physical and metabolic basis for nearly all that we are and all that we do.

## The Science of Nutrition

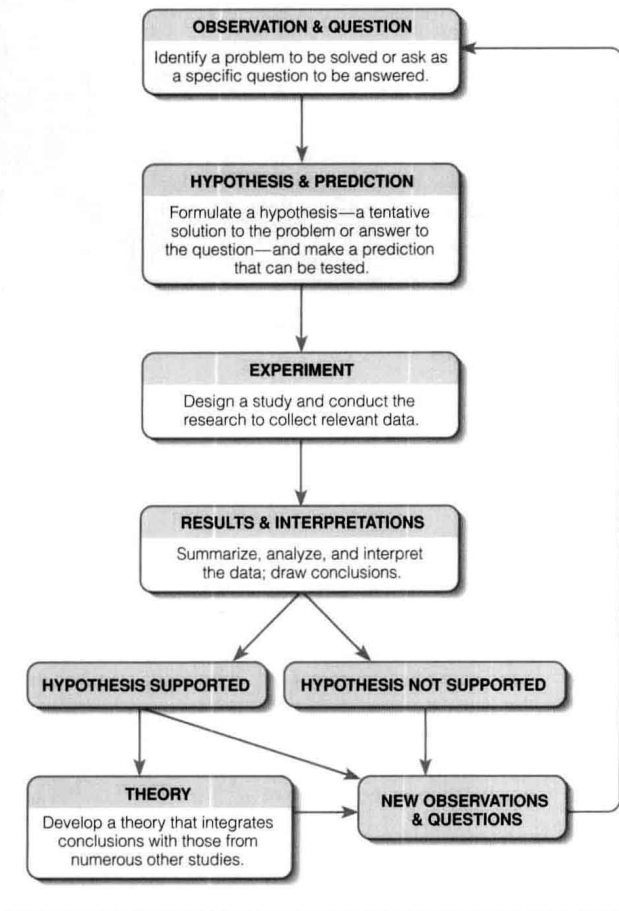
The science of nutrition is the study of the nutrients and other substances in foods and the body's handling of them. Its foundation depends on several other sciences, including biology, biochemistry, and physiology. As sciences go, nutrition is a young one, but as you can see from the size of this book, much has happened in nutrition's short life. And it is currently entering a tremendous growth spurt as

**minerals:** inorganic elements. Some minerals are essential nutrients required in small amounts by the body for health.

\* The major minerals are calcium, phosphorus, potassium, sodium, chloride, magnesium, and sulfur. The trace minerals are iron, iodine, zinc, chromium, selenium, fluoride, molybdenum, copper, and manganese. Chapters 12 and 13 are devoted to the major and trace minerals, respectively.

## FIGURE 1-3 The Scientific Method

In conducting research, scientists follow the scientific method. Most often, research generates additional problems and questions. Thus the sequence begins anew, and research continues in a never-ending, somewhat cyclical way.



scientists apply knowledge gained from sequencing the human **genome**. The integration of nutrition, genomics, and molecular biology has opened up a whole new world of study called **nutritional genomics**—the science of how nutrients affect the activities of genes and how genes affect the activities of nutrients.<sup>6</sup> Look for examples of these interactions and of how nutritional genomics is shaping the science of nutrition in later sections of the book. This section introduces the research methods scientists have used in uncovering the wonders of nutrition.

## Nutrition Research

Researchers use the scientific method to guide their work (see Figure 1-3). As the figure shows, research always begins with a problem or a question. For example, “What foods or nutrients might protect against the common cold?” In search of an answer, scientists make an educated guess (hypothesis), such as “foods rich in vitamin C reduce the number of common colds.” Then they systematically conduct research studies to collect data that will test the **hypothesis** (see the glossary on p. 14 for definitions of research terms). Some examples of various types of research designs are presented in Figure 1-4. Each type of study has strengths and weaknesses (see Table 1-3 on p. 14). Consequently, some provide stronger evidence than others. Findings must be analyzed and interpreted with an awareness of each study’s limitations. Importantly, scientists must be cautious about drawing any conclusions until they have accumulated a body of evidence from multiple studies that have used various types of research designs. As evidence accumulates, scientists begin to develop a **theory** that integrates the various findings and explains the complex relationships. (See Highlight 1 for a discussion of how to evaluate research findings.)

In attempting to discover whether a nutrient relieves symptoms or cures a disease, researchers deliberately manipulate one variable (for example, the amount of vitamin C in the diet) and measure any observed changes (perhaps the number of colds). As much as possible, all other conditions are held constant. The following

paragraphs illustrate how this is accomplished using research on vitamin C and the common cold as an example.

