

**EFFECT OF A DAILY SNACK CONTAINING GREEN LEAFY VEGETABLES ON
WOMEN'S FATTY ACID STATUS– A RANDOMIZED CONTROLLED TRIAL IN
MUMBAI, INDIA**

Running title: Green leafy vegetables and fatty acid status

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Background and objectives:** There are few data on the fatty acid status of non-pregnant
3 Indian women. Our objective was to investigate the effect of a snack containing green leafy
4 vegetables (GLVs) on women's erythrocyte long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid status
5 (LCPUFA).

6 **Methods and Study Design:** Non-pregnant women (n=222) aged 14-35 years from Mumbai
7 slums were randomized to consume a snack containing GLVs, fruit and milk (treatment) or a
8 control snack containing foods of low micronutrient content such as potato and onion, daily
9 under observation. One treatment snack contained a mean (SD) of 54.1 (33.7) mg alpha-
10 linolenic acid (ALA) and one control snack contained 4.1 (3.4) mg ALA. Blood was
11 collected at baseline (0 weeks) and after 12 weeks of supplementation. Erythrocyte fatty acids
12 were analyzed using gas chromatography and expressed as g/100g fatty acids. Plasma
13 malondialdehyde, homocysteine, and erythrocyte superoxide dismutase and glutathione
14 peroxidase were measured. The effect of the treatment on 12 week LCPUFA was assessed
15 using ANCOVA models.

16 **Results:** Median (IQR) erythrocyte DHA in the treatment group increased from 1.50 (1.11,
17 2.03) at baseline to 1.86g/100g (1.50, 2.43) ($p<0.001$) at 12 weeks, and fell in controls from
18 1.78 (1.37, 2.32) to 1.60 (1.32, 2.04) ($p<0.001$). The total n-3 fatty acids increased in the
19 treatment group. There was no effect on malondialdehyde and antioxidant enzyme levels.
20 Plasma Hcy at 0 and 12 weeks was inversely associated with erythrocyte DHA at 12 weeks.

21 **Conclusion:** Daily consumption of a snack containing GLV improved women's erythrocyte
22 DHA levels without increasing oxidative stress.

23 **Keywords:** Alpha-linolenic acid; erythrocyte; docosahexaenoic acid; green leafy vegetables;

24 intervention study

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41 **Introduction**

42 Alpha linolenic acid (ALA; 18:3n-3) is obtained from flaxseed oil, nuts, pulses and green
43 leafy vegetables (GLV)¹ and is the ‘parent’ essential n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid which is
44 metabolized to EPA (20:5n-3) and DHA (22:6n-3). DHA is a structural and functional
45 component of the eye and central nervous system cell membranes.^{2, 3} The DHA status of the
46 mother during pregnancy is positively associated with length of gestation, birth weight, and
47 visual and cognitive development of the child.⁴⁻⁶ DHA status in pregnancy also reflects
48 metabolic adaptations to DHA synthesis.⁷ The natural dietary source of DHA is oily fish.¹
49 Vegetarians are reliant on conversion of ALA in plant-based foods to DHA. There is debate
50 about the extent to which this conversion can meet DHA requirements.^{8, 9} In India, many
51 people are vegetarian or have low fish intakes for cultural, availability and/or economic
52 reasons. There have been no randomized studies examining the effect of a dietary supplement
53 containing GLV on DHA status. Although increasing the dietary intake of n-3 long chain
54 polyunsaturated fatty acid (n-3 LCPUFA) is considered an effective preventive strategy, there
55 are concerns that long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid (LCPUFA) rich diet may lead to an
56 increase in lipid peroxidation.¹⁰ Several studies have shown a “paradoxical” role of DHA,
57 demonstrating both pro-oxidant and antioxidant activities.¹¹⁻¹³ Studies also demonstrate that
58 n-3 fatty acids enhance the activity and expression of antioxidant enzymes, such as
59 glutathione peroxidase (GPx), superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase.^{14, 15} Further, there is
60 evidence that DHA is linked with the 1-Carbon cycle and a deficiency of micronutrients
61 (folic acid, vitamin B₁₂) can influence LCPUFA status.¹⁶ Studies in humans have reported an
62 inverse association between plasma and serum DHA status and homocysteine (Hcy)
63 concentrations.^{17, 18} Human studies have also linked higher Hcy levels to an increase in
64 oxidative stress.¹⁹

65

66 In our recent trial (The Mumbai Maternal Nutrition Project (MMNP)) women in slums were
67 randomized to consume a daily snack containing GLV, fruit and milk or a control snack with
68 foods of low micronutrient content before conception and throughout pregnancy.²⁰ The
69 primary outcome of the trial was birth weight and there was a positive effect of the
70 intervention among women with a normal to high BMI. The treatment snack was made using
71 GLV, fruit and milk along with flour and mixed spices. The ALA content of GLV is
72 approximately 250mg/100g food. Women consumed the snack six times in a week; therefore
73 it is possible that the increased birth weight observed was related to improved maternal DHA
74 status due to conversion of ALA to DHA. It was not feasible to measure pre-and post-
75 supplementation blood nutrient levels in the MMNP as this may have discouraged women
76 from participating.

77

78 The primary objective of the current study was to assess the effect of the intervention
79 snack on erythrocyte LCPUFAon non-pregnant women residing in a nearby slum area.
80 Secondary objectives were to: 1) report baseline fatty acid status in this population; and 2)
81 assess whether the snacks affected MDA concentrations and antioxidant enzyme activity and
82 3) study associations between Hcy and erythrocyte fatty acid DHA

83

84 **Materials and methods**

85 The present study was conducted from October 2009 to March 2010 and was an extension to
86 the larger trial, the MMNP (ISRCTN No 62811278) which ran from January 2006 to May
87 2012. The extension study was conducted in a separate group of non-pregnant women living
88 in a similar slum community (Shivaji Nagar) approximately 15 km from the MMNP study
89 area. The extension study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the
90 Declaration of Helsinki and all procedures involving human subjects were approved by the
91 Institutional ethics committee of Grant Medical College and Sir JJ Group of Hospitals,
92 Mumbai.

