Demographic Factors and Beverage Consumption Patterns: Health literacy, education and income level

Katherine E. Ferguson

Thesis submitted to the faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science in Human Nutrition, Foods, and Exercise

> Brenda M. Davy, Chair Jamie M. Zoellner Wen You

> > April 26, 2011 Blacksburg, VA

Keywords: beverage patterns, sugar-sweetened beverages, health literacy, income level, education level, water, milk

Demographic Factors and Beverage Consumption Patterns: Health literacy, education and income level

Katherine E. Ferguson

ABSTRACT

Over the past several decades, the prevalence of overweight and obesity has increased to 68% of American adults¹. During this same time period, there has been an increase in sugar-sweetened beverage consumption. This increase in added sugar consumption, particularly from sugar-sweetened beverages, has been theorized as a possible contributor to the obesity epidemic^{2,3,4}. Sugar-sweetened beverages are the number one source of added sugars in the American diet and organizations such as the American Heart Association have addressed this issue of added sugar consumption due to its association with negative health outcomes⁵. A variety of demographic factors have been linked to increased added sugar consumption⁶. Health literacy is another variable which may influence beverage consumption patterns, specifically sugar-sweetened beverage consumption. To date only one study has investigated this association, and the authors reported an inverse relationship between health literacy scores and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption⁷. Therefore, the purpose of this investigation was to determine what demographic variables serve as predictors of consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages, water, milk, and total beverage calories. This could allow for appropriate interventions to be developed targeting healthier beverage consumption patterns in specific sub-populations.

References

- 1. Flegal KM, Carroll MD, Ogden CL, Curtin LR. Prevalence and trends in obesity among US adults, 1999-2008. *JAMA*. Jan 20 2010;303(3):235-241.
- **2.** Bachman CM, Baranowski T, Nicklas TA. Is there an association between sweetened beverages and adiposity? *Nutr Rev.* Apr 2006;64(4):153-174.
- 3. Malik VS, Schulze MB, Hu FB. Intake of sugar-sweetened beverages and weight gain: a systematic review. *Am J Clin Nutr*. Aug 2006;84(2):274-288.
- **4.** Pereira MA. The possible role of sugar-sweetened beverages in obesity etiology: a review of evidence. *International Journal of Obesity*. 2006;30:528-536.
- 5. Johnson RK, Appel LJ, Brands M, Howard BV, Lefevre M, Lustig RH, Sacks F, Steffen LM, Wylie-Rosett J. Dietary sugars intake and cardiovascular health: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. Sep 15 2009;120(11):1011-1020.
- 6. Thompson FE, McNeel TS, Dowling EC, Midthune D, Morrissette M, Zeruto CA. Interrelationships of added sugars intake, socioeconomic status, and race/ethnicity in adults in the United States: National Health Interview Survey, 2005. *J Am Diet Assoc*. Aug 2009;109(8):1376-1383.
- 7. Zoellner JM, You W, Connell C, Smith-Ray RL, Allen K, Tucker KL, Davy BM, Estabrooks PA. Health literacy is associated with healthy eating index scores and sugar-sweetened beverage intake: findings from the rural lower Mississippi Delta. *J Am Diet Assoc*, in press.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents	iii
List of Tables	iv
Ch. 1: Introduction	1
References	6
Ch. 2: Demographic Factors and Beverage Consumption Patterns: Health literacy,	, education and
income level	8
Abstract	8
Background	10
Methods	13
Results	15
Discussion	19
References	26
Ch. 3: Conclusions and Future Directions	30
References	33
Annendix A: Institutional Review Board Annroval	35

LIST OF TABLES

Ch. 1:

Table 1: Tools used to assess health literacy, page 5.

Ch. 2:

Table 2: Sample demographic characteristics, page 24.

Table 3: Using demographic variables, BMI, and S-TOFHLA scores to predict sugar-sweetened beverage intake (kcal/day, fl oz/day), water intake (grams), and total beverage intake (kcal/day), page 25.

Ch. 1: Introduction

The prevalence of obesity within the United States has continued to increase over the last thirty years. According to the most recent statistics, 68% of Americans are classified as overweight (body mass index [BMI] 25-29.9 kg/m²) or obese (BMI \geq 30 kg/m²). Obesity alone characterizes the weight status of more than 30% of Americans¹.

An increase in sugar-sweetened beverage consumption has also occurred over the last thirty years and has been theorized as a possible contributor to the obesity epidemic^{2,3,4}. Beverages classified as sugar-sweetened beverages include regular soft drinks, fruit drinks, sports drinks, energy drinks, and coffee or tea sweetened with sugar. A scientific statement issued by the American Heart Association provides recommendations for added sugar intake due to the fact that high intake of added sugars is related to increased risk of high blood pressure, high triglyceride levels, inflammation, and other heart disease and stroke risk factors. The top source of added sugars in the American diet is sugar-sweetened beverages⁵. It has been found that during acute meal settings, caloric beverages do not affect food intake. However, caloric beverages were found to increase total meal kilocalorie (ie, energy) intake when compared with water or energy-free, artificially-sweetened beverages⁶. The finding that liquid calories are not regulated accurately by the body as calories from solid foods has also been identified as a possible reason for the association between obesity and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption^{6,7}. This poor regulation could be due to the fact that beverages are consumed and emptied from the stomach faster than solid foods. Another explanation is that appetite-regulated hormonal responses depend on the food form (ie, solid versus liquid). Satiety signals are more abundant when fat or protein is consumed as compared to carbohydrates, and carbohydrates are a main ingredient in many caloric beverages which could explain the poor regulation of these types of beverages⁶. Taken together, this information has led to increased awareness of the role of added sugars and sugar-sweetened beverages in health and obesity⁵. There have also been public health recommendations for a reduced consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages and an increased consumption of non-sugar-sweetened beverages such as milk and water, due to this evidence^{8,9}.

The recently published 2010 Dietary Guidelines for Americans report that 36% of the added sugars consumed in the American diet come from regular soda, energy drinks, and sports drinks. The guidelines also state that adults aged 19 and older consume approximately 400 kilocalories/day from beverages alone⁹. This is four times as much as the American Heart Association suggests. They recommend that most women and men consume no more than 100 or 150 calories (equivalent to approximately six or nine teaspoons/day) from added sugars each day, respectively. This is based on their recommendation that added sugars should not account for more than half of a person's daily discretionary or "left over" calories (which vary depending on activity level and energy needs)⁵. The most common culprits for these extra beverage calories, in order from highest to lowest consumption, include regular soda, energy and sports drinks, alcoholic beverages, milk, 100% fruit juice, and fruit drinks. Due to the large number of calories being consumed from beverages, the Dietary Guidelines recommend a decrease in intake of sugar-sweetened beverages to few or no regular sodas and sports, energy, and juice drinks. It is recommended that water, fat-free milk, 100% fruit juice, and unsweetened tea or coffee are chosen in place of the aforementioned beverages⁹.