**Controls** In studies examining the effectiveness of vitamin C, researchers typically divide the **subjects** into two groups. One group (the **experimental group**) receives a vitamin C supplement, and the other (the **control group**) does not. Researchers observe both groups to determine whether the vitamin C group has fewer or shorter colds than the control group. A number of pitfalls are inherent in an experiment of this kind and must be avoided.

First, each person must have an equal chance of being assigned to either the experimental group or the control group. This is accomplished by **randomization**; that is, the members are chosen from the same population by flipping a coin or some other method involving chance.

Importantly, the two groups of people must be similar and must have the same track record with respect to colds to rule out the possibility that observed differences in the rate, severity, or duration of colds might have occurred anyway. If, for example, the control group would normally catch twice as many colds as the experimental group, then the findings prove nothing.

In experiments involving a nutrient, the diets of both groups must also be similar, especially with respect to the nutrient being studied. If those in the experimental group were receiving less vitamin C from their diet, then the effects of the supplement may not be apparent.

**genome** (GEE-nome): the full complement of genetic material (DNA) in the chromosomes of a cell. In human beings, the genome consists of 23 pairs of chromosomes. The study of genomes is **genomics**.

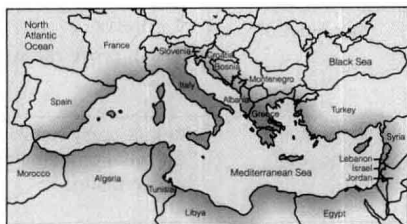
**nutritional genomics**: the science of how nutrients affect the activities of genes and how genes affect the activities of nutrients.



## FIGURE 1-4 Examples of Research Designs

### EPIDEMIOLOGICAL STUDIES

#### CROSS-SECTIONAL



Researchers observe how much and what kinds of foods a group of people eat and how healthy those people are. Their findings identify factors that might influence the incidence of a disease in various populations.

*Example.* The people of the Mediterranean region drink lots of wine, eat plenty of fat from olive oil, and have a lower incidence of heart disease than northern Europeans and North Americans.

#### CASE-CONTROL

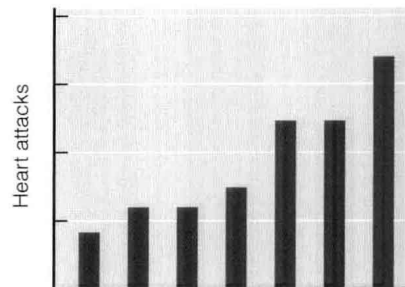


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Researchers compare people who do and do not have a given condition such as a disease, closely matching them in age, gender, and other key variables so that differences in other factors will stand out. These differences may account for the condition in the group that has it.

*Example.* People with goiter lack iodine in their diets.

#### COHORT



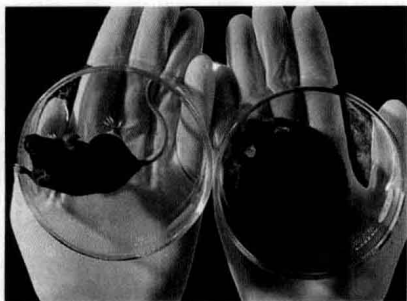
Blood cholesterol

Researchers analyze data collected from a selected group of people (a cohort) at intervals over a certain period of time.

*Example.* Data collected periodically over the past several decades from over 5000 people randomly selected from the town of Framingham, Massachusetts, in 1948 have revealed that the risk of heart attack increases as blood cholesterol increases.

### EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

#### LABORATORY-BASED ANIMAL STUDIES



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Researchers feed animals special diets that provide or omit specific nutrients and then observe any changes in health. Such studies test possible disease causes and treatments in a laboratory where all conditions can be controlled.

*Example.* Mice fed a high-fat diet eat less food than mice given a lower-fat diet, so they receive the same number of kcalories—but the mice eating the fat-rich diet become severely obese.

#### LABORATORY-BASED IN VITRO STUDIES



USDA Agricultural Research Service

Researchers examine the effects of a specific variable on a tissue, cell, or molecule isolated from a living organism.

*Example.* Laboratory studies find that fish oils inhibit the growth and activity of the bacteria implicated in ulcer formation.

#### HUMAN INTERVENTION (OR CLINICAL) TRIALS



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Researchers ask people to adopt a new behavior (for example, eat a citrus fruit, take a vitamin C supplement, or exercise daily). These trials help determine the effectiveness of such interventions on the development or prevention of disease.

*Example.* Heart disease risk factors improve when men receive fresh-squeezed orange juice daily for two months compared with those on a diet low in vitamin C—even when both groups follow a diet high in saturated fat.

**Sample Size** To ensure that chance variation between the two groups does not influence the results, the groups must be large. If one member of a group of five people catches a bad cold by chance, he will pull the whole group's average toward bad colds; but if one member of a group of 500 catches a bad cold, she will not unduly affect the group average. Statistical methods are used to determine whether differences between groups of various sizes support a hypothesis.