93

94 *Subjects and setting:* Women were eligible for the study if they were 14-35 years of age, non-
95 pregnant and not exclusively breast-feeding at the time of enrolment (based on self-report).
96 Migration rates are high in this community and women were asked to enrol only if they
97 intended to remain in the study area for at least 3 months. Women were invited by health
98 workers to attend community meetings where the study was explained by the research team.
99 Informed written consent was obtained from all eligible women who wished to participate
100 (n=222) and patient anonymity was preserved

101 Height at baseline was measured to the nearest mm using a portable stadiometer
102 (Microtoise, UK) and weight to the nearest 100g using electronic scales (Salter, UK).

103 Demographic and lifestyle data (age, religion, education level, occupation, tobacco use, and
104 alcohol consumption) were collected by questionnaire. Socio-economic status was assessed
105 using the Standard of Living Index (SLI), based on housing type, utilities and household
106 possessions; a higher score indicates higher socio-economic status.²¹

107

108 *Dietary assessment:* A 238-item FFQ developed for this population,²² with a reference period
109 of the previous 7 days, was administered by a trained interviewer and intake frequency scores
110 were calculated. For example, an item consumed once a week had a score of 1 while items
111 consumed once daily had a score of 7. FFQ data were collected to estimate habitual
112 frequency of intake of foods including: GLV; fruit; milk; meat; fish; eggs; pulses and
113 legumes; fried foods; nuts, oils & oilseeds. In order to determine whether there were
114 differences in ALA intake between groups pre- and post-intervention we created a crude
115 score in which we summed the frequencies of consumption of ALA-rich foods defined as
116 containing ≥ 0.15 g/100g ALA. These foods included GLV, pulses, legumes, nuts, oils &
117 oilseeds.²³⁻²⁵ We compared the change in this crude score over time between the two groups.

118

119 *Sample collection and processing:* A non-fasted 10ml venous blood sample was collected in
120 EDTA tube and centrifuged within 30 minutes of collection at 2000 rpm for 35 min to
121 separate the plasma and erythrocytes. Non-fasted blood samples were collected since reports
122 indicate that there is no difference in the fatty acids between the fasting and non-fasting
123 state.^{26,27} After separating the plasma, the erythrocyte fraction was washed thrice with normal
124 saline and the erythrocytes were transferred into vials, which were kept on dry ice for up to 8
125 hours before storage in a -80°C freezer.

126

127 The women were randomized, stratified by age (3 groups) and BMI (3 groups), into the
128 treatment or control group, using a block-randomization program in STATA (StataCorp,
129 Texas). Height and weight measurements, FFQ and blood sampling were repeated after 12
130 weeks of supplementation.

131

132 *Intervention:* The intervention was a cooked snack made from locally available food
133 ingredients.²² The treatment snacks contained approximately 25g fresh GLV (e.g. spinach,
134 colocasia, coriander, fenugreek leaves), 4g dried fruit (e.g. figs, dates, raisins) and 12g whole
135 milk powder. The control snacks contained foods of lower micronutrient content such as
136 potato and onion. All snacks were prepared with binding ingredients such as wheat, chickpea
137 and maize flour and added spices. They were fried in sunflower oil except for one recipe in
138 each group which was not cooked. The active ingredients in the intervention snacks were
139 GLV, fruit and milk. The mean total weight of one treatment snack was 65g whereas the
140 mean total weight of the control snack was 36g. Because of the differences in ingredients,
141 despite our best efforts, it was not possible to produce treatment and control snacks that were
142 identical in terms of weight and energy. The differences in the ingredients meant that
143 treatment snacks (160 kcal) had on average a higher energy content than control snacks (90
144 kcal). Several varieties of the treatment (n=18) and control snacks (n=19) were used, to
145 prevent monotony for the women (Supplementary Table 1). The snacks were prepared and
146 cooked fresh each day in the MMNP study kitchen, and transported to the study area, where
147 they were provided to the women at centres close to their homes between 3:00pm and
148 6:00pm, Monday to Saturday. Snack consumption was observed and recorded (1= full; 0.5=
149 \geq half; 0= <half). Compliance was defined as the proportion of snacks consumed out of the 72
150 provided over the 12 wk period. Blinding was not feasible in this study as the treatment and
151 control snacks obviously contained different foods. However, in order to provide some
152 degree of allocation concealment, each arm of the intervention was divided into 2 groups to
153 give a total of four sub-groups each with its own set of recipes. Women were issued with
154 color-coded identity cards corresponding to color-coded packaging for the snacks. The two
155 treatment groups and the two control groups were merged for data analysis. Data and blood

156 were collected in study centres within the slum community for the convenience of the
157 women. The project staff who collected data were not aware of the snack composition.

158 *Biochemical investigations:* All biochemical analyses took place in a laboratory away from
159 the subject recruitment site and technicians were blinded to treatment group.

160 *Erythrocyte fatty acids analysis:* Analyses took place within 6-8 months of blood collection.
161 The procedure was modified from Manku et al.²⁸ Briefly 200µl of the stored erythrocytes
162 were directly pipetted into a glass esterification tube and trans-esterification of the total fatty
163 acids was performed using hydrochloric acid-methanol. Methyl esters were separated using a
164 Perkin Elmer gas chromatograph (SP 2330, 30m capillary Supelco column, Perkin Elmer,
165 Shelton, CT, USA). Helium was used as the carrier gas at 1mL/min. The oven temperature
166 was held at 150°C for 10 min, programmed to rise from 150 to 220°C at 10°C/min, and then
167 held at 220°C for 10 min. The detector temperature was 275°C and the injector temperature
168 was 240°C. Integration of peak areas was done manually and the peaks were identified by
169 comparison with relative retention time of standard fatty acid methyl esters (Sigma-Aldrich).
170 Fatty acids were expressed as g per 100g fatty acid, i.e. as percentages of total fatty acids
171 measured.

