



STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS AS A FACTOR IN THE DIETARY  
QUALITY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

by

MARGARET J. MALL

B.S., Kansas State University, 1983

---

A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

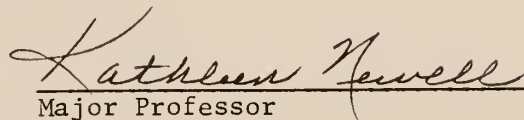
MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Foods and Nutrition

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY  
Manhattan, Kansas

1987

Approved by:

  
Major Professor

U  
668  
4  
N  
87  
34  
2

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ALL207 309163

	Page
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
REVIEW OF LITERATURE . . . . .	4
Stress and university students . . . . .	4
Stressors . . . . .	4
Stress responses . . . . .	7
Stress/health status relationship . . . . .	11
Nutrition and university students . . . . .	17
Stress-related food intake . . . . .	17
Dietary studies . . . . .	22
Dietary quality . . . . .	22
Meal-skipping patterns . . . . .	26
Snacking behavior . . . . .	27
METHODS . . . . .	31
Approval and consent . . . . .	31
Stressful life event measurement . . . . .	31
Dietary evaluation . . . . .	32
Data analysis . . . . .	35
Demographic information . . . . .	35
College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	36
Food frequency . . . . .	37
Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs) . . . . .	37
Interrelationships among the variables . . . . .	38
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION . . . . .	40

	Page
Characteristics of the university students . . . . .	40
Meal-skipping patterns . . . . .	42
Activity levels . . . . .	43
College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	45
Frequency responses . . . . .	45
Total Life Change Units (LCUs) and total frequency of CSRE events . . . . .	48
Dietary evaluation of university students from food frequency questionnaire . . . . .	53
Energy and nutrient intakes . . . . .	53
Percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances . . . . .	56
Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs) . . . . .	64
Intercorrelations among CSRE variables, quality of diet, nutrient intakes, meal patterns, and reported alcohol consumption . . . . .	66
Correlations among CSRE variables and percent- ages of the 1980 RDAs for energy, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, and iron . . . . .	66
Correlations among CSRE variables and MARs . . . . .	70
Correlations among total LCU scores and dietary intakes of sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol . . . . .	71
Correlations among CSRE variables, MARs, and meal patterns . . . . .	72
Correlations among reported alcohol consumption, meal patterns, percentages of the 1980 RDAs for energy, ascorbic acid, and vitamin A, and total LCU scores . . . . .	74
Multiple regression analyses of the effect of stressful life events on the quality of diets of university students . . . . .	75

	Page
SUMMARY . . . . .	80
REFERENCES . . . . .	82
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . . .	91
APPENDICES . . . . .	92
A. Life Change Unit (LCU) values on the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) listed in descending order . . . . .	93
B. Approval and consent . . . . .	96
C. College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	99
D. Quantifiable food frequency instrument . . . . .	101
E. Individual percentages of the 1980 RDAs and MARs (including and excluding energy) for university students (N = 20) from food frequency data . . . . .	106
F. Percentage frequency distributions of student responses to College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	109
G. Individual total Life Change Units (LCUs) for university women (N = 75) and men (N = 132) from College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	113
H. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs, and MARs (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) and men (N = 132) from food frequency data . . . . .	116

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Life Change Unit (LCU) values on the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) listed in descending order . . . . .	94
2. Individual percentages of the 1980 RDAs and MARs (including and excluding energy) for university students (N = 20) from 3-day food records and food frequency data . . . . .	107
3. Characteristics of the university students . . . . .	41
4. Means and standard errors of means for self-reported number of meals skipped per week by university students . . . . .	43
5. Means and standard errors of means for self-reported activity levels of university students . . . . .	44
6. Percentage frequency distribution of student responses to College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	110
7. A comparison of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) events reported by fifty percent or greater of sampled students . . . . .	47
8. Rank order of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) events experienced one or more times during the last year . . . . .	49
9. Student's t-test results for mean sex differences on the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	50
10. Individual total Life Change Units (LCUs) for university women (N = 75) from College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	114
11. Individual total Life Change Units (LCUs) for university men (N = 132) from College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) . . . . .	115
12. Frequency distribution of total Life Change Units (LCUs) for university students . . . . .	52

