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1 **Phenotypic factors influencing the variation in response of circulating cholesterol level**  
2 **to personalised dietary advice in the Food4me study.**

3

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33

34 Short title: Cholesterol response to dietary advice

35

36 ABSTRACT

37 Individual response to dietary interventions can be highly variable. The phenotypic  
38 characteristics of those who will respond positively to personalised dietary advice are largely  
39 unknown. The objective of this study was to compare the phenotypic profiles of differential  
40 responders to personalised dietary intervention, with a focus on total circulating cholesterol.  
41 Subjects from the Food4Me multi-centre study were classified as responders or non-  
42 responders to dietary advice based on the change in cholesterol level from baseline to month  
43 6, with lower and upper quartiles defined as the responder and non-responder groups,  
44 respectively. There were no significant differences between the demographic and  
45 anthropometric profiles of the groups. Furthermore, with the exception of alcohol, there was  
46 no significant difference in reported dietary intake, at baseline. However, there were marked  
47 differences in baseline fatty acid profiles. The responder group had significantly higher  
48 levels of stearic acid (18:0,  $p=0.034$ ) and lower levels of palmitic acid (16:0,  $p=0.009$ ). Total  
49 monounsaturated fatty acids ( $p=0.016$ ) and total polyunsaturated fatty acids ( $p=0.008$ ) also  
50 differed between the groups. In a stepwise logistic regression model, age, baseline total  
51 cholesterol, glucose, five fatty acids and alcohol intake were selected as factors that  
52 successfully discriminated responders from non-responders, with sensitivity of 82% and  
53 specificity of 83%. The successful delivery of personalised dietary advice may depend on our  
54 ability to identify phenotypes that are responsive. The results demonstrate the potential use of  
55 metabolic profiles in identifying response to an intervention and could play an important role  
56 in the development of precision nutrition.

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59

## 60 INTRODUCTION

61 At a population level, generic dietary advice is provided using a ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach  
62 based on requirements for population groups <sup>(1)</sup>, which ignores inter-individual differences ,  
63 and therefore nutrient requirements. In addition, individuals' responses to dietary  
64 interventions can be highly variable <sup>(2; 3; 4)</sup>. Demographic characteristics such as sex and age,  
65 and factors such as adiposity, physical activity, metabolic profile, and genetic factors  
66 contribute to this variation <sup>(5)</sup>. This phenomenon is well recognised in the medical field with a  
67 current emphasis on precision medicine <sup>(6)</sup>. Considering the reported variation in response to  
68 dietary interventions there is now an emerging recognition that this should be considered in  
69 development of personalised or precision nutrition. <sup>(7; 8)</sup>. Personalised nutrition, or dietary  
70 advice that has been tailored to an individual, offers the possibility of improving health and  
71 reducing risk of diet-related diseases <sup>(9)</sup>. Many studies suggest that tailored dietary advice is  
72 more effective than generic advice, promoting greater improvements in dietary behaviours  
73 and related health outcomes such as body weight <sup>(9; 10)</sup>. A recent meta-analysis reported that  
74 personalised interventions were more effective than non-personalised advice, with  
75 participants receiving the personalised intervention reducing body weight by 1.8 kg more on  
76 average than those receiving the non-personalised advice <sup>(9)</sup>. However, these studies have not  
77 taken individual variability into account and in the longterm the effectiveness of the  
78 personalised dietary advice will depend on the ability to tailor advice taking into account  
79 knowledge about an individual’s potential response to the intervention <sup>(11)</sup>.

80 The concept of using metabolic profiles to identify responders to dietary interventions is  
81 relatively new (Brennan, 2015). However, a number of examples exist in the literature  
82 demonstrating the potential of such an approach. O’Sullivan *et al.* (2011) used k-means  
83 cluster analysis to identify responders and non-responders to a vitamin D intervention <sup>(12)</sup>.  
84 van Bochove *et al.* (2012) applied k-means clustering to lipoprotein profiles and identified  
85 three clusters, two of which responded positively to fenofibrate <sup>(13)</sup>, while Elnenaei *et al.*  
86 (2011) identified responders and non-responders to vitamin D and Ca supplementation, based  
87 on a baseline metabolomic profile <sup>(14)</sup>. Metabolomic and transcriptomic profiles have also  
88 been used to discriminate between responders and non-responders to an n-3 PUFA  
89 supplementation <sup>(15)</sup>. The objective of this study is to investigate differences in the phenotype  
90 and in particular blood lipids of responders and non-responders to personalised nutrition, with  
91 a specific focus on changes in circulating cholesterol levels. Using data from the Food4Me  
92 personalised dietary intervention study, individuals with borderline high baseline total

93 cholesterol (> 5 mmol/L) were examined for factors that predict their response to the  
94 intervention.