172 *Laboratory analysis of fatty acids in the snacks:* We measured fatty acids in the treatment and
173 control snacks. Samples of the snacks were homogenized, moisture was removed by drying
174 in an oven at 100°C to a constant weight, and finally the samples were sealed in polythene
175 bags. Lipids were extracted using the Folch method,²⁹ after which the analytic procedure was
176 the same as for erythrocyte fatty acids.

177 *Absolute ALA content in the snacks:* Samples of the snacks were homogenized, moisture was
178 removed by drying in an oven at 100°C to a constant weight, and the samples were sealed in
179 polythene bags. A known concentration of internal standard was added to 100mg snack, and
180 lipids were extracted using the Folch method²⁹ using chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v) mix
181 solution. Due to presence of polar compounds, fatty acids dissolved better in chloroform
182 compared to hexane; hence chloroform was used. The extract was washed with NaCl solution
183 (0.58%), dried under argon, and then the extract was taken up to 300µl chloroform/methanol.
184 For methyl ester synthesis 100 µl of the extract from 300µl chloroform/methanol was taken
185 in an esterification tube and 1.5 ml methanolic HCl (3 N) was added. The tubes were closed,
186 shaken for 30 seconds, and heated to 85° C for 45 min. Samples were cooled to room
187 temperature. 1 ml hexane was added for FAME extraction. After centrifugation at 900 * g for
188 5 min the upper hexane phase was transferred into a further glass tube. The extracts were
189 taken to dryness under argon gas at room temperature, and taken up in 50 µl chloroform.
190 Methyl esters were separated using a Perkin Elmer gas chromatograph (SP 2330, 30m
191 capillary Supelco column, Perkin Elmer, Shelton, CT, USA). Helium was used as the carrier
192 gas at 1mL/min. The oven temperature was held at 150°C for 10 min, programmed to rise
193 from 150 to 220°C at 10°C/min, and then held at 220°C for 10 min. The detector temperature
194 was 275°C and the injector temperature was 240°C. Peak area of ALA and peak area of
195 internal standard in the snacks, were recorded.

196

197 The absolute ALA concentration³⁰ was calculated by dividing the area of the internal
198 standard by the amount of internal standard added, and then dividing the area of each fatty
199 acid by this result to obtain the absolute concentration of each fatty acid within the amount
200 used.

201

202 *Analysis of plasma malondialdehyde (MDA):* Plasma MDA concentrations were estimated
203 using the Oxis kit (MDA-586, Oxis International, Foster City, CA, USA). Briefly,
204 thiobarbituric acid reacts with MDA to form a pink solution and the absorbance was
205 measured at 586 nm. Tetramethoxypropane was used as a standard. MDA concentration was
206 expressed as $\mu\text{mol/ml}$.

207

208 *Analysis of Plasma Hcy:* Total plasma Hcy was measured by fluorescence polarization
209 immunoassay (FPIA) using Abbott homocysteine kits on an Abbott AxSYM system (Abbott
210 Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL 60064 USA).³¹ The AxSYM Hcy assay is based on the FPIA
211 technology. Bound Hcy (oxidized form) is reduced to free Hcy, which is enzymatically
212 converted to S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine (SAH). SAH and labelled fluorescein tracer
213 compete for the sites on the monoclonal antibody molecule. The intensity of the polarized
214 fluorescent light was measured by the FPIA optical assembly.

215 *Analysis of antioxidant enzymes:* Antioxidant enzyme (SOD and GPx) activity was estimated
216 using the erythrocyte lysates. The erythrocyte pellet was washed and re-suspended in 4
217 packed cell volumes of ice cold deionised water and the tubes were kept on ice for 10
218 minutes. Further, these lysates were diluted with sample diluent and assayed within one hour.
219 The SOD assay was performed using the Cayman's kit (Catalog Number 706002). It utilizes
220 a tetrazolium salt for the detection of superoxide radicals which are generated by xanthine
221 oxidase and hypoxanthine. One unit of SOD is defined as the amount of enzyme required to
222 exhibit 50% dismutation of the superoxide radical. The reaction was initiated by adding a
223 radical detector and the colour change was measured between 440 - 460nm
224 spectrophotometrically using an ELISA plate reader. SOD activity was expressed as U/ml.

225

226 The GPx assay is an indirect measure of the activity of cellular-GPx. The method uses a
227 colorimetric assay (GPx-340™: Oxis Research International; Bioxytech®). Oxidized
228 glutathione (GSSG) produced upon reduction of organic peroxide by cellular-GPx was
229 recycled to its reduced state by the enzyme glutathione reductase. The oxidation of
230 nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate was accompanied by a decrease in absorbance
231 at 340nm, (A340) providing a spectrophotometric means for monitoring GPx enzyme
232 activity. The enzyme reaction was initiated by adding the substrate, tertbutyl hydroperoxide
233 and the absorbance was recorded at 340nm. The rate of decrease in the A340 was directly
234 proportional to the GPx activity in the sample. GPx activity was expressed as mU/ml.