Table	Page
13. Means and standard errors of means for a composite day's energy and nutrient intakes of university students from food frequency data . . . . .	54
14. Recommended Dietary Allowances for university-age students . . . . .	58
15. Means and standard errors of means for percentages of the Recommended Dietary Allowances for a composite day's energy and nutrient intakes of university students from food frequency data . . . . .	59
16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs, and MARS (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data . . . . .	117
17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs, and MARS (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data . . . . .	124
18. Means and standard errors for Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARS) of university students from food frequency data . . . . .	65
19. Percentages of university students in selected ranges of Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARS) . . . . .	65
20. Intercorrelations among College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) variables, Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARS), percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs), nutrient intakes, and reported alcohol consumption for university women (N = 75) and men (N = 132) . . . . .	67
21. Intercorrelations among total life Change Units (LCUs), reported alcohol consumption, dietary intakes of ascorbic acid and vitamin A, and meal-skipping patterns for university women (N = 9) with MARS less than 80 . . . . .	69
22. Intercorrelations among College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) variables, Mean Adequacy ratios (MARS), meal-skipping patterns, and reported alcohol consumption for university women (N = 75) and men (N = 132) . . . . .	73

23.	Regression analysis of the relationships of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) variables to diet quality of university women (N = 75) from food frequency data . . . . .	76
24.	Regression analysis of the relationships of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) variables to diet quality of university men (N = 132) from food frequency data . . . . .	77



## INTRODUCTION

Stress is ubiquitous in our modern society. It may originate with various types of stimuli or stressors: biological (illness, injury, substance abuse), psychological (threats to self-esteem, fear of failure), sociological (sexual inequalities, anomic feelings), and philosophical (purpose in life, career goals) (1). The contemporary nature of stressors has been markedly altered; "stressors that were originally thought of as purely somatic in nature--today regarded as secondary stressors--have been outnumbered and largely replaced by non-somatic, primary stressors" (2).

Endocrinologist, Hans Selye, found that regardless of the origin of a stressor the physiological response is basically the same (3). A series of neuroendocrine and metabolic adjustments ensue, resulting in an accelerated cardiac and respiratory rate, increased blood pressure, elevated levels of both blood glucose and lipids, and a disruption in the digestive processes (4). Selye has termed this phenomena of stress reactivity as "the non-specific response of the body to any demand" (3). Thus, stress requires every organism to react with some degree of adaptability; the degree is contingent upon the type, magnitude, and number of stressors imposed, genetic predisposition, sex, age, and other "conditioning factors" (5,6). Metabolic adjustments to stress could theoretically alter nutritional requirements (2,7), yet evidence to indicate an increased need for nutrients during stress is lacking (8,9). Good nutritional status, however, is a powerful determinant, or "conditioning factor" that may determine how well an individual

will respond to stress (5,10). Nutritional status could actually determine whether exposure to stress would be met by physiological adaptation or contribute to "diseases of adaptation" (5,6).

Psychosocial epidemiological researchers have conceptualized stress as the need to adapt to stressful life events (SLEs) (11,12). Utilizing this concept in their research, these authors have found university populations to be a subpopulation experiencing significant amounts of stress (13-17). One of those stressors may be a change in eating habits (13-17). Stress has been demonstrated to result in either an increased or decreased food intake, depending upon the individual pattern of response (18-20). Sex and age of the respondent are important variables in this response pattern (21). Either response may be indicative of poor dietary practices due to the fact that over-, as well as under-nutrition, is an undesirable health status (22). Studies also show that many individuals, in response to stress, select diets high in fat (particularly saturated fats), sugars and salt, and low in fiber (23). This type of dietary intake pattern is not congruent with present recommendations (24).