95

## 96 MATERIALS AND METHODS

97 Subjects were participants in the Food4Me study, a 6-month, web-based randomised control  
98 trial conducted in 7 European countries. The aim of the study was to determine whether  
99 providing personalised dietary advice leads to improvements in dietary intakes and health  
100 outcomes relative to population-based public health messages. The 1,607 adult subjects were  
101 randomly assigned to one of four intervention treatment groups – level 0 (standard  
102 nonpersonalised dietary and physical activity guidelines), level 1 (personalised advice based  
103 on current diet and physical activity), level 2 (personalised advice based on current diet,  
104 physical activity and phenotype) and level 3 (personalised advice based on current diet,  
105 physical activity, phenotype and genotype)<sup>(16)</sup>. The control group received conventional,  
106 non-personalised advice and so are not considered for this analysis. The study protocol is  
107 detailed in Celis-Morales *et al.*<sup>(16)</sup>.

108

109 All data were collected remotely following standardized operating procedures. At baseline,  
110 participants received study kits by post containing all necessary materials to perform  
111 measurements at home. Printed instructions were included and demonstration videos were  
112 available on the Food4Me website (<http://www.food4me.org>). Following measurements at  
113 baseline and 3 months, participants received a personalised report. The personalised feedback  
114 provided was based on a predefined set of algorithms, including anthropometric, physical  
115 activity (Levels 1-3), phenotypic (Levels 2 and 3), and genotypic (Level 3 only) data<sup>(16)</sup>.

### 116 **Demographic characteristics**

117 The measurement of characteristics including age, country and sex and have been described  
118 elsewhere<sup>(16)</sup>. Having excluded the control group and those with normal total cholesterol  
119 levels at baseline (total cholesterol < 5 mmol/L), there were 151 males and 162 females, with  
120 a mean age of 46.8 years from 7 European countries, Germany (n=67), Greece (n=48),  
121 Ireland (n=39), Netherlands (n=54), Poland (n=30), Spain (n=43) and the United Kingdom  
122 (n=32). Subjects were classified as responders and non-responders based on the change in  
123 blood cholesterol from baseline to month 6. To achieve this the subjects were firstly stratified

124 into quartiles based on cholesterol response. Two of the groups, the lower and upper  
125 quartiles, were defined as the responders and non-responders, respectively. This resulted in  
126 n=78 responders and n=79 non-responders.

127

128

### 129 **Anthropometric measurements**

130 Body weight, height and waist circumference were self-measured and self-reported by  
131 participants via the Internet, as described previously <sup>(16)</sup>. They were provided with clear  
132 instructions in text and video format to facilitate accurate measurements and a validation  
133 study demonstrated the reliability of these internet-based self-reported anthropometric data  
134 <sup>(17)</sup>. Waist circumference was measured at the midpoint between the lower rib and the iliac  
135 crest using the same tape measure. Physical Activity was self-reported using the Baecke  
136 questionnaire online <sup>(18; 19)</sup> based on physical activity during the last month. Physical activity  
137 level scores (PAL) were calculated at baseline and month 6, according to the questionnaire  
138 protocol.

### 139 **Dietary intake measurements**

140 Habitual dietary intake was quantified using an online food frequency questionnaire (FFQ)  
141 including food items frequently consumed in each of the 7 recruitment sites. The Food4me  
142 FFQ has been compared to a paper based FFQ <sup>(20)</sup> and 4-day weighed food record <sup>(21)</sup> for both  
143 food group and nutrient intakes. Bland Altman analysis showed good agreement between the  
144 on-line and paper-based FFQ for both the nutrient and food group level. Cross-classification  
145 into exact plus adjacent quartiles ranged from 77 % to 97% at the nutrient level and 77% to  
146 99% at the food group level. For comparison with the weighed food record the mean cross-  
147 classification into exact agreement plus adjacent was 80% and 78% for nutrient and food  
148 groups respectively. Importantly the energy intake estimated by the FFQ was in agreement  
149 with the weighed food record. Overall, indicating that overall the on-line FFQ was a suitable  
150 tool for assessing dietary intake.

### 151 **Fatty acid and carotenoid profiles**

152 Finger-prick blood samples were collected by participants using a test kit provided by Vitas  
153 Ltd, Oslo, Norway, as described previously <sup>(22)</sup>. Each participant filled two Dry Blood Spot

154 cards (equivalent to five drops of blood or 150  $\mu$ L of blood per card) at each collection time  
155 point. The samples were sent to Vitas (Vitas Ltd, Norway) for measurements of total  
156 cholesterol, carotenoids, and 32 fatty acids (FA). The n-3 fatty acid index was calculated as  
157 the sum of eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5n-3) and docosahexaenoic acid (22:6n-3). The  $\Delta$ 5  
158 desaturase index (D5D) and  $\Delta$ 6 desaturase index (D6D) are calculated based on key enzymes  
159 in the metabolism of polyunsaturated fatty acids. The D5D was calculated as the ratio of  
160 arachidonic acid (20:4n-6) to dihomo $\gamma$ linoleic acid (20:3n-6) the D6D was calculated as the  
161 ratio of dihomo $\gamma$ linoleic acid (20:3n-6) to linoleic acid (18:2n-6).

162

## 163 ETHICS

164 This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of  
165 Helsinki. The Research Ethics Committees at each participating centre granted ethical  
166 approval for the study <sup>(16)</sup>.