Intake of added sugars, such as those found in sugar-sweetened beverages, is reported to be inversely related to age, educational status, and family income and higher among men than women. Men with less than a high school education averaged about 21 teaspoons of added sugars/day and women averaged about 14 tsp/d¹⁰. With an increase in education to a college degree or higher, average daily added sugar intake decreased to approximately 17 tsp/d and 11 tsp/d, respectively¹⁰. These differences were also seen when race/ethnicity and education were analyzed together; with higher education there was decreased consumption of added sugars. A difference among race/ethnicities has also been reported. Asian Americans and Hispanics had the lowest intakes of added sugars while African Americans had the highest¹⁰. This is important to note because health disparities related to factors like socioeconomic status and race/ethnicity are well documented for various conditions such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and cancer. These populations are at increased risk because they are less likely to get preventative care or have access to quality healthcare when they become ill¹¹. Furthermore, these qualities have been identified for populations at risk for limited health literacy.

Health literacy is another possible demographic factor which may influence beverage consumption patterns, specifically sugar-sweetened beverage consumption. To date, only one study has investigated this topic and reported that health literacy and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption were inversely related. These authors also reported that higher health literacy scores were positively related to higher intakes of food groups including whole fruits and total vegetables¹².

Health literacy can be determined in several ways. Common tools for measuring health literacy, their administration time, and the skills that are assessed are presented in Table 1. The Test of Functional Health Literacy (TOFHLA) and its shortened version (S-TOFHLA) assess both reading comprehension and numeracy skills and are currently the only tools which measure a patient's comprehension of health information and their ability to properly apply it 13,14. The Rapid Estimate of Adult Literacy in Medicine (REALM) and Wide-Range Achievement Test Revised (WRAT-R) both assess pronunciation skills, although the REALM uses medical words and the WRAT-R consists of non-medical words and an extra numeracy section ^{15,16}. The Health Activities Literacy Scale (HALS) consists of prose, quantitative, and document items in five sections including health promotion, health protection, disease prevention, health care and maintenance, and systems navigation. It takes one hour to complete which makes it the longest evaluation tool of those discussed; it may be less practical for a healthcare setting 14. The Newest Vital Sign (NVS) is yet another health literacy tool that has six questions and only takes three minutes to complete¹⁷. NVS evaluates both document and quantitative skills and consists of an ice cream nutrition label¹⁴ which makes is especially helpful in a nutrition setting.

In order to design intervention studies which target sugar-sweetened beverage consumption patterns in specific population segments, more information is needed regarding factors which contribute to beverage consumption patterns. The purpose of this study was to determine what demographic variables serve as predictors of sugar-sweetened beverage consumption, water consumption, milk consumption, and total beverage calories.

 Table 1: Tools used to assess health literacy.

Tool	Administration Time (min.)	Skills Assessed
Test of Functional Health Literacy Assessment (TOFHLA) ¹³	22	Reading comprehension Numeracy
Shortened Test of Functional Health Literacy Assessment (S-TOFHLA) ¹⁴	12	Reading comprehension Numeracy
Rapid Estimate of Adult Literacy in Medicine (REALM) ¹⁵	2-3	Pronunciation
Newest Vital Sign (NVS) ^{14,17}	3	Document Quantitative
Health Activities Literacy Scale (HALS) ¹⁴	60	Prose Document Quantitative
Wide Range Achievement Test Revised (WRAT-R) ¹⁶	3-5	Pronunciation Numeracy

References

- 1. Flegal KM, Carroll MD, Ogden CL, Curtin LR. Prevalence and trends in obesity among US adults, 1999-2008. *JAMA*. Jan 20 2010;303(3):235-241.
- **2.** Bachman CM, Baranowski T, Nicklas TA. Is there an association between sweetened beverages and adiposity? *Nutr Rev.* Apr 2006;64(4):153-174.
- 3. Malik VS, Schulze MB, Hu FB. Intake of sugar-sweetened beverages and weight gain: a systematic review. *Am J Clin Nutr*. Aug 2006;84(2):274-288.
- **4.** Pereira MA. The possible role of sugar-sweetened beverages in obesity etiology: a review of evidence. *International Journal of Obesity*. 2006;30:528-536.
- Johnson RK, Appel LJ, Brands M, Howard BV, Lefevre M, Lustig RH, Sacks F, Steffen LM, Wylie-Rosett J. Dietary sugars intake and cardiovascular health: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. Sep 15 2009;120(11):1011-1020.
- 6. Dennis EA, Flack KD, Davy BM. Beverage consumption and adult weight management:

 A review. *Eat Behav*. Dec 2009;10(4):237-246.
- 7. ENVIRON International Corporation . What America Drinks. 2011.
- 8. Benjamin RM. The Surgeon General's vision for a healthy and fit nation. *Public Health Rep.* Jul-Aug 2010;125(4):514-515.
- 9. United States Department of Agriculture and United States Department of Health and Human Services. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans*. 2010.
- 10. Thompson FE, McNeel TS, Dowling EC, Midthune D, Morrissette M, Zeruto CA.

 Interrelationships of added sugars intake, socioeconomic status, and race/ethnicity in

- adults in the United States: National Health Interview Survey, 2005. *J Am Diet Assoc*. Aug 2009;109(8):1376-1383.
- United States Department of Health and Human Services. The HHS Action Plan to Reduce Racial and Ethnic Health Disparities. 2011; http://www.hhs.gov/news/press/2011pres/04/04hdplan04082011.html. Accessed Apr 12, 2011.
- 2. Zoellner JM, You W, Connell C, Smith-Ray RL, Allen K, Tucker KL, Davy BM, Estabrooks PA. Health literacy is associated with healthy eating index scores and sugar-sweetened beverage intake: findings from the rural lower Mississippi Delta. *J Am Diet Assoc*, in press.
- 13. Parker RM, Baker DW, Williams MV, Nurss JR. The test of functional health literacy in adults: a new instrument for measuring patients' literacy skills. *J Gen Intern Med*. Oct 1995;10(10):537-541.
- **14.** Baker DW. The meaning and the measure of health literacy. *J Gen Int Med.* 2006;21:878-873.
- **15.** Davis TC, Michielutte R, Askov EN, Williams MV, Weiss BD. Practical assessment of adult literacy in health care. *Health Educ Behav*. Oct 1998;25(5):613-624.
- 16. Friedman DB, Hoffman-Goetz L. A systematic review of readability and comprehension instruments used for print and web-based cancer information. *Health Educ Behav*. Jun 2006;33(3):352-373.
- 17. Weiss BD, Mays MZ, Martz W, Castro KM, DeWalt DA, Pignone MP, Mockbee J, Hale FA. Quick assessment of literacy in primary care: the newest vital sign. *Ann Fam Med*. Nov-Dec 2005;3(6):514-522.