Psychosocial epidemiologists have stated that the "objective mediators and/or moderators" of the stress-illness relationship should engage research attention (11,12). Because stress and dietary quality have been found to be independently associated with various disease processes, and because stress has been found to influence appetite and eating behaviors, it was desirable to investigate the relationship between stress levels and dietary quality. The objectives of this study were:

- (1) to assess dietary intake data from a university population through the use of a self-administered food frequency instrument.
- (2) to assess the level of life stress of university students through the use of a life-change type instrument.
- (3) to investigate the relationship between stress and dietary quality of university students.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### Stress and university students

Stressors. In the late 1960s, a longitudinal Study of Student Development (SSD) was conducted at Kansas State University (17). This study was unique in that it emphasized the importance of looking at students as physical, as well as sociopsychological beings. In weekly group discussions during the physiological phase of the SSD, the following stressors were identified: 1) concern with weight control and body image; anxiety appeared to affect food intake, with food sometimes serving as a comfort for the troubled student; 2) sedentary lifestyle; participants frequently mentioned that they had less time for physical exercise than they had prior to entering college; 3) altered sleeping habits; 4) psychological fatigue; students often experienced a loss of energy linked to inability to cope successfully with boredom, fear, worry, and indecision. Selye (4) conceptualized the physiological stress response as being triphasic in nature: 1) alarm reaction (the familiar 'fight or flight' response); 2) stage of resistance; a homeostatic response; 3) stage of exhaustion. The above-mentioned loss of energy is characteristic of the third, and final, response stage to stressors.

The Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) was devised by Holmes and Rahe (25) to measure the perceived impact of various life-change events in terms of the degree of readjustment required. Anderson (14) administered the SRRS to university students in order to determine the relevance of the SRRS events to this population, omitting those

events deemed irrelevant, e.g., son or daughter leaving home, and including those determined relevant, e.g., change in dating habits. Anderson then presented the revised SRRS to 284 college students, instructing them to provide estimates of the amount of readjustment required for each of 47 events in relationship to the readjustment associated with entering college. College was arbitrarily assigned the value of 500. Mean event scores were then divided by ten to obtain more workable figures. Spearman rho coefficient of correlation showed a high agreement among male and female university students as to the amount of readjustment required (0.945). Anderson's revised SRRS with its population specific life-change event values was called the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) (Appendix A).

Stress level was measured by Greenberg (13) in a Northeastern university population through the use of the CSRE. His results reaffirmed those of the Kansas State university researchers some ten years earlier. He concluded that stress management/intervention should pertain to the management of life situations found to change as a result of the college experience, for example, how to adjust recreation, eating, sleeping, and work in order to minimize the destructive consequences of stress.

Life-change event data were collected from a midwestern university population for the purpose of examining the relationships between life event measures and grade point average (GPAs) over a three-year period (26). Significant negative correlations were determined between life stress scores and both first and second year GPAs. A threshold effect was found whereby those individuals experiencing 12

or more events had a significantly greater negative linear relationship to GPAs compared to those experiencing less than 12 events. Results indicated that three events occurred frequently among poorer students: 1) change in recreation, 2) change in work responsibilities, 3) change to new line of work.

Contemporary life-change event values from a university population for the 43 events on the original SRRS were collected in a study conducted in 1984 (27). The Spearman rank-difference correlation between the readjustment values determined by Holmes and Rahe (25) and this study was 0.86 ( $p < 0.001$ ), suggesting that, in general, perceptions of readjustment were relatively constant over time and between the older Holmes and Rahe sample and this college-age populace. Substantial differences, however, were detected in readjustment values assigned to specific events. Mean values provided by the university sample were more than 30 units greater, as compared to original SRRS values, for three events: 1) death of close friend, 2) pregnancy, 3) foreclosure of mortgage or loan. Overall, college students rated the stressfulness of the 43 items an average of 15.56 units more stressful than the older respondents in 1967. This finding also is in agreement with that reported by Anderson (14). A second focus of this research project was to examine the relationship between life-change event scores and indices of classroom performance, e.g., exam grades and total course points. All indices of student performance were associated negatively with life events stress, supporting the previous findings of Lloyd et al. (26).