235

236 *Statistical analysis:* Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS software (version 21,
237 Chicago, IL). Data are presented as mean and standard deviation (SD) values for normally
238 distributed variables and median and inter quartile range (IQR) for skewed variables. Before
239 making between-group comparisons, skewed variables were normalized by log
240 transformation (age, weight, BMI, baseline fatty acids). The level of statistical significance
241 was considered to be $p < 0.05$. Differences in subject characteristics between the treatment and
242 control groups were determined using t tests for continuous variables and chi-squared tests
243 for categorical variables. The mean (95% CI) change in concentrations from baseline to 12
244 wk (δ) was calculated (12 wk value – baseline value) within the treatment group (δ^t) and
245 within the control group (δ^c). We used ANCOVA models to assess the effect of group
246 allocation on 12 wk fatty acid status, MDA, SOD and GPx. Initially we added only baseline
247 (0 wk) concentration or activity as a covariate. We then ran a further model adding age, BMI,
248 standard of living index, compliance with supplementation and 12 wk frequency of intake of
249 GLV and fish as covariates. In the MMNP there was a greater effect of the intervention in
250 women of higher BMI. We therefore tested for an interaction between allocation group and

251 BMI as a continuous variable. The associations between plasma Hcy concentration at 0 wk
252 and 12 wk with DHA at 0 wk and 12 wk were assessed using linear regression.

253

254 *Power calculations:* When designing the study we were unable to find any previous studies
255 from which to specifically estimate an effect size for fatty acids from our intervention. Along
256 with assessing the effect of the treatment snacks on changes in fatty acid status, we also
257 studied the effects on several micronutrients (please see Kehoe S et al; British Journal of
258 Nutrition 2015, 113, 813–821). Retinol was the only nutrient for which we had good quality
259 data on prevalence of deficiency in India at the time of designing the study, so we based our
260 power calculations on this particular micronutrient. On that basis 82 subjects were required in
261 each group to detect a difference in the proportion of vitamin A deficiency (defined as serum
262 retinol < 0.7 $\mu\text{mol/l}$) of the order of 35% in the control group v. 10% in the treatment group at
263 90% power and at the 0.05 significance level.³² We conducted a post hoc calculation for fatty
264 acids and found that our study had 80% power to detect a difference of 0.16 units of DHA
265 (g/100g fatty acid) between the 0-12 week changes in control and treatment groups at the
266 0.05 significance level.

267 **Results**

268 *Analysis sample:* A total of 222 women were eligible and agreed to participate in the study.
269 Of these, 114 were randomized to the control and 108 to the treatment group (Figure 1). The
270 analysis sample comprised 167 women (control: 85; treatment: 82) for whom blood samples
271 were available at both baseline and after 12 wk supplementation. There were no significant
272 differences in baseline characteristics between the women who were included in the final
273 analysis sample (n=167) and those who were not (n=55), except for age (Table 1). The
274 women who dropped out were older than those who remained (22 years vs. 20 years,
275 respectively; p=0.033).

276

277 *Subject characteristics:* Over half of the women were underweight (BMI<18.5kg/m²). Three
278 quarters of them had completed secondary education and two thirds were not doing any paid
279 work. About 17% of the women consumed tobacco by chewing, either in the form of
280 ‘meisheri’ (tooth powder) or recreationally along with betel leaves. Approximately 15% of
281 the women lived in housing made from plastic sheeting, sticks, and textiles. The remainder
282 had houses with solid walls and floors made from cement, with corrugated metal roofs. Three
283 quarters of houses consisted of only one room. Most (>80%) women used a public pit toilet.
284 There were no significant differences between the treatment and control groups with regard
285 to socio-demographic characteristics (Supplementary Table 2). Compliance was 95.1% in the
286 treatment group and 96.5% among controls.

287 *Dietary intakes:* These data represent the women’s habitual diet and do not include the
288 intervention. The frequency of dietary intakes in the week prior to registration did not differ
289 between groups (Table 2). Frequencies of intake of GLV, fruit, milk, meat, egg, and fish were
290 low compared with Indian recommendations.²³ Almost half the women ate no fish. The

291 median (IQR) frequency of intakes of green leafy vegetables, pulses and legumes increased in
292 both the treatment and control groups across the 12 wk study; there were no significant
293 differences between groups in the change of intakes of these or total ALA-rich foods.

294 *Fatty acid content of the snacks:* ALA was the only n-3 fatty acid, and LA the only n-6 fatty
295 acid, present in the snacks (Table 3). The relative amounts of ALA were higher in the
296 treatment than in the control snacks, while LA was higher in the control snacks. The relative
297 amounts of all saturated fatty acids except SA were higher in the treatment than in the control
298 snacks. There were no significant differences in relative amounts of monounsaturated fatty
299 acids between the control and treatment snacks except for MOA, which was higher in the
300 treatment snacks.

301

302 *Absolute ALA content of the snacks:* The mean (SD) absolute amount of ALA in the
303 treatment group was 54.1 (33.7) mg per snack and only 4.1 (3.4) mg per control snack.

304

305 *Erythrocyte fatty acids:* The ANCOVA statistics presented in Table 4 show that there was no
306 effect of group allocation on 12 wk relative amounts of ALA or EPA when controlled for
307 baseline amounts. DHA increased over the study period in the treatment group and decreased
308 in the control group. There was a significant effect of the treatment snacks on 12 wk DHA
309 and total n-3 fatty acids (Table 4). DHA increased in the treatment group relative to the
310 control group by 0.45mg/100g which was approximately 25% of the median baseline values.
311 This effect remained significant in the fully adjusted model (Table 5). There was no
312 significant interaction between group allocation and women's BMI.

313 LA increased in both the treatment and control groups between baseline and 12 wk, and there
314 was a borderline significant effect of group allocation, with a greater effect in the treatment

315 group, on 12 wk values when controlled for baseline values (Table 4). The treatment snacks
316 did not have an effect on the proportions of other n-6 fatty acids measured. The treatment
317 snack was associated with a decreased n-6 to n-3 fatty acid ratio at 12 wk. There were no
318 changes in the other saturated or monounsaturated fatty acids or their totals in either group,
319 nor any differences between groups.

