

- Dietary Inflammatory Impact on NAFLD
- 2 Development in Obese vs. Lean Individuals: an
- analysis based on NHANES 2003-2018 Analysis.

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6 Background

Abstract

- Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), which is commonly linked with
- 8 obesity, can also affect individuals of normal weight, a condition known as "lean
- 9 NAFLD" and impose similar burdens and negative effects. However, the impact of
- diet on lean NAFLD remains underexplored. Our objective is to find out how the
- Dietary Inflammatory Index (DII) and NAFLD correlate, in the Americans, stratified
- by waist-to-height ratio (WHtR) together with body mass index (BMI).

13 Methods

- 5,152 participants from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey
- 15 (NHANES) 2003-2018 were comprised in the final analysis. Serological markers
- were used to define both NAFLD and advanced liver fibrosis. Lean and abdominal
- 17 lean individuals were identified using BMI and WHtR, separately. DII was
- determined by assigning scores to 28 distinct food parameters based on their
- 19 inflammatory potential, obtained from the NAHNES website. Differences across DII
- quartiles were evaluated using the Kruskal-Wallis H Test, Chi-Square Test along with
- 21 One-Way ANOVA. The correlation between DII and NAFLD was determined by
- 22 multiple regression models and subgroup analyses.

23	Results
24	Among the 5,152 subjects, 2,503 were diagnosed with NAFLD, with 86 cases of
25	lean NAFLD and 8 cases of abdominal lean NAFLD. DII was shown to be positively
26	linked with NAFLD (Odds Ratio (OR)=1.81 [1.48-2.21], $P < 0.001$) and advanced
27	liver fibrosis (OR=1.46 [1.02-2.07], $P = 0.037$). Further analysis revealed that this
28	association was primarily observed in obese/abdominal obese participants (In BMI≥
29	25.00 kg/m^2, OR=1.56 [1.23-1.98], <i>P</i> < 0.001. In WHtR>0.50, OR=1.48 [1.23-1.79],
30	P < 0.001.) rather than their lean counterparts. Subgroup analyses demonstrated that
31	female individuals without a diagnosis of hypertension or diabetes appeared to be
32	more sensitive to the rise in DII.
33	Conclusions
34	Our data demonstrated a substantial positive correlation between DII and
35	NAFLD in general population. The impact of a pro-inflammatory diet appeared to be
36	less prominent in lean individuals compared to obese ones.
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38	Keywords:
39	DII, NAFLD, lean individuals, abdominal obesity, BMI, WHtR.
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41	Introduction
42	Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is described as the deposit of extra fat
43	in the liver without significant alcohol consumption or other long-term liver illnesses,
44	including viral hepatitis or genetic liver disorders [1, 2]. Nowadays, NAFLD is the

major cause of end-stage liver disease, primary liver carcinoma and demand for liver 45 46 replacement surgery, placing a significant burden worldwide [3]. In addition to its 47 well-established association with obesity, 'lean NAFLD' refers to NAFLD that affects 48 individuals of normal weight [4, 5]. The incidence of lean NAFLD varies by region 49 and races. A meta-analysis showed that lean NAFLD approximately accounted for 50 19.20% of NAFLD patients worldwide (95% CI:3.70-7.00) [6]. Previous studies have 51 indicated that lean NAFLD may exhibit comparable outcomes to conventional 52 NAFLD or potentially even worse liver-related events and overall mortality [7]. To 53 date, genetics, epigenetics, dietary factors, and physical exercise have all been linked 54 to the onset of NAFLD in lean individuals by influencing metabolic flexibility and 55 adaptability [8, 9]. However, the specific mechanisms of lean NAFLD remain unclear. 56 Additionally, specific guidelines for lean NAFLD are absent. 57 Recent study has demonstrated the critical function of inflammation in the onset 58 of NAFLD [10, 11]. In humans, the inflammatory balance is maintained by cytokines 59 including IL-6 and IL-1, along with tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α) and C-60 reactive protein (CRP) [12]. Disruption of this balance may lead to mild persistent 61 inflammation and tissue damage. Diet is a key factor in modifying the inflammatory 62 state in humans and has been widely used in NAFLD treatment. It is recommended to 63 minimize the consumption of a typical Western eating style while promoting the 64 adoption of a Mediterranean diet, which includes a higher intake of omega-3 as well 65 as monounsaturated fatty acids and a lower intake of carbohydrates, refined carbs, and 66 sweets [13-17]. To offer the public with more precise dietary guidance, Shivappa et al