Strang (28) measured time management anxiety in 490 undergraduate

students with a ten-item time management anxiety scale (TMAS). Female students consistently demonstrated more anxiety associated with their management of personal time. A chi-square analysis found a difference ( $p < 0.02$ ) in male/female frequencies of high, low and indeterminant associations with the TMAS. Mean anxiety scores on eight of the ten items were lower for males compared to females, with four of the comparisons yielding statistically significant differences: 1) I feel guilty when I take off time to relax. 2) I feel as if I am a slave to time. 3) Wasting time disturbs me. 4) It embarrasses me when I am at a checkout counter in a store and my interaction with the cashier takes longer than usual, thus holding up other patrons. Strang concluded that additional knowledge must be sought pertaining to whether time management anxiety translates into behavioral outcomes.

Stress responses. Stress responses in male and female engineering students were investigated by Collins and Frankenhaeuser (29). Previous research, in which neuroendocrine response upon exposure to psychosocial stress was examined, revealed significant sex differences. These researchers postulated that female engineering students might be less likely to exhibit a neuroendocrine pattern of response influenced to a great extent by learned sex-role patterns of behavior/response. Fourteen male and fourteen female students were subjected to a "cognitive-conflict task"; heart rate, serum cortisol, adrenaline, noradrenaline, and self-reports served as stress indices. These parameters were then compared to those obtained under control conditions. Females performed slightly better than males in the

cognitive-conflict task; neither sex's performance correlated with any physiological measure. The neuroendocrine variables were very similar across sex in the control condition; under stress, both sexes had higher hormone excretion rates, with significant increases in adrenaline and cortisol for males compared to females. Differences between experimental conditions within each sex group were analyzed by t-tests. Females reported a significant increase in adrenaline ( $p < 0.01$ ), whereas the male group's adrenaline ( $p < 0.001$ ) and cortisol ( $p < 0.05$ ) were significantly increased upon exposure to the stress-inducing situation. Both sexes had significant elevations in heart rate upon exposure to the experimental condition, with the female group's mean heart rate significantly elevated above the male group's rate under stress. Self-reported measures, e.g., perceived effort, concentration, interest, fatigue, sense of time pressure, irritation, revealed that males reported greater increases, compared to females, in these parameters during stress as compared with the control condition, as well as more pronounced changes within the stress session as compared to their female counterparts. This subjective involvement with the performance task exhibited by male students, however, was not reflected in more efficient performance.

Twenty college students were followed for a 2½ month academic quarter by Francis (30), who collected biochemical indicators of stress (serum cortisol; high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, HDLC; and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, LDLC) in conjunction with psychometric measures of stress at bimonthly intervals. Peak periods of stress occurred at the beginning of the academic quarter, at



midterm, and during final examinations. Data indicated that peak periods of stress were followed closely with significant elevations in total serum cholesterol and significant decreases in the ratio of HDLC/total cholesterol. Observed changes in serum cortisol were correlated positively with changes in anxiety and depression, increasing in like manner with peak periods of measured stress. Francis suggested that although internal psychophysiological mechanisms undoubtedly influence standard risk factors associated with the pathogenesis of coronary heart disease, this influence may be mediated through behavioral compensations, e.g., diet, exercise, and stress-management techniques.