320 *Plasma malondialdehyde*: MDA concentrations decreased in both groups without significant
321 differences between the groups (Table 4).

322 *Erythrocyte antioxidant enzymes*: SOD activity decreased, whereas GPx activity increased, in
323 both groups, without significant differences between the groups for either enzyme (Table 4).

324 *Hcy concentrations and association between Hcy and DHA*: Baseline and 12 wk median
325 (IQR) plasma Hcy level were 11.47 (9.06, 14.19) and 10.55 (8.73, 13.11) ($\mu\text{mol/L}$)
326 respectively in the total group. In the treatment and control groups, these values were 11.34
327 (8.78, 14.56) and 11.57 (9.38, 14.11) respectively at baseline and 10.55 (8.62, 13.22) 10.62
328 (8.85, 13.27) respectively after 12 wk. There was no effect of supplementation on plasma Hcy
329 levels.

330

331 Among all subjects there was a borderline significant inverse association between baseline
332 Hcy ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) and 12 wk DHA (mg/100g) (B= -0.22; 95% CI -0.47, 0.03; p=0.078). We
333 observed a significant negative association between 12 wk plasma Hcy ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) and 12 wk
334 erythrocyte DHA (mg/100g) (B= -0.26; 95% CI -0.51,-0.02; p= 0.037).

335

336 **Discussion**

337 This is the first study to report an increase in total n-3 fatty acids due to a food-based
338 intervention among women of reproductive age. The intervention aimed to increase intakes of
339 green leafy vegetables, fruit and milk rather than test the effect of a specific nutrient or fatty
340 acid.

341

342 The baseline proportions of erythrocyte n-3 fatty acids, n-6 fatty acids, total polyunsaturated
343 and monounsaturated fatty acids in our population were lower than in women of reproductive
344 age in the USA ³³ and the UK, ³⁴ while the proportion of saturated fatty acids was higher.

345

346 *Dietary intakes of n-3 source foods in the Indian population:* Dietary intakes of n-3 foods are
347 low among Indian women ³⁵ compared with recommendations ³⁶ and with the UK
348 population.³⁷ Oily fish is a rich source of DHA. The DHA content of the fish commonly
349 consumed by Indians is between 6.3% and 28.5% of total fatty acids.^{38, 39} Indian women may
350 therefore be more reliant on the conversion of ALA in plant-based foods to DHA. GLV are
351 widely available, relatively inexpensive ⁴⁰ and acceptable to the majority, compared with
352 other sources such as flaxseed and walnuts. Nevertheless, national surveys and research
353 studies have shown that reported intakes of GLV are low ^{41, 42} and more so among slum
354 dwellers than the general population.^{43, 44} In another slum community in Mumbai, we showed
355 that a quarter of women ate GLV less than once every alternate day, and three quarters ate
356 them less than once a day.⁴²

357

358 *Interventions to increase DHA status:* A number of intervention studies in humans have
359 examined the effect of ALA in plant-based preparations (seeds, seed oil or margarine) on
360 DHA status and reports are inconsistent. Some studies report no increase in blood levels of

361 DHA,⁴⁵⁻⁴⁸ while two studies found an increase in DHA, of the order of 2-14% among adults
362 ^{49, 50} and another study reported a 38% increase in infants.⁵¹ Hypercholesterolemic patients in
363 a Japanese study consumed 320g per day of green vegetable juice made from radish leaves,
364 spinach, and lettuce for 3 weeks which resulted in an increase in serum DHA from 2.1% to
365 4.4%.⁴⁹ Substitution of soyabean oil with perilla oil, providing a dose of 3g of ALA per day,
366 for 10 months increased serum DHA levels by 21% of baseline values from 5.3mg/100g to
367 6.4mg/100g.⁵⁰ Fish oils have been shown to increase DHA levels by over 60%^{52, 53} as the
368 amount of EPA or DHA from fish oils ranged from 600mg to 6g/day.

369

370 The varying results from other plant-based intervention studies, and the generally small
371 changes in DHA that they achieved, have led to controversy over whether conversion of ALA
372 from plant sources in humans can meet DHA requirements.^{54, 55} It is important to note that
373 most of this evidence is from studies in omnivorous populations. In populations with poor
374 fatty acid status due to low intakes of animal-source foods, it is possible that plant sources of
375 ALA are more readily converted to DHA.^{49, 50, 56}

376 An observational study in Europe⁵⁶ collected dietary intake data and measured plasma
377 phospholipid n-3 fatty acids among 14,422 men and women aged 39–78 y. Based on these
378 data, conversion between dietary ALA and circulating long-chain n-3 PUFAs (EPA, DPA
379 and DHA) was estimated and compared between fish-eaters and non-fish-eaters. The total
380 intake of n-3 fatty acids was 57-80% lower among non-fish eaters but differences in
381 circulating long chain n-3 PUFAs were considerably smaller. The authors speculated that this
382 was because the product: precursor ratio, i.e. (EPA+DPA+DHA)] / ALA, was greater in non-
383 fish-eaters indicating more efficient conversion of ALA to long chain n-3 PUFAs in this
384 group.