167

## 168 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

169 The baseline demographic and phenotypic characteristics of the responders and non-  
170 responders were compared using generalised linear models. Models were fitted using the  
171 GLM (for continuous variables) and GENMOD (for categorical variables) procedures in SAS  
172 9.3 (SAS Institute, Cary NC). To account for multiple comparisons, False Discovery Rate  
173 (FDR) adjusted p-values are presented for fatty acid profile data.

174 To assess whether baseline demographic or phenotypic characteristics can discriminate  
175 between responders and non-responders, a stepwise logistic regression procedure was applied  
176 in four stages. Firstly, only anthropometric characteristics were included (Model 1). Then  
177 baseline cholesterol was added to the model (Model 2). Thirdly, dietary intake data were  
178 added to the analysis (Model 3) and lastly, all demographic, anthropometric, dietary intake  
179 and biochemical characteristics were included (Model 4). At each stage, the stepwise  
180 procedure selected the characteristics that best discriminated between the two groups.  
181 Variables were tested using a bootstrapping approach to correct for overoptimism in model  
182 fitting. The ability of the models to classify responders and non-responders was assessed  
183 using area under the ROC curves. ROC comparisons were performed by using a contrast  
184 matrix to take differences of the areas under the empirical ROC curves.

185

## 186 **RESULTS**

### 187 **Characteristics of responders and non-responders**

188 Demographic characteristics did not differ significantly between the responder and non-  
189 responder groups by country ( $\chi_6^2=5.0$ ,  $p=0.544$ , **Table 1**), sex ( $\chi_1^2=0.16$ ,  $p=0.693$ , Table 1)  
190 or age ( $p=0.082$ , Table 1). There was also little difference between the responder and non-  
191 responder groups for the anthropometric characteristics measured at baseline (Table 1).

192 During the intervention period, both groups significantly reduced BMI, weight and waist  
193 circumference, with both groups exhibiting similar effect sizes (Table 1). The responders  
194 significantly increased their blood omega-3 index, whereas the non-responders did not (mean  
195 change  $\Delta = 0.31$  versus  $0.14$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

196 At baseline, the responders and non-responders had similar dietary intakes of most food  
197 groups, with the exception of alcohol (**Table 2**) for which the responders had lower intake  
198 ( $170\text{g day}^{-1}$  versus  $258\text{g day}^{-1}$ ,  $p=0.035$ ). Post-intervention, the responders reported reduced  
199 intake of dairy ( $\Delta= -59\text{ g day}^{-1}$ , Table 2) and both responders and non-responders reported  
200 significantly reduced red meat intake ( $\Delta= -31$  and  $-28\text{ g day}^{-1}$  respectively).

201 The percentage of participants receiving dietary advice for specific target nutrients was  
202 broadly similar (**Table S1**). The most common nutrient targeted at baseline was salt (73% of  
203 responders and 59% of non-responders). There was no difference in the percentage of  
204 responders and non-responders receiving a dietary message specifically targeted at  
205 cholesterol (24% versus 23%,  $p=0.816$ ), although a greater number of non-responders  
206 received a message to increase physical activity (56% of responders versus 73% of non-  
207 responders,  $p=0.027$ ). While the responders had a significant reduction in cholesterol, there  
208 was no significant change in physical activity during the intervention period for either group.

209 At baseline, the responders had higher total cholesterol level than the non-responders ( $6.09$   
210  $\text{mmol/L}$  versus  $5.54\text{ mmol/L}$ ,  $p<0.001$ , Table 1). The fatty acid profiles differed between the  
211 responders and non-responders at baseline (**Table 3**). There was no difference between the  
212 groups for total saturated fatty acids (SFA,  $p=0.203$ ), but the responders had lower palmitic  
213 acid ( $16:0$ ,  $p=0.009$ ). At baseline, the responders had significantly lower total  
214 monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA,  $p=0.016$ ), and in particular lower palmitoleic acid  
215 ( $16:1n-7$ ,  $p=0.012$ ) and cis-vaccenic acid ( $18:1n-7$ ,  $p=0.001$ ). At baseline, the responders had



216 higher total PUFA ( $p=0.008$ ), in particular linoleic acid ( $18:2n-6$ ,  $p=0.011$ ), eicosadienoic  
217 acid ( $20:2n-6$ ,  $p=0.006$ ) and docosapentaenoic acid (DPA  $22:5n-3$ ,  $p=0.014$ ). At baseline  
218 both groups had similar carotenoids profiles (**Table 4**).