67	devised the Dietary Inflammatory Index (DII), which is currently widely utilized to
68	quantify the impact of an individual's diet on inflammation [18]. Previous research
69	has revealed the substantial link between DII and obesity [19], type 2 diabetes
70	(T2DM) [20], hypertension [21] and metabolic dysfunction-associated fatty liver
71	disease (MAFLD) [22]. However, research on the relationship between DII and
72	NAFLD in individuals with varying weights and body shapes is limited.
73	Nowadays, several non-invasive serologic tests are widely used as in diagnosing
74	NAFLD and advanced liver fibrosis. These tests include the Fatty Liver Index (FLI),
75	the US Fatty Liver Index (USFLI), the Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease Fibrosis
76	Score (NFS), the Fibrosis 4 Index (FIB-4), the Hepatic Steatosis Index (HSI) and the
77	Aspartate Aminotransferase /Platelet Ratio Index (APRI). Numerous epidemiological
78	studies [23-29] have confirmed the validity of these markers. Our objective is to
79	explore associations between DII and NAFLD in different body mass index (BMI)
80	and body shapes (defined by waist-to-height ratio (WHtR)), aiming to provide more
81	detailed dietary advice for NAFLD.
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83	Methods
84	Population and study design
85	NHANES, a comprehensive database which tracks the nutritional status and
86	health of the Americans [30], is administered by the Centers for Disease Control and
87	Prevention (CDC). The data for this study were obtained from the eight NHANES
88	cycles spanned from 2003 to 2018, as they included all of the relevant variables,

which were all available on the NHANES official website. The initial dataset consisted of 80,312 individuals. Participants were excluded if they were: (1) under the age of 18, (2) pregnant or were unable to submit a urine sample for testing, (3) had other chronic liver diseases (hepatitis B, C and liver carcinoma), (4) had excessive alcohol consumption, (5) had incomplete information on crucial factors, including dietary data, demographic, laboratory and questionnaire. Following this screening procedure, the final research comprised 5,152 individuals (Figure 1 is our study design).

- 97 Diagnostic Criteria and definition
- 98 Definition of NAFLD
- 99 As previously stated, FLI and USFLI jointly defined NAFLD. The formula is
- 100 shown below:

$$FLI = (\frac{e^{0.953 \times \log_e(TG) + 0.139 \times BMI + 0.718 \times \log_e(GGT) + 0.053 \times waist} \text{ circumference-}15.745}{1 + e^{0.953 \times \log_e(TG) + 0.139 \times BMI + 0.718 \times \log_e(GGT) + 0.053 \times waist}}) \bullet 100 \leftarrow 0$$

$$USFLI = (\frac{e^{0.3458 \cdot Maxicum \text{ American-}0.8073 \cdot non-Hispanic black+0.0093 \times age+0.6151 \cdot \log_e(GGT) + 0.0249 \cdot waist}}{1 + e^{0.3458 \cdot Maxicum \text{ American-}0.8073 \cdot non-Hispanic black+0.0093 \times age+0.6151 \cdot \log_e(GGT) + 0.0249 \cdot waist}} \text{ circumference+}1.1792 \cdot \log_e(minlm) + 0.8242 \cdot \log_e(gln \cos e) - 14.7812}}) \times 100$$

Here, TG and GGT are the abbreviations of triglycerides and gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase, separately. In the calculation of USFLI, individuals are assigned to a value of 1 if they are classified as 'non-Hispanic black' or 'Mexican American' and 0 if they are not. Individuals with a FLI score \geq 60 [31] or USFLI \geq 30 [27] were defined as NAFLD.