Ch. 2: Demographic Factors and Beverage Consumption Patterns: Health literacy, education and income level

ABSTRACT

The increasing prevalence of inadequate health literacy has led various government organizations to develop programs and set agendas related to combating this problem. Health literacy can be defined as "the degree to which individuals have the capacity to obtain, process, and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions". Limited health literacy has been linked to poor health outcomes and increased healthcare costs. An increase in calories consumed from beverages, specifically sugarsweetened beverages, has also been seen over the last few decades. Caloric beverage consumption has been linked to weight gain due to the increase in total energy intake. To date, only one investigation has addressed the relationship between health literacy and sugarsweetened beverage consumption. Additional research in this area could be used to develop interventions aimed at improving health outcomes of low-literate populations. Therefore, the purpose of this investigation was to determine which demographic characteristics serve as predictors of sugar-sweetened beverage consumption, water consumption, milk consumption, and total beverage calories. This study included 344 individuals, who were primarily white or black women with a mean age of 35.2 ± 0.5 years. Assessments included height, weight, resting blood pressure, demographic characteristics, habitual beverage consumption, and health literacy, as measured by the reading comprehension section of the shortened Test of Functional Health Literacy Assessment (S-TOFHLA) (scores range 0-36). Although income and education level varied widely throughout the sample, the majority of study participants had adequate health literacy (34.2 \pm 0.2). Multivariate linear regression analyses found certain variables such as age,

gender, education level, income level, race category, BMI, and S-TOFHLA score to be predictors of water consumption (grams) (R²=0.088, p=0.015), average daily sugar-sweetened beverage kilocalorie consumption (R²=0.186, p<0.001), average daily sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (fluid ounces) (R²=0.038, p=0.013). , average daily beverage consumption (kilocalories) (R²=0.103, p=0.035). Since milk consumption (kilocalories) was not found to be significantly associated (according to bivariate correlations) with any of the demographic characteristics investigated in this study, it was not evaluated further using a linear regression analyses. Due to the significant relationships among a variety of demographic factors including education level, income level, race category, BMI, and S-TOFHLA score with beverage consumption, there is potential for developing effective interventions to decrease sugar-sweetened beverage consumption which target specific populations.

Keywords: beverage patterns, sugar-sweetened beverages, health literacy, income level, education level, water, milk

Background

Approximately 9 out of 10 American adults have difficulty using the health information that is available every day in grocery stores, doctor's offices, and the media¹. Due to the widespread nature of this problem, government and national organizations such as the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), United States Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS), Institute of Medicine (IOM), and National Institutes of Health (NIH) are currently addressing the issue of health literacy^{2,3,4,5}. Furthermore, one of the proposed objectives for Healthy People 2020 is to improve health literacy⁶. Health literacy is most commonly defined as "the degree to which individuals have the capacity to obtain, process, and understand basic health information and services needed to make appropriate health decisions". Health literacy can also be more broadly defined as a person's ability to understand and navigate the health care system effectively. Health literacy not only requires basic literacy but also information and understanding of general health topics⁸.

Limited health literacy has been correlated to poor health outcomes and increased healthcare costs due to decreased use of preventative services⁸. Adequate health literacy is important for self-management of chronic conditions such as diabetes and high blood pressure⁹. Those most at risk for low health literacy include racial and ethnic minorities, older adults, and individuals who have less than a high school degree or general equivalency diploma (GED), low income, or who didn't speak English as their first language, and those with poor health status¹.

Beverage Consumption Patterns and Health

Over the past forty years, beverage consumption patterns have changed dramatically. An increase in calories consumed from beverages has occurred. Data obtained from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 1988-1994 and 1999-2004 show that 63% of those surveyed had consumed a sugar-sweetened beverage that day. This analysis also revealed that daily calorie consumption from sugar-sweetened beverages was 294 kcal¹⁰. Caloric consumption from all types of beverages in 2002 totaled 458 kcal/d which means that 21% of calories are coming from beverages alone¹¹. From 1999-2004, young adults with less than a high school education and people with lower income had the highest contribution of daily calories from sugar-sweetened beverages¹⁰. A study conducted in New York City also found that U.S.-born blacks, Puerto Ricans, and Mexicans/Mexican Americans were twice as likely to consume more than one soda per day compared to whites. Frequent soda consumption was higher in those adults who were overweight or obese and was related to sedentary behaviors¹². In addition, a review of the health literacy literature also found that education level, age, ethnicity, and income were related to heath literacy¹³.

Health Literacy and Beverage Consumption

To our knowledge only one study has evaluated the relationship between health literacy and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption¹⁴. These authors reported that health literacy and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption were inversely related. Specifically, an extra 119 kcal/day was consumed by individuals within the lowest health literacy group as compared to the adequate health literacy group. In addition, dietary quality was assessed via the Healthy Eating Index (HEI) to determine if health literacy impacted dietary quality. The authors found that health

literacy was related to five of the HEI component scores, indicating that, for example, the lower an individual's health literacy, the lower their consumption of fruits and vegetables. Even though socioeconomic status and education levels are often used to predict dietary quality and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption, this investigation showed that health literacy had the strongest relationship with sugar-sweetened beverage consumption and total HEI scores¹⁴. Given the limited information on this topic, and the potential related public health issues, additional research in this area is warranted.

Rationale

If health literacy is an important predictor of overall beverage consumption, water consumption, and/or sugar-sweetened beverage consumption, interventions targeting these factors could be developed. Interventions for low literate populations have already been examined in the areas of arthritis¹⁵, diabetes¹⁶, and a low-fat diet^{17,18}. These studies illustrate how it is possible to employ certain strategies to conduct successful interventions for individuals with less than adequate health literacy. If individuals are better able to understand the health/nutrition information presented to them on a daily basis, this could encourage healthier lifestyle behaviors, which could reduce the incidence of chronic disease and hospital visits¹⁹ in low-literate populations.

Due to the fact that health education materials, specifically those related to nutrition, are usually at or above a 10th grade reading level²⁰ it is necessary for health professionals including dietitians to realize the implications of low health literacy on nutrition. Nutrition labels are a perfect example of this. Studies have shown that individuals, even those with adequate health literacy, have a difficult time reading and understanding nutrition labels²¹. If individuals, especially those

with inadequate health literacy and chronic diseases, are unable to understand nutrition labels they will be unable to properly manage their chronic disease, and more likely to experience significant health complications. This issue may be related to beverage consumption, as individuals with low health literacy are better able to understand nutrition information/nutrition labels it may help reduce consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages, which in turn could decrease chronic disease risk. In addition, research in this area could help increase awareness among health providers as to the importance of delivering health information in a way that is sensitive to individuals with less than adequate health literacy. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine which demographic characteristics serve as predictors of sugar-sweetened beverage consumption, water consumption, milk consumption, and total beverage calories.