Flynn et al. (31) at the University of Missouri conducted a longitudinal prospective study to investigate the effects of emotional pressure associated with exams on blood pressure, blood lipids [serum total cholesterol (TC), HDLC, and serum triglyceride (TG)] of 26 male medical students consuming a controlled diet with and without egg consumption. Each subject served as his own control during the six month study; two eggs were eaten daily for 3 months and no eggs were eaten during the other 3 month period. Subjects consumed three meals daily, which supplied the Recommended Dietary Allowances, in a clinical research unit. During the study, students did not change their life style or exercise patterns, and were expected to maintain their weight within one kilogram of baseline weight. Eating eggs daily and the stress of final exams resulted in no significant difference in mean serum TC compared to baseline values. This finding was in contrast to that reported by Francis (30); the discrepancy

may be explained by the fact that Flynn et al. assayed for TC when exams were in progress, whereas Francis found a rise in TC approximately 10-12 days following a peak period of exam-induced stress. Likewise, the mean values for HDLC did not differ from baseline with egg ingestion or with the addition of examination stress. When eggs were not eaten, however, mean HDLC was significantly less at exam time. The researchers acknowledged that the lowering of this cholesterol fraction may not be beneficial based upon its theorized function as a transport entity for cholesterol from peripheral tissues to the liver for metabolic degradation. Egg consumption, in conjunction with exam pressure, also appeared to contribute to an increase in serum TG compared to baseline values. Blood pressures were not statistically different during the experiment.

Humphrey and Everly (32) administered the State Measurement Scale, a 43-item paper and pencil inventory of varied psychological and somatic states, to 200 male and 199 female university students. The students were asked to indicate how they felt while experiencing stress. Data were factor analyzed, by sex, to reveal the existence of three underlying perceptual factors within each of the two subject groups. The three male subsets explained 68.4% of the total variance: 1) active musculoskeletal domain, which included symptoms of stress involving active dysfunctions of the striate musculature and explained 44.8% of the variance; 2) cardiovascular domain, e.g., I feel my heart beating; accounted for 16.0% of the male variance; 3) gastrointestinal domain, e.g., my stomach hurts; 7.6% of the variance. Female data generated two statistically independent

factors that were similar enough to warrant the same factor:

1) musculoskeletal; accounted for 7.5% of total female variance;  
2) cardiovascular, e.g., I feel faint; contributed 17.2% to variability. The factor, which contributed the most to total female variance (49.8%), was termed "negative affective domain," and was characterized by female subjects as feeling anxious, nervous, and high-strung. This last factor, which accounted for most of the variance associated with female responses to the State Measurement Scale, is of interest because negative affective emotional responses have been strongly correlated with undesirable behavioral outcomes in women, e.g., compulsive eating (33,34), degree of dieting concerns (33-35), and disturbances in self-image acceptance (35). These behavioral outcomes could conceivably influence the health status of individuals experiencing them.

Stress/health status relationship. For nearly 30 years researchers have investigated the relationship of life-events stress to illness by comparing the magnitude of SLEs experienced with indicators of health status. Because prior research (12) indicated that SLE instruments needed to be population-specific, Marx et al. (15) utilized the CSRE (14) to investigate the relationships between CSRE data; physical health problems experienced during a 60-day retrospective period; Langner's 22-Item Psychiatric Impairment Scale, an index to current mental health; and subjectively-reported stress. The CSRE was administered to 82% of the 1972 freshman class at the University of Kentucky. A total SLE score was computed for respondents and grouped into high, medium, and low categories. The

association between life-change category and the magnitude of the mean values for each of the physical and emotional measures of health was examined by one-way analysis of variance. High life-change respondents reported significantly greater health outcome variable scores compared to the medium-change subjects; the downward trend of a direct relationship of life-change category to physical and emotional parameters continued into the low life-change group. Analysis of variance also revealed statistically significant differences between subjectively-reported mean stress scores concerning family life and school work and level of life-change stress; these self-reported stressors also were found to increase with greater exposure to SLEs. The variables of age and sex were examined for their relationship to experimental variables. Using age as a variable, freshman students over 30 years of age had significantly more stress related to school work than younger students. There was a significant sex difference in the physical health outcome variable, mean number of illness days, with women indicating a greater mean number of illness days in the preceding two-month period than men. When this last relationship was examined by life-change category, the significant sex difference was lost.