385 The higher post-intervention erythrocyte DHA concentration in our study may also be
386 attributed to other ingredients present in the snack. Turmeric is a common staple spice in all
387 the curries and vegetables cooked in India. A recent study in animals found that curcumin,
388 found in turmeric, improved the conversion of ALA to DHA.⁵⁷

389 Contradictory results have been reported regarding dietary flavonoids (anthocyanins).^{58, 59} An
390 animal study⁵⁸ reported an increase in DHA after consumption of dietary flavonoids by
391 increasing the activation of EPA and DHA biosynthesis from ALA; whereas a recent study in
392 rodent and human cells indicated that anthocyanin intake has little effect on omega 3 fatty
393 acid status in mammals.⁵⁹

394

395 In the present study we observed a small increase in the proportion of erythrocyte DHA of
396 approximately 25% of baseline values in the treatment group compared with the control
397 group, without increasing oxidative stress. Since the ALA content of the treatment snacks
398 was much lower than that expected to increase DHA, and since intermediate fatty acids such
399 as EPA did not change, it may be that the increased DHA in the treatment group was not a
400 reflection of increased conversion, but rather reduced degradation. Higher DHA levels were
401 associated with lower plasma homocysteine concentrations. Although homocysteine
402 concentrations did not differ between allocation groups, we speculate that low homocysteine
403 may be protective of DHA itself and/or homocysteine status may be a marker for another
404 nutrient or metabolite that is protective of DHA. There is evidence that Hcy is associated with
405 poor DHA preservation, and many human studies have reported inverse associations between
406 DHA and Hcy.^{17, 18}

407

408 There were no effects of our supplement on the levels of MDA or on the activity of anti-
409 oxidant enzymes SOD and GPx. Being a food based intervention, the lack of effect on MDA

410 or anti-oxidant enzymes may be attributed to micronutrients present in the treatment snack
411 which might have prevented lipid peroxidation. We have previously reported that the snack
412 increased plasma beta-carotene levels,³² which may have prevented oxidative stress.

413

414 *Strengths and limitations:* Strengths of the present study were its randomized design, a
415 sustained intervention over three months with high rates of compliance, and measurement of
416 a large range of fatty acids, Hcy as well as markers of oxidative stress and antioxidant
417 enzyme activity. The subjects started and completed the intervention at the same time, thus
418 creating an internal control for seasonal changes in food intakes. A food based intervention
419 was used because: a) people eat food and not tablets/ capsules so it was not a major change in
420 their usual routine/lifestyle, b) it was thought that compliance would be better in a food based
421 intervention than with tablets, and c) the snacks comprised locally sourced foods which are
422 inexpensive, available, and culturally acceptable, so the intervention has potential for public
423 health scalability/sustainability and provides income and employment to local people. The
424 nature of food based interventions is that we cannot know which components are beneficial,
425 and blinding is not possible. The lack of blinding is unlikely to have affected the laboratory
426 measurements, but it may have influenced the women's dietary behaviour in ways that
427 affected their fatty acid status. However, GLV intakes increased to a similar degree in both
428 groups over the study period. We speculate that this was due to seasonal changes in
429 availability. We have previously reported that in a separate group of women living in
430 Mumbai, intakes of fruit and GLV vary by season.⁴² GLV tend to become cheaper and more
431 abundant during the months towards the end of our study.

432 The control snacks contained fewer calories and less protein than the treatment snacks. This
433 was because the intervention was an increase in daily intakes of GLV, fruit and milk. The
434 control snacks represented the calories provided in the binding ingredients of the treatment

435 snacks. However, this small difference in energy intake may have caused the observed
436 differences in fatty acids. .

437 The precise amount of ALA in the women's diet would have been desirable in order to ensure
438 that there was no difference between groups at baseline. Our crude score did not suggest a
439 difference between groups in the change in ALA content of the habitual diet over the study
440 period.

441 **Conclusion**

442 There was an increase in erythrocyte DHA levels as a result of consuming the treatment
443 snack. However, this increase was small and may not be explained only by the ALA content
444 of the snack. It is likely that other constituents in the treatment snack may have also
445 influenced DHA levels. Therefore we suggest a need to conduct further research to better
446 understand this result. The enzymes involved in the fatty acid biosynthesis pathway could be
447 examined in the future to understand the biosynthesis of long chain PUFA, especially DHA.

448

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452

453 No potential conflicts of interest relevant to this article are reported

454

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458

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Table 1: Baseline characteristics of study subjects

	Completed (n=167)	Withdrawn(n=55)	p*
	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	
Age (years)	20 (17, 26)	22 (20, 29)	0.033
Weight (kg)	40.7 (36.4, 46.6)	40.5 (36.1, 47.1)	0.346
Height [†] (cm)	149.4 (5.8)	150.1 (5.0)	0.389
BMI (kg/m ²)	18.42 (16.05, 20.38)	18.69 (16.76, 20.72)	0.455
Monthly Income (Rs)	4000 (3000, 5000)	4000 (3000, 5000)	0.478
Systolic Blood Pressure (mmHg) [†]	107.5 (11.2)	104.6 (13.5)	0.114
Diastolic Blood Pressure (mmHg) [†]	68.6 (8.4)	66.5 (8.2)	0.109
Standard of Living Index	23 (18, 27)	21 (16, 26)	0.122
	n (%)	n (%)	
Parity [‡]			0.085
0	95 (56.9)	21 (38.2)	
1	11 (6.6)	7 (12.7)	
2	19 (11.4)	7 (12.7)	
≥3	42 (25.1)	20 (36.4)	
Education [‡]			0.209
Graduate	5 (3.0)	2 (3.6)	
Higher Secondary	9 (5.4)	2 (3.6)	
Secondary	124 (74.3)	34 (61.8)	
Primary	12 (7.2)	4 (7.3)	
Any Other	4 (2.4)	2 (3.6)	
Illiterate	13 (7.8)	11 (20.0)	
Occupation [‡]			0.386
Professional	4 (2.4)	1 (1.8)	
Graduate- semi professional	0 (0.0)	1 (1.8)	
Self employed	5 (3.0)	1 (1.8)	
Skilled worker	10 (6.0)	3 (5.5)	
Semi-skilled	7 (4.2)	1 (1.8)	
Unskilled worker	29 (17.4)	15 (27.3)	
Not working	112 (67.1)	33 (60.0)	
Tobacco Consumption [‡]			0.188
Yes	29 (17.4)	14 (25.5)	
No	138 (82.6)	41 (74.5)	

[†] Mean (SD) or [‡] N (%) presented instead of median (IQR) for normally distributed or categorical variables respectively. *T test and Chi-square tests for differences between women who completed the study and those who withdrew.