219

## 220 **Discriminating between responders and non-responders**

221 When the stepwise logistic regression model was applied using demographic and  
222 anthropometric data, age and weight were selected as being important factors in  
223 discriminating responders from non-responders (Model 1, **Table 5**). The classification  
224 accuracy (as measured by the area under the ROC curve, **Figure 1**) was 0.61, indicating that  
225 the demographic and anthropometric data do not provide sufficient discriminatory power. As  
226 expected, the classification accuracy improved when the model was adjusted for baseline  
227 cholesterol, (Model 2 area under curve=0.76, Table 5, Figure 1). Including dietary intake data  
228 (Model 3) did not improve the discriminatory power, with none of the food groups being  
229 selected when tested in the stepwise model. When the additional biochemical data were  
230 added to the model (Model 4), the key variables selected were baseline levels of cholesterol,  
231 glucose, stearic acid, DPA, and eicosenoic acid, each with significant positive coefficients  
232 and EPA and trans fatty acids, with significant negative coefficients. Alcohol intake also had  
233 a significant negative coefficient in this model that included the biochemical variables. The  
234 coefficients of the final logistic regression discriminant model are detailed in **Table 6**.  
235 Increases in the variables with positive or negative coefficients were associated with  
236 increased or decreased probability of being a responder, respectively. The additional  
237 biochemical data significantly improved the classification accuracy (Model 4 area under  
238 curve=0.90, Table 5, Figure 1), with increases in the true positive rate (sensitivity) resulting  
239 in only a small trade-off with the false positive rate (1- sensitivity). For example, to achieve  
240 a sensitivity of 80% for Model 3, the false positive rate is only 10%. This compares with 67%  
241 for Model 1 and 44% for Model 2 (Figure 1). Furthermore, it is also worth noting that  
242 intervention group was not selected as a discriminant variable indicating that it did not  
243 contribute to classification as a responder or non-responder.

244

245 **DISCUSSION**

246 Identification of sub phenotypes that respond differently to dietary interventions has the  
247 possibility to significantly enhance delivery of personalised nutrition. In the current study a  
248 baseline phenotype characterised by age, alcohol intake, and levels of stearic acid, DPA,  
249 EPA, eicosenoic acid and trans fatty acids, was identified which could discriminate  
250 responders and non-responders in 90% of cases. Discriminant analysis has previously been  
251 used in dietary intervention studies to test whether metabolic profiles may be used to identify  
252 responders and non-responders. In a choline-depletion study, analysis of the baseline  
253 metabolomics profile predicted which participants developed liver dysfunction when  
254 deprived of dietary choline<sup>(23)</sup>. Mutch *et al.* 2007 classified responders and non-responders to  
255 dietary intervention using linear discriminant analysis on a gene expression snapshot<sup>(24)</sup>.  
256 Here we used a stepwise logistic regression model to select the individual factors that best  
257 classified the probability of being a responder. Incorporation of such information into dietary  
258 advice strategies has the potential to significantly enhance the success of interventions.

259

260 Wide inter-individual variation has been observed in the response of total, LDL and HDL  
261 cholesterol to dietary change<sup>(25; 26; 27)</sup> with little alterations in blood cholesterol for some  
262 participants despite significant changes in dietary fatty acid pattern and cholesterol intake<sup>(28)</sup>.  
263 This means that while the population response to a diet can be estimated, the responsiveness  
264 of a single individual will have as a result of dietary change is difficult to determine<sup>(29)</sup>.  
265 Lefevre *et al.*<sup>(30)</sup> observed that variability in the change of serum was related to  
266 anthropometric measurements including BMI, waist circumference and body fat percentage.  
267 Furthermore, there is a large body of evidence to support the genetic influence on response of  
268 plasma cholesterol to dietary interventions<sup>(25; 31; 32; 33)</sup>. The present study determined a profile  
269 which was responsive to dietary advice in terms of lowering cholesterol levels. Overall, this  
270 work in conjunction with the literature provides compelling evidence that individual variation  
271 and response to interventions needs to be incorporated into dietary advice strategies.

272

273 The most marked differences between the responder and non-responder phenotypes were  
274 found in their baseline fatty acid profiles. The responders had a lower mean percentage of  
275 *trans* fatty acids at baseline. TFAs have been found to increase LDL- and decrease HDL-  
276 cholesterol levels<sup>(34)</sup>. While the responders and non-responders did not differ in their total  
277 percentage of SFA, contributions of different SFAs differed. The responders had lower

278 palmitic acid (16:0) and higher stearic acid (18:0) than the non-responders. A review  
279 comparing the risk factors for stearic acid with other saturated fatty acids <sup>(35)</sup> reported that  
280 diets high in stearic acid have favourable effects on LDL cholesterol compared with palmitic  
281 acid. However, it has also been reported that stearic acid itself has no cholesterol-enhancing  
282 effect in clinically very well controlled exchange of single fatty acids, whereas palmitic,  
283 myristic and lauric acids have strong cholesterol-raising effects <sup>(36)</sup>.

284

285 The responder group had lower total MUFA, in particular palmitoleic acid (16:1n-7) and cis-  
286 vaccenic acid (18:1n-7). A meta-analysis investigating the effects of MUFA on  
287 cardiovascular and diabetic risk factors observed no consistent evidence for a relationship  
288 between MUFA and total cholesterol <sup>(36;37)</sup>. The PUFA profiles differed between the  
289 responders and non-responders, with a more marked difference in the n-6 PUFAs. The  
290 responders had higher levels of linoleic acid (18:2n-6) and eicosadienoic acid (20:2n-6)  
291 compared to the non-responders at baseline. Linoleic acid, the primary n-6 PUFA, has been  
292 shown to have a cholesterol lowering effect <sup>(36;38)</sup> and a recent meta-analysis reported a lower  
293 risk of coronary heart disease events and deaths with increasing linoleic acid intake <sup>(39)</sup>.  
294 While the total n-3 PUFAs did not differ between the two groups, the responders had a higher  
295 percentage of DPA (22:5n-3). Higher levels of DPA in human blood have been shown to be  
296 correlated with lower cholesterol <sup>(40)</sup>. Overall, the data supports the growing evidence that  
297 fatty acids patterns as opposed to single individual fatty acids are important in determining  
298 health. Moreover, it supports the importance of adequate intake of PUFAs.