Garrity et al. (37) analyzed the student responses to the physical and emotional health outcome scores obtained in the 1972 University of Kentucky study (15) for the purpose of clarifying Holmes' hypothesis (38) that life-event stress scores are capable of predicting minor health problems earlier than more serious ones. CSRE data were collected at the beginning of the fall semester; three, six,

and nine months later health interviews were conducted during which 314 students reported health changes which had occurred in the previous 60 days. Pearson correlation coefficients were computed between the five health-outcome measures (Langner index, number of separate health problems, number of health problem episodes, number of days on which a health problem was experienced, and number of disability days) and the life-change scores associated with each subject. The Langner index, which is sensitive to the presence of minor illness symptoms, revealed a strong correlation ( $p < 0.001$ ) with the CSRE scores at the three-month interval. This relationship was maintained at six and nine months, indicating that minor illness symptoms may manifest shortly following life-events stress and persist in duration with time. Two health outcome variables considered to be more predictive of severe health problems (number of disability days and total number of days with a health-related malady) were found to increase significantly over time. These researchers concluded that their findings supported the concept that there is a substantial latency period between life-change and the observation of more severe illness.

Contemporary human stress researchers are directing their efforts into formulating causal pathways concerning the stress-illness relationship, and examining variables that are hypothesized to moderate and/or mediate that relationship (11,12,39,40). Garrity et al. (41) utilized their 1972 data to examine their hypothesis that psychophysiological strain, as measured by Langner's 22-Item Psychiatric Impairment Scale, is an intervening variable in the

stress-strain model depicting the causal relationship between SLEs and illness onset:

SLEs → psychophysiological strain → adverse health changes

Linear correlations computed between the previously identified physical health outcome variables, psychophysiological strain, and life-change event scores, revealed a stronger association between strain and health outcomes. Partial correlations were used to control for the influence of the Langner index on the zero order correlations subsequently computed between life-change scores and health outcome measures. The zero order correlations between CSRE scores and the four measures of physical health were reduced substantially when strain was controlled, to the extent that one of the measures (number of days with a health problem) was no longer statistically related to extent of life-change experienced. Zero order correlations also were computed between the Langner index and the four health outcome scores, with partial correlations controlling for the degree of life stress. The magnitude of the linear relationship between strain and health outcome also was lessened by controlling for SLEs, indicating that both life-events stress and strain, independently, explained some of the variance in health outcomes. It was suggested that the Langner measure may be considered to provide an index of the psychophysiological costs associated with the struggle to cope with changing life circumstances; strain may be an efficient predictor of adverse health outcomes attributable to psychosomatic causes.

The influence of physical fitness (aerobic capacity) as a

moderator variable of the SLEs/health status relationship was investigated by Roth and Holmes (42). They administered a SLE instrument, the Life Experiences Survey, to 112 undergraduate students at the University of Kansas. Aerobic capacity of each participant was determined with a submaximal bicycle ergometer test and the Astrand-Rhyming nomogram. Then students were instructed to keep a nine-week record of prospective data concerned with the dependent variables, physical and psychologic health. At the end of the study each subject also completed the Beck Depression Inventory and submitted completed Health Record Forms to the research team. The interrelationships of the SLE scores, physical fitness, and health outcomes were analyzed by entering the independent variables into a prediction equation in the following sequence: 1) life-stress scores, 2) sex-specific scores for physical fitness, 3) scores reflecting the interaction of life-change and physical fitness. Both life-stress ( $p=0.008$ ) and fitness ( $p=0.050$ ) were reliable independent predictors for a "total severity score" derived from the data on the Health Record Forms. The interaction of SLEs and fitness level also was found to reliably predict the severity ratings attributed to recorded health problems ( $p=0.033$ ). The hypothesis that lower levels of physical fitness may interact with SLE levels to facilitate more problems with physical health was supported; indeed, those students with a high level of fitness appeared to be impacted negligibly by life stress. A regression analysis also was conducted, as described above, to examine for the power of the independent variables to predict scores obtained from the Beck Depression Inventory. The life-stress scores

( $p=0.000$ ) and the interaction variables ( $p=0.073$ ) were predictors of measured depression. A graphic representation of these data indicated that among those subjects who experienced high levels of life stress, those with lower levels of physical fitness reported higher levels of depression. The researchers concluded that moderator variables, such as fitness level, may have some important implications for the prevention of health problems.