Table 2: Median (IQR) frequency of habitual intake of foods per week excluding the intervention snacks

Foods	Control (N=85)		Treatment (N=82)		p*
	0 wk Median (IQR)	12 wk Median (IQR)	0 wk Median (IQR)	12 wk Median (IQR)	
ALA-rich foods					
Green leafy vegetables	1 (0, 2)	3 (1, 4)	1(0, 2)	2 (0, 3)	0.084
Pulses & Legumes	1 (1, 3)	2 (0,4)	1 (1,3)	1.5 (0, 3)	0.547
Nuts, Oils & Oilseeds	1 (0,14)	1 (0,5)	1 (0,7)	0 (0, 1)	0.807
Total intake of ALA-rich foods	5 (2, 15)	7 (4, 12)	4 (2,11)	4 (2,10)	0.703
Other foods					
Fruits	1 (0, 2)	2 (1,6)	1 (0,2)	3 (1,6)	0.596
Milk & Milk Products	1 (0, 2)	1 (0,3)	1 (0,2)	1 (0,3)	0.307
Meat	2 (1, 4)	2 (0,3)	2 (1,3)	2 (1,3)	0.597
Fish	0 (0, 1)	0 (0,1)	1 (0,1)	0 (0,1)	0.263
Egg	1 (0, 1)	1 (0,2)	1 (0,2)	1 (0,2)	0.977

*P values are from t tests comparing the change in intakes from 0 wk to 12 wk (12 wk frequency – 0 wk frequency) between allocation groups.

Table 3: Fatty acid content (g/100g total fatty acids measured) of the control and treatment snacks

Fatty acids	Control	Treatment	p*
	g/100g total fatty acids measured		
	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	
n-3 PUFA			
ALA	0.52 (0.44, 0.72)	2.12 (1.42, 3.42)	p<0.001
EPA	0	0	-
DHA	0	0	-
n-6 PUFA			
LA	62.6 (59.1, 63.7)	52.1 (49.4, 54.8)	0.016
DGLA	0	0	-
AA	0	0	-
DPA	0	0	-
GLA	0	0	-
Saturated Fatty Acids			
MA	0.22 (0.19,0.26)	1.47 (0.87, 2.03)	0.047
PA	7.7 (7.6, 8.2)	11.7 (10.4, 13.5)	0.001
SA	3.7 (3.6, 4.1)	4.6 (4.2, 5.1)	0.613
Total Saturated	11.7 (11.5, 13.2)	17.6 (15.2, 20.6)	0.007
MUFA			
MOA	0.01(0.01, 0.02)	0.13 (0.07, 0.21)	p<0.01
POA	0.10 (0.09, 0.12)	0.30 (0.22, 0.39)	0.922
OA	24.5(23.7, 26.3)	26.2 (24.9, 27.5)	0.642
NA	0	0	-
Total Monounsaturated	24.6 (23.8, 26.4)	26.7 (25.3, 28.0)	0.619
Total	99.8 (99.5, 99.8)	99.5 (99.2, 99.8)	0.910

*p relates to the difference between the control and treatment snacks assessed using t tests.

ALA=alpha linolenic acid (18:3n-3); EPA=eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3);

DHA=docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3); LA=linoleic acid (18:2n-6); GLA=gamma linolenic

acid (18:3n-6); DGLA=dihomo-gamma linolenic acid (20:3n-6); DPA=docosapentaenoic

acid (22:5n-6); AA=arachidonic acid (20:4n-6); MA=myristic acid (14:0); PA=palmitic acid

(16:0); SA=stearic acid (18:0); MUFA; mono-unsaturated fatty acid; MOA=myristoleic acid

(14:1n-5); POA=palmitoleic acid (16:1n-7); OA=oleic acid (18:1n-9); NA=nervonic acid
(24:1n-9).

Table 4 Median (IQR) erythrocyte fatty acids, antioxidant enzymes and plasma MDA at baseline and at 12 week of supplementation and the difference between groups in the change over the study period controlled for baseline status