299

300 The demographic profiles of the responders and non-responders did not differ, and at  
301 baseline, the groups also had similar anthropometric characteristics. Dietary intake at baseline  
302 was similar across the two groups, with only alcohol intake differing. As this was a study of  
303 the effects of personalised nutrition the dietary advice given to the participants differed  
304 between individuals. However, for all the participants, the percentage of subjects receiving  
305 dietary advice for specific target nutrients was generally similar. The strengths of this study  
306 were that it was a multi-country group with multiple time points allowing analysis of change  
307 in response to the intervention. Furthermore, the participants are well phenotyped. A  
308 limitation of the study is the unique study design involving personalised nutrition advice  
309 which makes replication and prospective analysis in an independent cohort difficult.

310

311 An objective of this study was to investigate whether the different types of data were useful  
312 in classifying whether an individual will respond to the dietary intervention. Our study has  
313 shown that baseline phenotypic data provided more classification power than anthropometric  
314 or dietary intake data in classifying responsiveness to personalised dietary advice. While the  
315 work identified particular predictive characteristics, it was not our aim to establish causative  
316 relationships between the variables. Our study has shown that, in principle, we can predict, *a*  
317 *priori* whether an individual's health status will improve in response to the consumption of a  
318 given food/diet. This strengthens the evidence base for the concept that intervention and  
319 dietary advice can be personalised with more confidence. Future work should examine the  
320 optimal method for incorporation of such data into dietary advice and should pave the way  
321 for precision nutrition.

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333 final version of the manuscript. C.A.D. is a founder, stock owner, board member and  
334 consultant for Vitas Ltd, Oslo, Norway. The other authors have no potential financial or  
335 personal conflicts of interest to declare.

336

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339

340 FIGURE LEGENDS

341 Figure 1. ROC curves illustrating the performance of models M1, M2 and M4 at  
342 discriminating responders from non-responders. The selected variables in M3 were identical  
343 to M2 and so it has not been included. The diagonal reference line represents random  
344 discrimination, with points above the line indicating discrimination ability.

345

346

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Table 1. Demographic and phenotypic profiles of responders and non-responders

		Responder		Non-responder		Responder vs Non- responder					
		n	%	n	%	Chi-sq	p-value				
Sex	Total	78		79							
	Male	40	51.20%	43	55.13%						
	Female	38	48.70%	36	46.15%	0.16	0.693				
Country	Germany	19	24.40%	23	29.11%						
	Greece	10	12.80%	11	13.92%						
	Ireland	11	14.10%	7	8.86%						
	Netherlands	16	20.50%	13	16.46%						
	Poland	4	5.10%	8	10.13%						
	Spain	11	14.10%	14	17.72%						
	United Kingdom	7	9.00%	3	3.80%	5.0	0.544				
		Baseline		Δ		Baseline		Δ		p-value for difference	
		Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Baseline	Δ
Age (years)		45.1	1.35			48.2	1.15			0.082	
Height (m)		1.72	0.01			1.74	0.01			0.262	
Weight (kg)		78.1	1.66	<b>-1.7</b>	<b>0.39</b>	82.6	1.79	<b>-1.3</b>	<b>0.37</b>	0.065	0.429
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )		26.4	0.52	<b>-0.6</b>	<b>0.14</b>	27.5	0.56	<b>-0.4</b>	<b>0.13</b>	0.17	0.495
Waist circumference (m)		0.9	0.015	<b>-0.02</b>	<b>0.005</b>	0.93	0.015	<b>-0.02</b>	<b>0.005</b>	0.091	0.764
Physical activity level		1.54	0.012	0.03	0.01	1.53	0.012	0.027	0.01	0.687	0.908
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)		6.09	0.091	<b>-2.01</b>	<b>0.072</b>	5.54	0.063	0.47	0.06	<b>&lt;.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Glucose (mmol/L)		4.13	0.08	<b>-0.82</b>	<b>0.113</b>	3.88	0.111	<b>-0.23</b>	<b>0.111</b>	0.934	0.259
Omega-3 index		5.68	0.127	<b>0.31</b>	<b>0.096</b>	5.69	0.13	0.14	0.109	0.068	<b>&lt;0.001</b>

Measurements at baseline and mean change (Δ) between baseline and month 6 are presented as mean ± standard error. P-values were obtained from generalised linear models including the responder group as a factor. Bolded p-values are significant at the 5% level.