Methods

This study was conducted as a joint collaboration between Virginia Tech and the University of Nebraska Medical Center. Data was collected during the fall of 2008. The overall purpose of the study was to evaluate water consumption of families and determine parent's perceptions of water consumption and how it impacts health. To be eligible for the study, individuals needed to be an adult parent between the ages of 19-65 years with at least one child between the ages of 2-17 years living at home. The study consisted of one laboratory session, which lasted about 60 minutes. Assessments included height, measured in meters without shoes using a wall mounted stadiometer; weight, measured in light clothing without shoes, to the nearest 0.2 kg using a physician's balance scale (Seca, Hanover, MD); and resting blood pressure; completion of a water consumption survey, beverage intake questionnaire (BEV-Q)²² and an abbreviated version

of the S-TOFHLA²³. The BEV-Q assesses habitual intake of nineteen different commonly consumed beverages. The abbreviated version of the S-TOFHLA was used in this study due to its ability to test reading comprehension, availability in both English and Spanish, and quick administration time. This abbreviated version consists of 36 reading comprehension questions from the original S-TOFHLA where each question is worth one point. These S-TOFHLA scores were assessed based on a score of 0-16 points being inadequate health literacy, 17-22 points being marginal health literacy, and 23-36 points being adequate health literacy¹⁶. The water consumption survey was used to assess perceptions regarding water consumption and also collected demographic information (ie, age, race/ethnicity, education level, and income level) from study participants. These tools were all self-administered. Upon study completion, participants were compensated with a \$10 Wal-Mart gift card.

Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS statistical analysis software (version 12.0 for Windows, 2003, SPSS, Inc, Chicago, IL). Pearson bivariate correlational analyses were used to asses possible relationships between the continuous variables of BMI, age, or S-TOFHLA score and habitual daily sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal and fluid ounces), water consumption (grams), milk consumption (kcal), and average daily beverage consumption (kcal). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine possible associations of categorical variables including BMI category, S-TOFHLA category, education level, income level, and race category and the aforementioned beverage categories. Post hoc tests were conducted using Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK). Significant relationships were then entered into multivariate linear regression models to determine the relationships between several independent variables (ie, demographic factors) and one dependent variable (ie, sugar-sweetened

beverage consumption). Independent t-tests were also performed to analyze gender differences in beverage consumption. Significance is reported at levels of 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001.

Results

A total of 344 individuals completed the study. Of these, 334 had S-TOFHLA scores. For the purpose of this study, only those participants with S-TOFHLA scores were included. Sample demographic characteristics are presented in Table 2.

The study sample consisted mostly of females with the mean age of 35 years. About 70% of participants were overweight or obese according to their calculated BMI. Over half the sample reported their race as either white or black; however, Native American/American Indian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, multiracial, Hispanic, and Asian races were also represented. In addition, 81% of study participants indicated they had at least completed high school with some reporting having more than a four year college degree. Income varied widely with the majority, 21%, of participants having an annual total household income of \$30,000-\$59,999. The overwhelming majority of participants had adequate health literacy (S-TOFHLA ≥ 23).

Water Consumption

The amount of water habitually consumed (gm) was found to be significantly associated with education level (p=0.020), income level (p=0.017), and race category (p<0.001). In addition, habitual water consumption (gm) differed according to S-TOFHLA category, education levels, income levels, and race category. Those with inadequate health literacy (S-TOFHLA \leq 16) consumed significantly more water grams ($\bar{x} = 1422 \pm 0$) as compared to those with marginal

health literacy (S-TOFHLA 17-22) ($\bar{x} = 341 \pm 108$). Participants with a four year college degree or more consumed significantly more water ($\bar{x} = 1062 \pm 84$ and 1068 ± 67 , respectively) than those who did not graduate from high school ($\bar{x} = 763 \pm 82$). The two highest income categories consumed significantly more water ($\bar{x} = 1050 \pm 64$ and 1095 ± 88 , respectively) than the lowest income category ($\bar{x} = 800 \pm 81$). Whites ($\bar{x} = 1088 \pm 53$) and American Indian/Native Alaskans ($\bar{x} = 968$) in this sample drank significantly more water than blacks ($\bar{x} = 725 \pm 54$).

Sugar-Sweetened Beverage Consumption

Significant correlations were found between S-TOFHLA scores and habitual daily sugarsweetened beverage kilocalories (r= -0.164, p=0.003) as well as with age and habitual daily sugar-sweetened beverage kilocalories (r=-0.154, p=0.029). Also, it was found that men consumed more habitual daily sugar-sweetened beverage kilocalories than women (t= 3.29, p=0.001). Mean daily sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal) was significant according to level of education (p<0.001), level of income (p=0.05), and race category (p<0.001). Group differences according to levels of education and race category were also seen in relation to habitual sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal). Significantly higher consumptions were seen in those who had not graduated high school ($\bar{x} = 354 \pm 53$), graduated high school ($\bar{x} = 372$ \pm 54), or had some college/two year college degree ($\bar{x} = 349 \pm 44$) as compared with those who attained a four year college degree ($\bar{x} = 180 \pm 30$) or higher ($\bar{x} = 120 \pm 21$). In addition, blacks ($\bar{x} = 426 \pm 52$) and American Indian/Native Alaskans ($\bar{x} = 346 \pm 49$) consumed significantly more sugar-sweetened beverage calories than the other race category ($\bar{x} = 226 \pm 32$) and whites ($\bar{x} = 159 \pm 19$). With regard to habitual daily sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (fl. oz.), race category was the only significant relationship (p=0.021). However, the p-value approached

significance in the association between BMI and mean daily sugar-sweetened beverage fluid ounces (r=0.107, p=0.054) and was included in the regression model.

Total Beverage Consumption

Both S-TOFHLA scores (r= -0.141, p=0.01) and age (r= -0.154, p= 0.005) were significantly correlated with average daily habitual total beverage kilocalories. Gender was also associated with daily habitual total beverage kilocalories with men consuming significantly more daily beverage calories than women (t= 2.83, p= 0.005). Significant differences were seen with average total beverage consumption (kcal) and education level (p=0.006), income level (p=0.021), and race category (p=0.001). Group differences according to education level, income level, and race category were also noted. The lowest income group was found to consume more calories from beverages ($\bar{x} = 618 \pm 126$) than the highest income category ($\bar{x} = 304 \pm 31$). Those with more than a four year college degree had lower total habitual daily beverage calorie consumption ($\bar{x} = 332 \pm 31$) as compared to those with a four year college degree ($\bar{x} = 570 \pm 128$), with some college/two year degree ($\bar{x} = 621 \pm 62$), those who graduated high school ($\bar{x} = 690 \pm 81$), and those who did not graduate from high school ($\bar{x} = 676 \pm 84$). Also, blacks consumed significantly more daily beverage calories ($\bar{x} = 771 \pm 81$) than whites ($\bar{x} = 437 \pm 51$) and other races ($\bar{x} = 528 \pm 54$).