107 The description of advanced liver fibrosis

Two groups of participants with NAFLD were created based on the NFS, FIB-4,

and APRI scores. The following are the formulas:

 $NFS = -1.675 + 0.037 \times age + 0.094 \times BMI + 1.13 \times IFG \text{ or } diabetes (yes = 1, no = 0) + 0.99 \times AST / ALT - 0.013 \times PLT - 0.66 \times Alb / ALT - 0.013 \times PLT - 0.013 \times PLT$

$$FIB - 4 = \frac{Age \times AST}{PLT \times \sqrt{ALT}} \leftarrow$$

$$APRI = (\frac{AST/ULN}{PLT}) \times 100 \, ^{c}$$

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111 AST and ALT are initials for aspartate transaminase and alanine

- aminotransferase, respectively. While PLT is an acronym for platelet count.
- 113 Participants' NFS values are calculated as follows: 0 if they do not have diabetes or
- impaired glucose tolerance (IFG), and 1 if they do. The typical upper limit of AST is
- denoted by ULN in the APRI computation. In NAFLD patients, NFS>0.676 or FIB-
- 4>2.67 or APRI>1.0 [28] were deemed indicators of advanced liver fibrosis,
- 117 Definition of lean/abdominal lean and obese/abdominal obese individuals
- The revised 2022 AGA Clinical Practice guidelines defined lean NAFLD as
- NAFLD in individuals with a BMI <25 kg/m² [32]. However, BMI alone may not
- provide a comprehensive assessment of body fat distribution [33]. Additional
- measures, such as the WHtR [8], body roundness index (BRI) [34], and a body shape
- 122 index (ABSI) [35] were also included to delineate abdominal obesity. To evaluate the
- 123 correlation and reliability of these markers with NAFLD, ROC curves were created
- 124 (Figure 2-Figure 5). WHtR and BRI appeared to be more accurate in predicting
- 125 NAFLD. Hence, WHtR<0.50 [36] was used as a measurement of abdominal obesity,
- 126 consistent with prior research. Finally, lean NAFLD was categorized as NAFLD with
- a BMI<25.00 kg/m², while obese NAFLD as having a BMI≥25.00 kg/m².
- 128 Meanwhile, abdominal-lean NAFLD was characterized as NAFLD having a

- 129 WHtR<0.5, whereas abdominal-obese NAFLD had a WHtR≥0.5.
- 130 Dietary assessment
- The creation and validation of DII has been documented elsewhere [18, 37]. DII
- 132 was computed using 45 dietary factors collected from 11 different communities
- globally. A Z-score was calculated by normalizing each parameter's value through the
- removal of the database mean and division by the parameter's standard deviation.
- 135 Then, by doubling and removing one (from -1 to +1 and centering on 0), the Z-score
- was transformed into percentile values [18, 38]. Each central percentile was then
- multiplied by its associated inflammatory impact score. Then, the DII scores for each
- dietary parameter were added to calculate an individual's DII.
- Dietary information in NHANSE was collected via a 24-hour recall interview
- done at the mobile examination center (MEC). In this research, a total of 28 different
- food parameters, including dietary calorie intake, protein, carbohydrates, cholesterol,
- fat, fatty acids (saturated, monounsaturated and polyunsaturated), folic acid, beta-
- carotene, ω -3 and ω -6 fatty acids, niacin, fiber, alcohol, caffeine, and various vitamins
- 144 (A, B1, B2, B6, B12, C, D, E), iron, zinc, selenium, and magnesium were employed
- in the calculation of DII, consistent with prior studies [39-41]. After gathering the
- data, the DII for each parameter was computed using the following formula:
- $DII_{coch, parameter} = (\frac{Individual \cdot s \cdot intake_{coch, parameter} Global \cdot daily \cdot mean \cdot intake_{auch, parameter}}{the \cdot Standard \cdot deviation \cdot of \cdot global \cdot daily \cdot mean \cdot intake_{auch, parameter}}) \times the \cdot inf \cdot lammatory \cdot index_{coch, parameter}$
- 148 Then, the DII of each parameter was added together to calculate a participant's overall
- DII. After calculating total DII, subjects were divided into quartiles: Q1: -5.20 < DII <
- 150 -0.09, Q2: $-0.09 \le DII < 1.54$, Q3: $1.54 \le DII < 2.90$, and Q4: $2.90 \le DII < 5.52$ for