Fatty acids (g/100g fatty acid)	Control		Treatment		$\delta^c - \delta^t$ Mean	Confidence lower bound, upper bound	p*
	0 week Median(IQR)	12 week Median (IQR)	0 week Median (IQR)	12 week Median (IQR)			
n-3 PUFA							
ALA	0.05 (0.04, 0.08)	0.05 (0.03, 0.09)	0.06 (0.04, 0.08)	0.06 (0.04, 0.09)	-0.01	-0.02, 0.01	0.270
EPA	0.25 (0.17, 0.41)	0.22 (0.16, 0.40)	0.24 (0.14, 0.32)	0.22 (0.16, 0.45)	-0.06	-0.18, 0.06	0.295
DHA	1.78 (1.37, 2.32)	1.60 (1.32, 2.04)	1.50 (1.11, 2.03)	1.86 (1.50, 2.43)	-0.45	-0.56, -0.34	<0.0001
Total n-3	2.3 (1.7, 2.8)	1.9 (1.6, 2.6)	1.8 (1.4, 2.6)	2.2 (1.8, 2.9)	-0.45	-0.62, -0.27	<0.0001
n-6 PUFA							
LA	9.4 (8.4, 10.3)	9.7 (8.8, 10.4)	9.8 (9.0, 11.2)	10.4 (9.5, 11.4)	-0.4	-0.7, 0.0	0.050
DGLA	1.16 (0.93, 1.47)	1.10 (0.98, 1.51)	1.19 (0.97, 1.51)	1.12 (1.00, 1.35)	-0.01	-0.84, 0.11	0.799
AA	12.9 (11.7, 14.1)	13.4 (12.0, 14.3)	12.9 (11.7, 14.0)	13.0 (11.7, 13.9)	0.27	-0.22, 0.75	0.283
DPA	0.55 (0.45, 0.76)	0.54 (0.40, 0.82)	0.55 (0.41, 0.76)	0.56 (0.41, 0.67)	-0.03	-0.05, 0.10	0.483
GLA	0.06 (0.04, 0.08)	0.06 (0.04, 0.08)	0.07 (0.04, 0.09)	0.06 (0.03, 0.08)	0.01	-0.01, 0.02	0.268
Total n-6	24.2 (22.3, 25.5)	24.9 (23.2, 26.2)	24.6 (23.5, 26.2)	24.8 (23.2, 27.0)	-0.2	-0.9, 0.5	0.558
n-6:n-3	10.9 (8.7, 14.6)	12.9 (9.4, 15.4)	13.4 (9.9, 17.9)	10.8 (8.7, 14.3)	3.2	2.3, 4.0	<0.0001
Saturated Fatty Acids							
MA	0.36 (0.24, 0.47)	0.35 (0.28, 0.44)	0.34 (0.24, 0.44)	0.33 (0.27, 0.41)	0.0	-0.05, 0.05	0.989
PA	28.8 (24.7, 31.9)	29.8 (25.7, 31.2)	28.5 (24.8, 31.6)	29.3 (27.0, 31.8)	-0.2	-1.2, 0.9	0.749
SA	16.4 (15.6, 17.4)	16.9 (15.7, 17.4)	16.2 (15.4, 17.1)	16.5 (15.7, 17.4)	0.1	-0.3, 0.5	0.567
Total saturated	46.1 (41.6, 49.0)	46.5 (43.1, 48.7)	45.7 (41.4, 48.8)	47.1 (43.6, 49.3)	-0.1	-1.3, 1.1	0.901
MUFA							
IOA	0.03 (0.01, 0.07)	0.03 (0.01, 0.07)	0.03 (0.02, 0.07)	0.02 (0.018, 0.06)	0.00	-0.01, 0.02	0.592
POA	0.42 (0.33, 0.56)	0.40 (0.35, 0.56)	0.42 (0.33, 0.59)	0.40 (0.31, 0.53)	0.01	-0.06, 0.09	0.723
OA	11.1 (10.6, 11.9)	10.8 (10.1, 11.7)	11.2 (10.5, 12.0)	10.3 (10.0, 11.1)	0.3	-0.2, 0.8	0.237
NA	2.2 (1.0, 3.0)	2.2 (0.9, 3.0)	2.2 (0.8, 2.9)	2.5 (0.7, 3.0)	-0.01	-0.34, 0.32	0.942
Total MUFA	14.0 (12.5, 15.1)	13.4 (12.7, 14.4)	13.9 (12.5, 15.0)	13.3 (11.7, 14.1)	0.30	-0.25, 0.86	0.286

Indicator of Oxidative Stress							
MDA (μmol/ml)	2.0 (1.2, 6.2)	1.3 (1.0, 1.9)	1.7 (1.2, 3.6)	1.3 (1.0, 1.9)	-0.40	-0.89, 0.09	0.106
SOD (U/ml)	2599 (1544, 3640)	1852 (1165, 3332)	2353 (1472, 3633)	1981 (1161, 2825)	-5	-576, 565	0.986
GPx (mU/ml)	137 (105, 173)	151 (123, 181)	127 (112, 150)	141 (116, 161)	4.9	-6.8, 16.0	0.429

δ^c , change in relative amounts in control group (12 week – baseline), δ^t change in relative amounts in treatment group (12 week – baseline). 95% confidence interval. *p relates to ANCOVA test assessing effect of treatment group on 12week concentrations with 0 week concentrations as a covariate. PUFA=polyunsaturated fatty acids; ALA=alpha linolenic acid (18:3n-3); EPA=eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3); DHA=docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3); LA=linoleic acid (18:2n-6); GLA=gamma linolenic acid (18:3n-6); DGLA=dihomo-gamma linolenic acid (20:3n-6); DPA=docosapentaenoic acid (22:5n-6); AA=arachidonic acid (20:4n-6); MA=myristic acid (14:0); PA=palmitic acid (16:0); SA=stearic acid (18:0); MUFA=monounsaturated fatty acids; MOA=myristoleic acid (14:1n-5); POA=palmitoleic acid (16:1n-7); OA=oleic acid (18:1n-9); NA=nervonic acid (24:1n-9). The n-6:n-3 fatty acid ratio=(LA, GLA, DGLA, DPA and AA)/(ALA, EPA and DHA).

MDA=malondialdehyde; SOD=superoxide dismutase; GPx=glutathione peroxidase. Values in bold type indicate statistically significant differences.

Table 5: Summary of ANCOVA model with 12 week DHA (%) as the outcome

Predictor Variable	P	B	Confidence interval	
			lower Bound	upper Bound
Treatment Group [†]	< 0.001	0.447	0.333	0.562
Baseline erythrocyte DHA (g/100g)	< 0.001	0.764	0.678	0.849
Age (years)	0.664	0.001	-0.011	0.011
BMI (kg/m ²)	0.977	0.003	-0.014	0.021
SLI score	0.805	0.001	-0.008	0.010
Compliance [†]	0.912	0.004	-0.066	0.074
Habitual GLV intake (12 week)	0.831	-0.003	-0.032	0.042
Fish Intake(12 weeks)	0.558	0.019	-0.046	0.084

[†] control Group =0, Treatment Group =1, BMI, Body Mass Index; SLI, Standard of Living

Index; GLV, green leafy vegetables. [†]Proportion of snacks consumed of those provided.

Figure 1: Participant flow during the study

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