BMI category (underweight, normal weight, overweight, obese) treated as a categorical variable was not found to be associated with any of the beverage categories and was therefore not used in any of the regression models described below. Also, milk consumption (kcal) was not found to

be associated with any of the factors examined in this study and was therefore not included in the regression analyses.

Linear Regression Models

Multivariate linear regression models were created based on the significant associations detailed above. As presented in Table 3, regression models for water (gm/day), sugar-sweetened beverage (kcal/day and fl. oz./day), and total beverage (kcal/day) consumption were generated. The models were able to account for more variability in mean daily habitual sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal) (R²=0.186, p<0.001) and average daily beverage kilocalories $(R^2=0.103, p=0.035)$ than in the models for water consumption (gm) $(R^2=0.088, p=0.015)$ and average daily sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (fl. oz.) (R²=0.038, p=0.013). However, none of the models accounted for a high amount of variability. When looking at the significant variables in the regression models it was found that when compared with blacks, whites consumed 0.40 less sugar-sweetened beverage calories per day, 0.18 less sugar-sweetened beverage fluid ounces per day, and 0.30 less water grams per day. American Indians/Native Alaskans consumed 0.28 less sugar-sweetened beverage kilocalories, 0.15 less sugar-sweetened beverage fluid ounces per day, and 0.18 less average daily beverage kilocalories when compared to blacks. In addition, the other race category consumed 0.20 less sugar-sweetened beverage kilocalories per day and 0.13 less sugar-sweetened beverage fluid ounces per day when compared to blacks. The other demographic variables that were analyzed in the linear regression models including age, gender, education level, income level, and S-TOFHLA score were not found to be significant within their respective models.

Discussion

Similar to other studies, we found that higher educational attainment was associated with lower habitual sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal) and that an increase in average daily beverage kilocalories was linked to lower income level 14,24. Data from one investigation found mean habitual sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal) to be 277 for those with some high school, 208 for those with a high school diploma, 171 for those with some college, 160 for those with an associate's or bachelor's degree, and 87 for those with more than a bachelor's degree 14. These findings mirror our reported mean habitual sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal) of 354 for those who did not graduate from high school, 372 for those who graduated from high school, 349 for those with some college or a two year college degree, 180 for those with a four year college degree, and 120 for those with more than a four year college degree. Although our mean consumptions are higher, both investigations follow the same general pattern of decreased consumption with increased education. Comparable results were also found when added sugar consumption (tsp/d) was measured in relation to education level²⁴. In addition, data on added sugar consumption showed increased added sugar consumption with decreased income²⁴. Those findings are similar to our data in which a decrease in average daily beverage calories is associated with an increase in income from the lowest income group to the highest income group (304 kcal to 618 kcal). Previous investigations have also reported associations between education and/or income levels with obesity^{25,26,27}. These associations could be due to the fact that energy-dense foods tend to be less expensive than nutrient-dense foods and therefore are consumed at a higher level in those at lower income levels²⁶. Available food dollars are directly linked to added sugar intake²⁵ and added sugar intake may be a possible contributor to obesity.

Our findings regarding race, specifically that American Indian/Native Alaskan are a group that consumes more beverage calories and sugar-sweetened beverage calories than some other race groups, are consistent with previously conducted studies in which American Indian women reported frequent soda and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption²⁸. However, broader studies looking at total sugar-sweetened beverage consumption for this group as a whole have not been conducted²⁴.

With regard to age and gender, previous investigations have reported an inverse relationship between age and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption and a higher consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages in men than women. Our sample found men consumed approximately 448 sugar-sweetened beverage calories per day while women consumed 259 sugar-sweetened beverage calories. Data from another study found men to consume 302 calories from sugar-sweetened beverages and women to consume 158 calories from sugar-sweetened beverages daily¹⁴. The same pattern was seen when added sugar consumption was analyzed; men consumed 20 tsp/d compared to 14 tsp/d consumed by women²⁴. Our analyses show a significant inverse correlation between age and mean daily habitual sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal) and average daily beverage consumption (kcal). This is similar to results which show younger men and women (18-39 years) consume more added sugars (26 tsp/d, 18 tsp/d, respectively) compared to older men and women (\geq 60 years) (12 tsp/d, 10 tsp/d, respectively) compared to older men and women (\geq 60 years) (12 tsp/d, 10 tsp/d, respectively)²⁴.

Although health literacy has been linked to various poor health outcomes⁸, only one study has evaluated the relationship between health literacy and sugar-sweetened beverages¹⁴. The authors

reported higher sugar-sweetened beverage consumption (kcal) in those with lower health literacy compared to those with higher health literacy which is similar to our findings. The lowest health literacy group in the other study consumed approximately 230 kcal/d from sugar sweetened beverages and our sample men for the lowest health literacy group was 574 kcal/d. The middle health literacy group (possible limited health literacy¹⁴ or marginal health literacy) consumed 197 kcal/d and 397 kcal/d, respectively. Lastly, the lowest consumptions were seen in the adequate health literacy groups in both investigations. Our reported mean was 286 kcal/d while the other study reported 111 kcal/d of sugar-sweetened beverages in their adequate health literacy group¹⁴.

The regression analyses demonstrate that the multiple significant demographic predictors used to determine water consumption, sugar-sweetened beverage consumption, and total beverage consumption were able to account for some variability in these beverage outcomes. This suggests that being able to determine what factors influence an individual's beverage choices may allow for interventions and public health messages to be more tailored. Addressing multiple factors when looking at increasing healthy beverage consumption patterns may improve the chance of creating a successful intervention.

A major strength of this study is that we had a relatively large sample size taken from two different geographic locations. Also, the use of a valid and reliable questionnaire specifically related to beverage consumption to determine beverage consumption patterns is unique because the role of beverage consumption is continuing to be further evaluated in regard to negative health outcomes such as obesity. In addition, our reported mean beverage calorie consumption

were similar to those reported by NHANES from data collected from 1999-2004. The NHANES data suggests total beverage calories were approximately 458 kcal/d¹¹ and the mean in this sample was 581 kcal/d. Average sugar-sweetened beverage consumption from NHANES was 294 kcal/d¹⁰ while mean consumption in this sample was 289 kcal/d. Total milk calories were also comparable between NHANES data and this investigation, with reported calories being 185 kcal/d¹⁰ and 157 kcal/d, respectively. Lastly, water (fl. oz.) was reported by NHANES to be 45 fl.oz./d¹¹ and by our study to be 31 fl.oz./d. This illustrates that our sample was fairly representative of the nation as a whole in terms of beverage consumption patterns which may speak to the generalizability of these findings.