152 Covariates Demographic data, including age, gender, race, smoking habits, family income-153 154 to-poverty ratio (PIR), educational level, together with laboratory examinations such 155 as cholesterol (TC), TG, albumin (ALB), ALT, AST, GGT, high-density lipoprotein 156 (HDL), PLT, and other metabolic diseases including hypertension and diabetes 157 constituted the main covariates in this study. Hypertension was characterized as: (a) a history of hypertension, or (b) systolic blood pressure (SBP) \geq 140 mmhg, or (c) 158 159 diastolic blood pressure (DBP) \geq 90 mmhg. Diabetes was diagnosed when: (a) a prior diagnosis of diabetes, (b) a hemoglobin A1C concentration (HbA1c) above 6.4%, or 160 161 (c) a fasting plasma glucose level (FPG) over 125 mg/dL, or (d) the use of insulin. 162 Statistical analysis 163 The statistical analysis in this study were conducted using R (4.3.1). Descriptive 164 statistics were presented in various formats, including medians, averages, standard 165 deviations, percentages and frequencies, depending on the data attributes. In table 1 and 2, the Chi-Square Test was utilized to examine the qualitative characteristics, 166 while One-Way ANOVA and the Kruskal-Wallis H Test were performed to compare 167 168 data from groups with normal or non-normal distributions, separately. Then, three 169 logistic models were employed to calculate odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence 170 intervals (CI). Model 1 represented the original model with no confounding factors 171 adjusted. Model 2 accounted for the impacts of age, gender and races while Model 3 refined the education level, ratio of family income to poverty (PIR), hypertension, 172

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further analyses.

diabetes and smoking habits based on Model 2. Subgroup analyses of age, gender, hypertension and diabetes were undertaken to assess the link between DII and 174 175 NAFLD in diverse populations. All *P-values* were calculated on both sides and 176 deemed statistically significant when below 0.05. 177 Results The features of participants. 178 179 Table 1 presents the baseline characteristics of the 5,152 individuals grouped by 180 DII quartiles. Among them, 1,289 individuals were assigned to Group Q1 (-5.20 < DII 181 < -0.09), 1,282 to Group Q2 (-0.09 \leq DII < 1.54), 1,293 to Group Q3 (1.54 \leq DII <182 2.90), and 1,288 to Group Q4 (2.90 \leq DII < 5.52). Significant variations were 183 observed among the DII groups concerning gender, race, education level, PIR, 184 smoking habits, BMI, waist circumstance, WHtR, SBP, TC, HDL, ALB, ALT, GGT, 185 PLT, hypertension, diabetes, NAFLD as well as advanced liver fibrosis (p < 0.05). 186 These disparities heightened with increasing DII scores. 187 Table 2 provides a complete description of both lean and obese NAFLD. Among 188 the 2503 NAFLD patients, 86 were classified as lean NAFLD while 2417 as obese 189 NAFLD. Lean NAFLD patients tended to be of older age, with lower DBP, higher 190 HDL and GGT levels. Additionally, they exhibited a higher percentage of diabetes 191 (lean NAFLD vs obese NAFLD=48.80% vs 36.80%), and a lower percentage of 192 advanced liver fibrosis (lean NAFLD vs obese NAFLD=9.50% vs 26.80%). 193 Moreover, noticeable racial differences could be observed between lean and obese 194 NAFLD. Non-Hispanic Asians exhibited a higher risk of having lean NAFLD,

whereas Non-Hispanic Whites were more likely to suffer from obese NAFLD.

DII levels and NAFLD.

Table 3 displays the detailed information on the link between DII and NAFLD in multivariable logistic regression models, as previously discussed. NAFLD correlates positively with higher DII in all three models. The ORs of Q4 are 1.80 [1.54,2.10], 1.86 [1.57,2.19], 1.81 [1.48, 2.21], in the Model 1, Model 2, Model 3 separately. All *P-values* were below 0.05.

Using the same method, we evaluated the correlation between DII and advanced liver fibrosis. Overall, a notable negative relationship was observed between higher DII and advanced liver fibrosis in all three models, especially in the highest DII group (Model 1: OR=1.67 [1.28,2.17]; Model 2: OR=1.73 [1.28, 2.34]; Model 3: OR=1.46 [1.02,2.07]).