1 Table 2. Baseline dietary intake (g day<sup>-1</sup>) and change from baseline to month 6 for responders and non-responders

	Responders				Non-responders				P-value for difference	
	Baseline		Δ		Baseline		Δ		Baseline	Δ
	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM		
Fruit	445	45	6	33	387	32	37	31	0.289	0.487
Vegetables	234	22	-6	22	229	14	4	15	0.851	0.71
Whole grains	169	18	6	15	127	14	22	12	0.064	0.413
Oily fish	23	3	9	6	21	3	4	3	0.691	0.42
Red meat	95	11	<b>-31</b>	<b>10</b>	85	7	<b>-28</b>	<b>5</b>	0.424	0.763
Dairy	337	30	<b>-59</b>	<b>27</b>	286	28	<b>-16</b>	<b>24</b>	0.214	0.247
Nuts	7	2	0	1	6	1	1	1	0.694	0.638
Alcohol	170	23	-22	25	258	34	-16	35	<b>0.035</b>	0.892

2 Dietary intake at baseline and mean change (Δ) between baseline and month 6 are presented as mean ± standard error. Bolded mean changes are  
3 significant at the 5% level. P-values were obtained from generalised linear models including responder group as a factor. Bolded p-values are  
4 significant at the 5% level.

5

6 Table 3. Mean % of blood total fatty acid at baseline for responders and non-responders and mean change from baseline to month 6

			Responders				Non-responders				P-value for difference			
			Baseline		Δ		Baseline		Δ		Baseline		Δ	
			Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	Mean	SEM	p-value	FDR	p-value	FDR
		Trans fatty acids	0.79	0.027	0.04	0.035	0.9	0.028	-0.06	0.039	<b>0.007</b>	<b>0.040</b>	0.059	0.295
SFA	(14:0)	Myristic	0.78	0.042	-0.07	0.046	0.85	0.048	-0.02	0.044	0.281	0.351	0.398	0.807
SFA	(15:0)	Pentadecyclic	0.21	0.006	0	0.005	0.2	0.006	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.006</b>	0.166	0.239	0.046	0.295
SFA	(16:0)	Palmitic	22.89	0.157	-0.04	0.188	23.63	0.229	-0.46	0.36	<b>0.009</b>	<b>0.040</b>	0.308	0.807
SFA	(17:0)	Margaric	0.32	0.005	<b>-0.01</b>	<b>0.006</b>	0.31	0.008	-0.01	0.009	0.799	0.799	0.617	0.807
SFA	(18:0)	Stearic	12.81	0.118	<b>0.67</b>	<b>0.156</b>	12.44	0.129	<b>0.68</b>	<b>0.275</b>	0.034	0.076	0.978	0.978
SFA	(20:0)	Arachidic	0.2	0.007	<b>0.15</b>	<b>0.032</b>	0.19	0.007	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.027</b>	0.639	0.710	0.621	0.807
MUFA	(16:1n-7)	Palmitoleic	1.26	0.056	-0.08	0.041	1.49	0.072	-0.02	0.059	<b>0.012</b>	<b>0.040</b>	0.436	0.807
MUFA	(18:1n-9)	Oleic n9	19.21	0.278	-0.34	0.245	19.9	0.241	<b>-0.84</b>	<b>0.328</b>	0.063	0.126	0.225	0.807
MUFA	(18:1n-7)	Cis-vaccenic	1.34	0.021	<b>0.22</b>	<b>0.046</b>	1.48	0.039	0.03	0.056	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.020</b>	0.01	0.200
MUFA	(20:1)	Eicosenoic	0.26	0.006	<b>-0.01</b>	<b>0.006</b>	0.25	0.007	-0.01	0.008	0.167	0.239	0.686	0.807
n-3 PUFA	(18:3n-3)	□-linolenic ALA	0.33	0.013	0	0.017	0.34	0.018	0	0.018	0.528	0.621	0.943	0.978
n-3 PUFA	(20:5n-3)	Eicosapentaenoic EPA	0.73	0.045	0.04	0.038	0.82	0.061	0.07	0.056	0.208	0.277	0.661	0.807
n-3 PUFA	(22:5n-3)	Docosapentaenoic DPA	1.41	0.039	0.03	0.027	1.28	0.035	0.01	0.036	<b>0.014</b>	<b>0.040</b>	0.67	0.807