The limitations of this analysis are recognized. Although this sample varies in race, education, and income, there is little variation among health literacy scores. This could be due to the difficulty associated with recruiting low-literate populations for research studies. It is also possible that tools, such as the S-TOFHLA, were not properly administered to study participants. Study participants were supposed to complete the test on their own, but it is possible that help was given by research staff. In addition, only the reading comprehension section of the S-TOFHLA was given and then used to calculate health literacy scores. Leaving out the numeracy section may have increased the health literacy scores. Finally, self-reported data such as the water consumption survey and BEV-Q could be susceptible to reporting error.

Due to the recent trends in increased weight status and sugar-sweetened beverage consumption it is necessary to develop successful interventions based on the factors which influence caloric beverage consumption. Mentions of high added sugar consumption from the American Heart

Association, Office of the Surgeon General, and the Dietary Guidelines committee illustrate the need for American's to change their dietary habits in order to avoid negative health outcomes. Although we were unable to find demographic variables from our sample that were significantly associated with milk consumption, which warrants more research, we were able to determine significant predictors for the other beverage categories. Findings from this analysis demonstrate what sub-groups may be particularly prone to higher sugar-sweetened beverage consumption, allowing for health providers and government organizations to target health messages to certain members of the population.

Table 2: Sample demographic characteristics (n=334).

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Mean ± SEM	Range	
	(n)	(%)			
Age			35.2 ± 0.5	18-65	
Gender					
Male	51	15.3			
Female	282	84.4			
$BMI (kg/m^2)$			30.6 ± 0.4	17.2-57.5	
BMI Category (kg/m ²)					
Underweight (<18.5)	4	12			
Normal Weight (18.5-24.9)	82	24.6			
Overweight (25-29.9)	99	29.6			
Obese (≥ 30)	143	42.8			
Race					
White	115	34.4			
Black	95	28.4			
American Indian/Native	76	22.8			
American					
Other ^a	47	14.1			
Education Level					
Did not graduate HS	43	12.9			
HS graduate	78	23.4			
Some college/ 2 yr. degree	99	29.6			
4 yr. college graduate	41	12.3			
More than 4 yr. degree	65	19.5			
Income Level					
\$<10,000 - 29,999	51	15.3			
\$30,000 - 59,999	44	21.3			
\$60,000 or more	63	18.9			
S-TOFHLA Score			34.2 ± 0.2	13-36	
Adequate health literacy (23-36)	329	98.5			
Marginal health literacy (17-22)	3	0.9			
Inadequate health literacy (0-16)	2	0.6			

^aOther includes Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Multiracial, and Hispanic.

Table 3: Using demographic variables, BMI, and S-TOFHLA scores to predict sugar-sweetened beverage intake (kcal/day, fl oz/day), water intake (grams/day), and total

beverage intake (kcal/day).

Demographic Variables	SSB (ko	cal/d)	SSB (fl. oz./d) Water (gm/d)		(gm/d)	Total Beverage (kcal/d)		
	b	p-value	b	p-value	b	p-value	b	p-value
Age	0.007	0.932					-0.038	0.650
Gender	-0.152	0.045					-0.056	0.482
BMI			0.094	0.091				
Race ^a								
White	-0.401	<0.001	-0.175	0.009	0.302	0.008	-0.157	0.177
Am. Indian/ Native Alaskan	-0.279	0.001	-0.150	0.021	0.096	0.277	-0.175	0.055
Other ^b	-0.203	0.022	-0.128	0.040	0.124	0.176	-0.098	0.291
Education level	-0.133	0.216			0.021	0.848	0.064	0.568
Income level	-0.001	0.991			0.065	0.497	-0.175	0.086
S-TOFHLA score	0.026	0.764					-0.136	0.133
R-squared	0.186		0.038	<u> </u>	0.088	<u> </u>	0.103	
Model significance	p< 0.00	1	p= 0.01	3	p= 0.01	15	p= 0.035	

^aBlack was used as the base group for the race variable.

bOther includes Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, Multiracial, and Hispanic.

References

- 1. Kutner M, Greenberg E, Jin Y, Paulsen C. *The health literacy of America's adults: results from the 2003 national assessment of adult literacy (NCES 2006-483)*: U.S. Department of Education.;2006.
- 2. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Health Literacy: Accurate, Accessible and Actionable Health Information for All. 2011; www.cdc.gov/healthliteracy. Accessed April 17, 2011.
- 3. United StatesDepartment of Health and Human Services. National Action Plan to Improve Health Literacy. 2010; www.dhhs.gov/communication/HLActionPlan/.
 Accessed April 17, 2011.
- 4. Institutes of Medicine Committee on Health Literacy. Health Literacy: A Prescription to End Confusion. 2004; www.iom.edu/Reports/2004/Health-Literacy-A-Prescription-To-End-Confusion.aspx. Accessed April 17, 2011.
- National Institue of Health. Clear Communication: An NIH Health Literacy Initiative.
 2011; www.nih.gov/clearcommunication/healthliteracy.htm. Accessed April 17, 2011.
- 6. Healthy People 2020. Health Communication and Health Information Technology.
 http://www.healthypeople.gov/2020/topicsobjectives2020/objectiveslist.aspx?topicid=18.
 Accessed December 19, 2010.
- **7.** Baker DW. The meaning and the measure of health literacy. *J Gen Int Med.* 2006;21:878-873.
- 8. United States Department of Health and Human Services. Quick Guide to Health Literacy Fact Sheet.

- http://www.health.gov/communication/literacy/quickguide/factsbasic.htm. Accessed December 19, 2010.
- **9.** Ad Hoc Committee on Health Literacy for the Council of Scientific Affairs AMA. Health literacy, report of the council on scientific affairs. *JAMA*. 1999;281:552-557.
- **10.** Bleich SN, Wang YC, Wang Y, Gortmaker SL. Increasing consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages among US adults: 1988-1994 to 1999-2004. *Am J Clin Nutr.* Jan 2009;89(1):372-381.
- **11.** Duffey KJ, Popkin BM. Shifts in patterns and consumption of beverages between 1965 and 2002. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. Nov 2007;15(11):2739-2747.
- 12. Rehm CD, Matte TD, Van Wye G, Young C, Frieden TR. Demographic and behavioral factors associated with daily sugar-sweetened soda consumption in New York City adults. *J Urban Health*. May 2008;85(3):375-385.
- **13.** Paasche-Orlow MK, Parker RM, Gazmararian JA, Nielsen-Bohlman LT, Rudd RR. The prevalence of limited health literacy. *J Gen Intern Med.* Feb 2005;20(2):175-184.
- **14.** Zoellner JM, You W, Connell C, Smith-Ray RL, Allen K, Tucker KL, Davy BM, Estabrooks PA. Health literacy is associated with healthy eating index scores and sugar-sweetened beverage intake: findings from the rural lower Mississippi Delta. *J Am Diet Assoc*, in press.
- 15. Rudd RE, Blanch DC, Gall V, Chibnik LB, Wright EA, Reichmann W, Liang MH, Katz JN. A randomized controlled trial of an intervention to reduce low literacy barriers in inflammatory arthritis management. *Patient Educ Couns*. Jun 2009;75(3):334-339.