Subgroup analysis.

Table 4 summarizes the findings of the subgroup analysis. Higher DII was related with an increase likelihood of NAFLD in adults both below and above the age of 60 (Q4: age \leq 60, OR=1.80 [1.39,2.33];age>60, OR=1.88 [1.37, 2.60]). Generally, a higher DII elevated the risk of NAFLD in both genders, particularly in females (in group Q4: male: OR= 1.35 [1.02,1.80], female: 2.35 [1.74,3.17]). Therefore, our findings imply that women may be more vulnerable to dietary inflammation than men. Surprisingly, our findings revealed that among those without hypertension or diabetes, DII appeared to be more favorably related with risk of NAFLD.

The link between DII and lean/abdominal lean NAFLD.

Table 5 contains comprehensive information regarding the relationship between DII and lean/abdominal lean NAFLD across three logistic regression models. Model 1 remained unaltered, while Model 2 was modified for age and gender. Model 3 incorporated corrections for educational level, PIR, smoking habits, hypertension and diabetes based on the adjustments made in Model 2. Obviously, no statistical association could be observed between DII and lean/abdominal lean NAFLDs. However, a favorable correlation was identified between DII and obese/abdominal obese NAFLD (For BMI ≥25.00kg/m²2, Q4: model 3: OR= 1.56 [1.23,1.98]. For WHtR≥0.5, Q4: model 3: OR=1.48 [1.23,1.79]).

Discussion

Plenty of studies have proven the negative impact of pro-inflammatory diets on metabolic diseases, including hypertension [42], heart failure [43], cognitive impairment [39] and diabetes [41]. More importantly, dietary inflammation has been observed to be essential for the development of fatty liver disease [22, 44]. However, further investigation into the relationship of DII and NAFLD is warranted. On the one hand, excessive alcohol consumption should be excluded as it serves as both a significant contributor to dietary inflammation and another leading cause of fatty liver disease. Neither Ting Tian [22] nor Mohsen Mazidi [44] were able to definitively rule out the direct effect of excessive alcohol intake in their studies, due to their emphasis on a spectrum of fatty liver conditions. On the other hand, two subtypes of lean NAFLD have been identified, recently. Type 1 is more common in those with

abdominal obesity and insulin resistance (IR), while type 2 is more commonly observed in those with monogenic disorders [45, 46]. While adopting healthy eating habits is generally recommended for all forms of NAFLDs [47], clinicians encounter challenges in selecting appropriate clinical assessments for patients with varied weights and body types. Yet limited research has explored the effect of diet on NAFLD in individuals with varying body shapes. This knowledge gap served as inspiration for our study. The main conclusions of our investigation are as follow: Firstly, individuals adhering to a pro-inflammatory diet are more prone to NAFLD and severe liver fibrosis. Secondly, higher DII scores correlate with elevated BMI and WHtR. Moreover, the impact of dietary inflammation appears less pronounced in lean NAFLD compared to obese NAFLD. Finally, subgroup analysis indicates that female participants, and those without diabetes are particularly vulnerable to developing NAFLD when consuming a pro-inflammatory diet. The findings are consistent with earlier research revealing the effect of diet on chronic inflammation induction [13, 22, 48] and its role in NAFLD [49]. In general, diets with higher DII are associated with processed foods containing increased calories, fat, cholesterol and carbs. More importantly, the accumulation of subcutaneous and visceral fat is often observed in conjunction with poor dietary habits [40]. Initially, a pro-inflammatory diet stimulates adipose tissue to produce proinflammatory adipokines and cytokines, including TNF-α, IL-1, IL-6, etc. [50, 51]. These compounds cause persistent low-grade inflammation, a common etiology in