n-3 PUFA	(22:6n-3)	Docosahexaenoic DHA	2.96	0.1	<b>0.31</b>	<b>0.069</b>	3.01	0.095	0.09	0.076	0.696	0.733	0.041	0.295
n-6 PUFA	(18:2n-6)	Linoleic	19.92	0.259	<b>-0.6</b>	<b>0.221</b>	18.96	0.266	-0.61	0.311	<b>0.011</b>	<b>0.040</b>	0.969	0.978
n-6 PUFA	(18:3n-6)	$\gamma$ linolenic GLA	0.2	0.01	0.01	0.012	0.23	0.014	0	0.012	0.101	0.182	0.669	0.807
n-6 PUFA	(20:2n-6)	Eicosadienoic	0.22	0.004	0	0.003	0.21	0.004	0	0.004	<b>0.006</b>	<b>0.040</b>	0.431	0.807
n-6 PUFA	(20:3n-6)	Dihomo $\gamma$ linolenic DGLA	1.58	0.036	<b>-0.07</b>	<b>0.029</b>	1.46	0.037	-0.04	0.033	0.024	0.060	0.467	0.807
n-6 PUFA	(20:4n-6)	Arachidonic ARA	8.66	0.152	0.08	0.156	8.32	0.146	-0.15	0.184	0.109	0.182	0.351	0.807
Desaturase index D5D		ARA/ DGLA	5.7	0.17	<b>0.35</b>	<b>0.12</b>	5.93	0.07	0.12	0.17	0.338		0.102	
Desaturase index D6D		DGLA/ Linoleic	0.08	0.002	0	0.002	0.08	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.442		0.393	
		SFA	37.2	0.22	<b>0.7</b>	<b>0.294</b>	37.63	0.255	0.38	0.594	0.203		0.639	
		MUFA	22.07	0.299	-0.21	0.256	23.07	0.282	<b>-0.83</b>	<b>0.372</b>	<b>0.016</b>		0.166	
		PUFA	36	0.338	-0.21	0.361	34.66	0.365	-0.63	0.565	<b>0.008</b>		0.533	
		PUFA n-3	5.43	0.156	0.37	0.2	5.46	0.155	0.23	0.2	0.872		0.419	
		PUFA n-6	30.58	0.315	-0.57	0.317	29.18	0.313	-0.43	0.317	<b>0.002</b>		0.747	
		n-3 / n-6	0.18	0.006	-0.017	0.004	0.19	0.006	0.009	0.004	0.181		0.221	

7 Fatty acid percentage at baseline and mean change ( $\Delta$ ) between baseline and month 6 are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard error. P-values were obtained from generalised linear models including responder group as a  
8 factor. FDR adjusted p-values control for false discovery rate. Bolded p-values are significant at the FDR 5% level. The  $\Delta 5$  desaturase (D5D) was calculated as the ratio of arachidonic acid (20:4n-6) to dihomo $\gamma$ linoleic  
9 acid (20:3n-6). The  $\Delta 6$  desaturase (D6D) was calculated as the ratio of dihomo $\gamma$ linoleic acid (20:3n-6) to linoleic acid (18:2n-6).

Table 4. Mean blood carotenoid levels ( $\mu\text{mol/L}$ ) for responders and non-responders at baseline

	Responders				Non-responders				P-value for difference	
	Baseline		$\Delta$		Baseline		$\Delta$		Baseline	$\Delta$
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE		
Lutein	0.23	0.013	-0.03	<b>0.012</b>	0.25	0.014	-0.03	<b>0.013</b>	0.328	0.74
Zeaxanthin	0.06	0.004	-0.02	<b>0.004</b>	0.05	0.003	-0.01	<b>0.003</b>	0.525	0.282
$\beta$ Cryptoxanthin	0.24	0.028	-0.08	<b>0.028</b>	0.19	0.018	0.01	0.017	0.098	<b>0.022</b>
$\alpha$ Carotene	0.14	0.014	0.01	0.018	0.11	0.011	0.01	0.008	0.146	0.448
$\beta$ Carotene	0.45	0.035	0.05	0.034	0.4	0.035	0.02	0.021	0.276	0.098
Lycopene	0.55	0.027	-0.07	<b>0.026</b>	0.54	0.033	0.01	0.038	0.863	0.225
Total Carotenoids	1.67	0.078	-0.21	<b>0.072</b>	1.54	0.08	0.03	0.071	0.263	0.082

Carotenoid levels at baseline and mean change ( $\Delta$ ) between baseline and month 6 are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard error. P-values were obtained from generalised linear models containing responder group as a factor. Bolded p-values are significant at the 5% level.

Table 5. Examining the ability to classify responders and non-responders.

	Area	SE	p-value <sup>a</sup>	Asymptotic 95% Confidence Interval	p-value <sup>b</sup>
M1: Anthropometric data only	0.61	0.045	0.014	0.53 – 0.70	
M2: M1 plus baseline cholesterol	0.76	0.037	<0.001	0.69 – 0.836	0.0007
M3: M2 plus dietary intake data	0.76	0.037	<0.001	0.69 – 0.836	0.999
M4: M3 plus biochemical data	0.90	0.026	<0.001	0.85 – 0.95	0.0003

Area under the ROC curve (AUC). The area measures the accuracy, or discrimination ability, to classify responders and non-responders.

Area under the curve is presented as area  $\pm$  standard errors.