- Schillinger D, Grumbach K, Piette J, Wang F, Osmond D, Daher C, Palacios J, Sullivan GD, Bindman AB. Association of health literacy with diabetes outcomes. *JAMA*. Jul 24-31 2002;288(4):475-482.
- 17. Howard-Pitney B, Winkleby MA, Albright CL, Bruce B, Fortmann SP. The Stanford Nutrition Action Program: a dietary fat intervention for low-literacy adults. *Am J Public Health*. Dec 1997;87(12):1971-1976.
- 18. Winkleby MA, Howard-Pitney B, Albright CA, Bruce B, Kraemer HC, Fortmann SP. Predicting achievement of a low-fat diet: a nutrition intervention for adults with low literacy skills. *Prev Med.* Nov-Dec 1997;26(6):874-882.
- **19.** Baker DW, Parker RM, Williams MV, Clark WS. Health literacy and the risk of hospital admission. *J Gen Intern Med.* Dec 1998;13(12):791-798.
- **20.** Hartman TJ, McCarthy PR, Park RJ, Schuster E, Kushi LH. Results of a community-based low-literacy nutrition education program. *J Community Health*. Oct 1997;22(5):325-341.
- 21. Rothman RL, Housam R, Weiss H, Davis D, Gregory R, Gebretsadik T, Shintani A, Elasy TA. Patient understanding of food labels: the role of literacy and numeracy. *Am J Prev Med.* Nov 2006;31(5):391-398.
- **22.** Hedrick VE, Comber DL, Estabrooks PA, Savla J, Davy BM. The beverage intake questionnaire: determining initial validity and reliability. *J Am Diet Assoc*. Aug 2010;110(8):1227-1232.
- **23.** Baker DW, Williams MV, Parker RM, Gazmararian JA, Nurss J. Development of a brief test to measure functional health literacy. *Patient Educ Couns*. Sep 1999;38(1):33-42.

- 24. Thompson FE, McNeel TS, Dowling EC, Midthune D, Morrissette M, Zeruto CA. Interrelationships of added sugars intake, socioeconomic status, and race/ethnicity in adults in the United States: National Health Interview Survey, 2005. *J Am Diet Assoc*. Aug 2009;109(8):1376-1383.
- **25.** Drewnowski A, Specter SE. Poverty and obesity: the role of energy density and energy costs. *Am J Clin Nutr.* Jan 2004;79(1):6-16.
- **26.** Drewnowski A. The real contribution of added sugars and fats to obesity. *Epidemiol Rev.* 2007;29:160-171.
- 27. McLaren L. Socioeconomic status and obesity. *Epidemiol Rev.* 2007;29:29-48.
- **28.** Harnack L, Sherwood N, Story M. Diet and physical activity patterns of urban American Indian women. *Am J Health Promot*. Mar-Apr 1999;13(4):233-236, iii.

Ch. 3: Conclusions and Future Directions

The results of this investigation show the increased need for beverage consumption patterns to be addressed based on demographic factors such as education level, income level, and/or race/ethnicity. Specifically, those with increased income tended to consume more water and less sugar-sweetened beverages, leading to a lower overall total beverage kilocalorie (energy) consumption. Individuals with higher educational attainment also tended to consume more water and had lower total beverage kilocalorie consumption. Blacks consumed more total beverage kilocalories than whites and other races and less water than whites and American Indian/Native Alaskans. In addition, the combination of a variety of significant associations between different demographic factors and specific beverages determined significant predictors of water, sugar-sweetened beverage (kcal), and daily beverage (kcal) consumption. Many associations reported were consistent with existing literature regarding amounts of calories consumed, consumption of added sugars, and the relationship between health literacy and sugar-sweetened beverages^{1,2,3,4}. Several studies have examined factors that influence added sugar intake, and these findings were similar to that reported in the literature^{5,6,7}.

In order to continue in this line of work to improve habitual beverage consumption patterns, future investigations should investigate mechanistic links between increased sugar-sweetened beverage consumption and obesity as well as ways to intervene on beverage consumption behaviors. The heightened awareness of the issue of health literacy and its relationship to obesity and chronic disease is evident in recent publications by major health organizations. The most recent United States Dietary Guidelines and the American Heart Association have addressed sugar-sweetened beverages in their recommendations^{3,8}. Examples of the broader

public health impact of these guidelines have been recently reported in the media. The mayor of Boston has placed a ban on beverage sales in public buildings that includes regular sodas, presweetened ice teas, coffee drinks, energy drinks, juice drinks, and sports drinks in order to make it easier for the citizens of Boston to make healthier choices⁹. San Francisco has also made strides to promote healthier beverage choices by placing hydration stations (water fountains specifically made for reusable water bottles) in a newly renovated portion of their airport. The goal is to help reduce waste from plastic water bottles; however, it may also increase water consumption among individuals who travel and work within the airport¹⁰.

Due to this, there needs to be development of large scale population based interventions targeting healthier beverage consumption patterns among individuals with limited health literacy and lower education and income levels, since those populations have been reported at higher risk for poor beverage consumption patterns. For example, an intervention targeting a low health literate population could employ community-based participatory research techniques to increase the relevance of the information delivered and ensure its delivery is appropriate. Past interventions have aimed at making information more available to low-literate populations with some success. This has been done in a variety of ways including utilizing pictographs, booklets, pamphlets, videos, and changing readability levels of pre-existing materials¹¹. Once the effectiveness of these types of interventions are determined, necessary changes can be made and local and national programs can be developed. In addition, there are economic benefits to low-income families in that water can put less strain on a family's budget than sugar-sweetened beverages. Overall, this work is important because of the rise of obesity and chronic disease especially

among health disparate individuals. Beverage consumption is an area that can be targeted as a way to encourage individuals to adopt healthier behaviors.

References

- **1.** Duffey KJ, Popkin BM. Shifts in patterns and consumption of beverages between 1965 and 2002. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. Nov 2007;15(11):2739-2747.
- 2. Bleich SN, Wang YC, Wang Y, Gortmaker SL. Increasing consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages among US adults: 1988-1994 to 1999-2004. *Am J Clin Nutr.* Jan 2009;89(1):372-381.
- Johnson RK, Appel LJ, Brands M, Howard BV, Lefevre M, Lustig RH, Sacks F, Steffen LM, Wylie-Rosett J. Dietary sugars intake and cardiovascular health: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. Sep 15 2009;120(11):1011-1020.
- **4.** Zoellner JM, You W, Connell C, Smith-Ray RL, Allen K, Tucker KL, Davy BM, Estabrooks PA. Health literacy is associated with healthy eating index scores and sugar-sweetened beverage intake: findings from the rural lower Mississippi Delta. *J Am Diet Assoc.*, in press.
- Thompson FE, McNeel TS, Dowling EC, Midthune D, Morrissette M, Zeruto CA. Interrelationships of added sugars intake, socioeconomic status, and race/ethnicity in adults in the United States: National Health Interview Survey, 2005. *J Am Diet Assoc*. Aug 2009;109(8):1376-1383.
- **6.** Drewnowski A, Specter SE. Poverty and obesity: the role of energy density and energy costs. *Am J Clin Nutr.* Jan 2004;79(1):6-16.
- 7. Harnack L, Sherwood N, Story M. Diet and physical activity patterns of urban American Indian women. *Am J Health Promot*. Mar-Apr 1999;13(4):233-236, iii.