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both obesity and NAFLD. Subsequently, these pro-inflammatory mediators increase the production of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species [52], as well as induce immunological dysfunction by altering macrophages [53, 54], exacerbating liver damage. Moreover, high DII diets have been linked to insulin resistance (IR) [41, 55] and the modification of gut flora [56]. Additionally, liver tissue exposure to prolonged free fatty acids (FFA) [57], one of the primary causes of NAFLD [58], is more common in obese people. Thus, we suppose obesity, and particularly abdominal obesity, mediates the development of NAFLD driven by pro-inflammatory diets. Conversely, dietary factors seem to have a lesser impact on lean NAFLD. We hypothesize the importance of genetic and epigenetic factors in the onset and progression of lean NAFLD. Previous studies supported our assumption, demonstrating that certain genetic variations, such as the G variation in PNPLA3 and the T variant in TM6SF2 are more prevalent among lean NAFLD patients [59], potentially impacting genes associated to inflammation, oxidative stress and lipid metabolism [60-62]. In a word, obese individuals may benefit more from modifying their dietary habits to prevent NAFLD, whereas lean people may require more targeted pharmacological therapies focusing on genes and downstream pathways rather than relying solely on dietary interventions. These therapies may include the use of certain anti-sense oligonucleotides, RNA interference, and medicines regulating gut flora [63]. It is encouraging that various drugs aimed at these processes are currently undergoing clinical trials, including traditional Chinese therapies such as Huazhi Fugan Granules [64], Fufang Zhenzhu Tiaozhi formula (FTZ) [65] and

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In subgroup analyses, women were observed to have higher DII diets and be more vulnerable to the adverse effects of DII. This gender-related difference may be attributed to variations in dietary patterns and food choices. Besides, women are more likely to weight gain, especially around menopause, when estrogen levels decline, leading to increased fat storage [67]. Also, research suggests that females are less likely to be physically active and are more prone to overeat owing to lives and emotional factors [68, 69], highlighting the necessity of optimizing diet structure in women. Surprisingly, in this study, DII exhibits a stronger favorable correlation with NAFLD among participants without hypertension or diabetes. This phenomenon persists even after re-testing. One possible explanation is that those with hypertension and diabetes are already metabolically impaired, displaying decreased insulin sensitivity. Consequently, modifying the existing metabolic dysfunction remains challenging even with dietary improvements. Moreover, hypertension and diabetes serve as both causes and significant consequences of NAFLD, potentially leading to collinearity issues in data processing. This may also be due to predisposition and other lifestyle variables, such as varying levels of activity or quality of sleep and so on. To sum up, even individuals who have not been diagnosed with hypertension or diabetes should adopt a healthy diet pattern. This not only reduces the chance of acquiring hypertension and diabetes, but also mitigates the possibility of NAFLD.

Strengths and limitations

A major highlight of this study is its wide scope and thorough preparation,

conducted within an organized multistage and cross-sectional project supervised by the NCHS. Furthermore, the program's broad inclusiveness, which includes racial diversity, ensures a robust and representative sample, thereby enhancing the dependability and quality of our research. However, some restrictions should be acknowledged. First, diagnostic uncertainty might arise owing to lack of a clear strategy or imaging data in detecting NAFLD and advanced liver fibrosis. Second, the use of questionnaires to collect data on dietary components may introduce recollection bias. Finally, despite our best efforts to adjusting for confounding variables, the potential influence of certain macronutrient-related confounders cannot be entirely avoided. However, given our attempts to reduce the impact of extraneous variables, our current findings remain valid and hold significant importance in a clinical context.

Conclusion

and NAFLD, as well as its' progression to advanced liver fibrosis. Significantly, the impact of dietary inflammation on NAFLD is more pronounced in obese individuals compared to their lean counterparts. Furthermore, female participants, and those without a diagnose of hypertension and diabetes appear to be more vulnerable to the negative effects of a pro-inflammatory diet. The clinical significance or our study is multifaced: Firstly, obese persons may derive greater benefits from adopting healthier eating patterns. Conversely, lean individuals may require more targeted pharmacological therapies on genes and their downstream pathways in further studies.

327	Secondly, the study highlights the importance of tailored dietary recommendations for			
328	specific demographic groups. Female participants and those without diagnosed			
329	hypertension or diabetes should follow a more stringent healthy eating pattern.			
330	Acknowledgment			
331	We appreciate the efforts of the NHANES 2003-2018 individuals in data			
332	collecting and sharing.			
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