<sup>a</sup> Null hypothesis: true area = 0.5

<sup>b</sup> P-value for comparison of C-statistic versus previous model

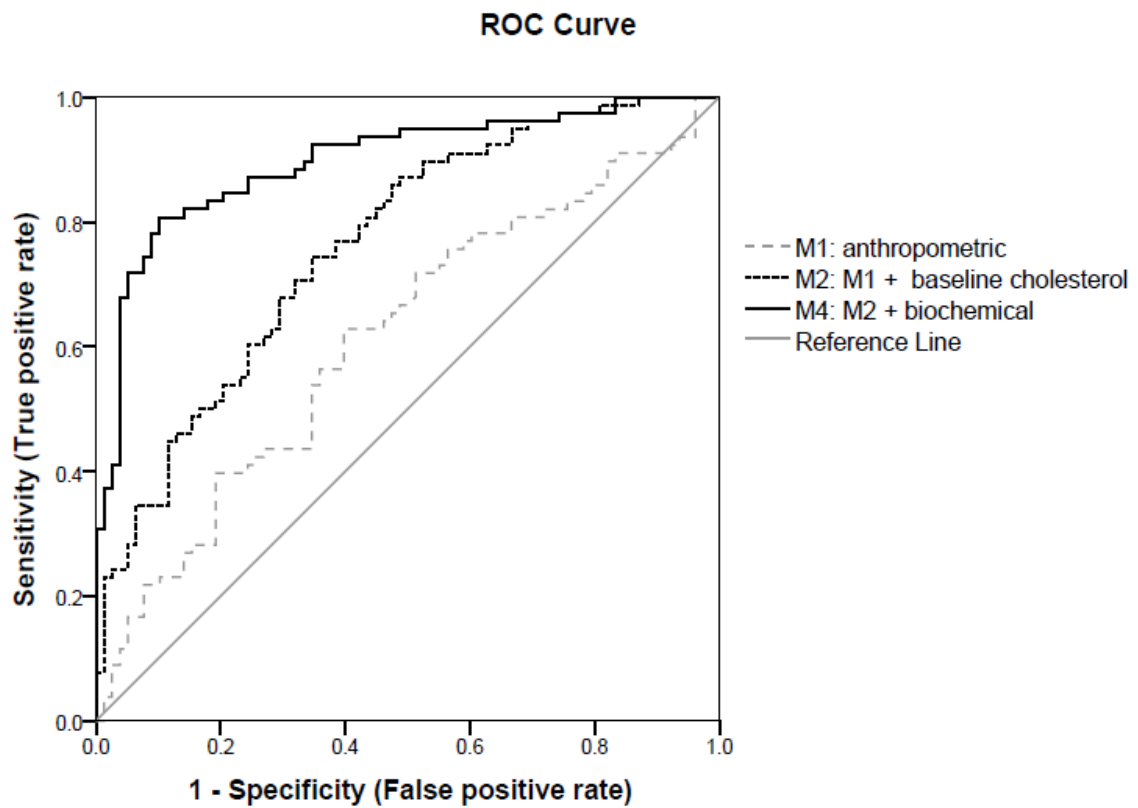
Table 6. List of discriminating parameters.

		Estimate	Standard Error	t-value	p-value
	Constant	30.56	6.347	23.17	0.001
	Baseline cholesterol	2.95	0.583	25.55	0.001
	Baseline glucose	1.02	0.354	8.34	0.10
	Age	-0.06	0.0232	6.67	0.016
SFA	(18:0) Stearic acid	0.62	0.253	6.03	0.025
MUFA	(20:1) Eicosenoic acid	13.53	5.16	6.88	0.007
n-3 PUFA	(22:5n-3) Docosapentaenoic acid (DPA)	4.51	1.04	18.76	0.001
n-6 PUFA	(20:5n-3) Eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA)	-2.73	0.717	14.53	0.001
	Trans Fatty acids	-3.03	1.054	8.27	0.010
	Alcohol intake	0.0033	0.0011	8.25	0.042

Stepwise logistic regression discriminant analysis. Estimates are on the logit scale. This is the final model selected using stepwise selection procedure including all demographic, anthropometric, dietary intake, fatty acids and carotenoids as potential predictors. The logistic regression model estimates the probability of being a responder. A positive coefficient for an independent variable implies an increased probability of being a responder with increasing values of the variable.



## Figures



**Figure 1.** ROC curves illustrating the performance of models M1, M2 and M4 at discriminating responders from non-responders. The selected variables in M3 were identical to M2 and so it has not been included. The diagonal reference line represents random discrimination, with points above the line indicating discrimination ability.

Supplementary Material

Table S1. Percentage of participants receiving dietary advice for specific target nutrients at baseline

<b>Message</b>	Responders	Non-responders	p-value *
<b>Nutrient</b>			
Salt	73%	59%	0.073
Saturated fat	37%	33%	0.575
Fibre	32%	29%	0.690
Carotenoids	28%	30%	0.765
Folate	26%	27%	0.893
Cholesterol	24%	23%	0.816
Unsaturated fat	21%	19%	0.810
Omega 3	18%	23%	0.453
Reduce total fat	14%	11%	0.611
Increase calcium	6%	16%	0.056
<b>Body weight</b>			
Increase PAL	56%	73%	<b>0.027</b>
Bodyweight & cholesterol	55%	65%	0.229
Reduce BMI	31%	43%	0.113
Reduce waist circumference	18%	34%	<b>0.022</b>

\* P-values were obtained from logistic regression models including responder group as a factor. Bolded p-values are significant at the 5% level