- **8.** United States Department of Agriculture and United States Department of Health and Human Services. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans*. 2010.
- 9. City of Boston. Boston Co. Mayor Menino Issues Order to End Sugary Drink Sales on City Property. 2011; http://www.cityofboston.gov/news/default.aspx?id=5051. Accessed April 7, 2011.
- 10. Cowan L. SFO's Gorgeous New Terminal 2 Aims to Be First LEED Gold Airport Terminal in U.S. 2011; http://www.stumbleupon.com/su/5WrET4/inhabitat.com/san-francisco-airport-reveals-new-termina-2-to-be-first-leed-gold-certified-u-s-terminal/.
 Accessed April 11, 2011.
- 11. Berkman ND, DeWalt DA, Pignone MP, Sheridan SL, Lohr KN, Lux L, Sutton SF, Swinson T, AJ B. Literacy and Health Outcomes. Evidence Report/Technology Assessment No. 87. (Prepared by RTI International-University of North Carolina Evidence-based Practice Center under Contract No. 290-02-0016). AHRQ Publication NO. 04-E007-2. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality;2004.

APPENDIX A: Institutional Review Board Approval



Office of Research Compliance

Institutional Review Board 2000 Kraft Drive, Suite 2000 (0497) Blacksburg, Virginia 24061 540/231-4991 Fax 540/231-0959 e-mail moored@vt.edu

www.irb.vt.edu

August 7, 2008 FWA00000572(expires 1/20/2010)
IRB # is IRB00000667

MEMORANDUM

DATE:

TO: Brenda M. Davy

Valisa Respress

Approval date: 8/7/2008

Continuing Review Due Date:7/23/2009

Expiration Date: 8/6/2009

FROM: David M. Moore

SUBJECT: IRB Exp

IRB Expedited Approval: "Health Literacy and Parental Perceptions About Water

Consumption and Its Impact on Health", IRB # 08-459

This memo is regarding the above-mentioned protocol. The proposed research is eligible for expedited review according to the specifications authorized by 45 CFR 46.110 and 21 CFR 56.110. As Chair of the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board, I have granted approval to the study for a period of 12 months, effective August 7, 2008.

As an investigator of human subjects, your responsibilities include the following:

- Report promptly proposed changes in previously approved human subject research
 activities to the IRB, including changes to your study forms, procedures and
 investigators, regardless of how minor. The proposed changes must not be initiated
 without IRB review and approval, except where necessary to eliminate apparent
 immediate hazards to the subjects.
- 2. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.
- 3. Report promptly to the IRB of the study's closing (i.e., data collecting and data analysis complete at Virginia Tech). If the study is to continue past the expiration date (listed above), investigators must submit a request for continuing review prior to the continuing review due date (listed above). It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain re-approval from the IRB before the study's expiration date.
- 4. If re-approval is not obtained (unless the study has been reported to the IRB as closed) prior to the expiration date, all activities involving human subjects and data analysis must cease immediately, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects.

Important:

If you are conducting **federally funded non-exempt research**, please send the applicable OSP/grant proposal to the IRB office, once available. OSP funds may not be released until the IRB has compared and found consistent the proposal and related IRB application.

cc: File



Office of Research Compliance

Institutional Review Board 2000 Kraft Drive, Suite 2000 (0497) Blacksburg, Virginia 24061 540/231-4991 Fax 540/231-0959 e-mail moored@vt.edu

FWA00000572(expires 1/20/2010)

www.irb.vt.edu IRB # is IRB00000667

DATE: September 1, 2008

MEMORANDUM

TO: Brenda M. Davy

Valisa Respress

David M. Moore FROM:

Approval date: 8/7/2008

Continuing Review Due Date:7/23/2009

Expiration Date: 8/6/2009

SUBJECT: IRB Amendment 1 Approval: "Health Literacy and Parental Perceptions About

Water Consumption and Its Impact on Health", IRB # 08-459

This memo is regarding the above referenced protocol which was previously granted approval by the IRB on August 7, 2008. You subsequently requested permission to amend your IRB application. Since the requested amendment is nonsubstantive in nature, I, as Chair of the Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board, have granted approval for requested protocol amendment, effective as of September 1, 2008. The anniversary date will remain the same as the original approval date.

As an investigator of human subjects, your responsibilities include the following:

- 1. Report promptly proposed changes in previously approved human subject research activities to the IRB, including changes to your study forms, procedures and investigators, regardless of how minor. The proposed changes must not be initiated without IRB review and approval, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects.
- 2. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.
- 3. Report promptly to the IRB of the study's closing (i.e., data collecting and data analysis complete at Virginia Tech). If the study is to continue past the expiration date (listed above), investigators must submit a request for continuing review prior to the continuing review due date (listed above). It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain re-approval from the IRB before the study's expiration date.
- If re-approval is not obtained (unless the study has been reported to the IRB as 4. closed) prior to the expiration date, all activities involving human subjects and data analysis must cease immediately, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects.

cc: File



Office of Research Compliance

Institutional Review Board 2000 Kraft Drive, Suite 2000 (0497) Blacksburg, Virginia 24060 540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959 e-mail irb@vt.edu Website: www.irb.vt.edu

MEMORANDUM

DATE: July 8, 2010

TO: Brenda M. Davy, Valisa Respress

FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires June 13, 2011)

PROTOCOL TITLE: Health Literacy and Parental Perceptions About Water Consumption and Its

Impact on Health

IRB NUMBER: 08-459

Effective August 7, 2010, the Virginia Tech IRB Administrator, Carmen T. Green, approved the continuation request for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report promptly to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm (please review before the commencement of your research).

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Approved as: Expedited, under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 7

Protocol Approval Date: 8/7/2010 (protocol's initial approval date: 8/7/2008)

Protocol Expiration Date: 8/6/2011

Continuing Review Due Date*: 7/23/2011

*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federally regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals / work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

Date*	OSP Numbe	r Sponsor	Grant Comparison Conducted?

^{*}Date this proposal number was compared, assessed as not requiring comparison, or comparison information was revised.

If this IRB protocol is to cover any other grant proposals, please contact the IRB office (irbadmin@vt.edu) immediately.

cc: File