University seniors, who three years previously had high life-change scores and high illness rates (43), volunteered to participate in a series of supportive, problem-solving group sessions in order to test the hypothesis that group exploration of ideas, peer learning, and social support will reduce the likelihood of illness in students who face above average demands for adaptation (44). Twenty students were assigned to the intervention group; a series of ten, one and one-half hour sessions were conducted. Ten subjects acted as a control group. An analysis of variance was computed to examine for treatment effects upon physical health indexes. Students participating in the group therapy reported significantly decreased numbers of illness episodes and disability days, whereas the control group reported increases in each of these health indicators. These results suggest yet another way in which the impact of SLEs on well-being may be controlled.



## Nutrition and university students

Stress-related food intake. University students have been subjects in numerous studies in which the relationships between stress and eating behavior were investigated. Slochower et al. (18) assessed the impact of an irrefutable stress associated with college life (final examinations) on the eating behavior and self-reported anxiety levels of 37 obese and normal weight female undergraduate students. A two-session repeated measures design was employed; session one was scheduled no more than five hours prior to an examination, whereas session two was conducted three weeks following each subject's last exam. At both sessions subjects were asked to complete 13 mood scales for the purpose of investigating their degree of "self-perception." The scales focused on the students' current emotional state and assessed their degree of distress, e.g., anxiety level, loss of control over feelings, and self-esteem. In addition to the mood scales, students were instructed to participate in a "thinking task," of which an index to eating was a covert component. Several objects were placed in front of the subject, one of which was an open container of candy. Subjects were encouraged to touch the objects, doodle, and eat the candy as they completed the thinking task. The students' weight category had no effect on the self-reported mood scale results. A repeated measures analysis of variance confirmed that during exams both obese and normal weight subjects experienced more negative affect ( $p < 0.0001$ ) compared with the post-exam period. The impact of the negative parameters associated with final exams on eating behavior also was examined as described above. As predicted, the obese

students ate significantly more during than after exams, whereas the normal weight subjects had nonsignificant decreases in consumption behavior. Linear correlations were computed among anxiety levels, degree of perceived control over feelings, various mood indices, and eating behavior. Obese students' food intake was related significantly and positively to their degree of anxiety reported at both sessions. These subjects also increased their consumption in response to a reported loss of control over their emotions. Normal weight women showed a similar, but nonsignificant, increased food intake in response to loss of control. None of the mood indices were correlated with eating behavior at exam time. At session two, however, obese subjects' eating was correlated positively with four indices (depression, worthlessness, unhappiness, anger), whereas the normal weight group exhibited a positive correlate with a sole index, depression. The researchers concluded that normal weight students' eating was considerably less reactive than that of obese students with regards to anxiety level. A relationship between a hyperphagic tendency, perceived loss of control, and depression suggests, however, that certain aversive emotional stimuli may alter the eating behavior of both obese and non-obese individuals.

Ondercin (33) investigated uncontrolled eating not related to hunger (compulsive or binge eating) in 279 female university students. A self-report questionnaire was developed to assess aspects of eating behavior as well as attitudes and feelings related to food and eating. Subjects were categorized into one of three groups on the basis of their response to the question, "Would you label yourself a compulsive

eater?"--definitely, sometimes, or no. When classified according to their compulsive eating category, the high group made up 18 percent of the sample, the medium group 51 percent, and the low group 30 percent. High compulsive eating females reported significantly more frequent eating episodes in response to unpleasant emotional states--boredom, loneliness, sadness, anxiety, anger--compared with either the medium or low groups. A chi square analysis revealed that eating when not hungry and experiencing guilt when overeating also were greater for the high compulsive subjects than for the lower groups' members. A stepwise multiple regression analysis produced a multiple 'r' value of 0.68 with compulsive eating for all questionnaire items, with three of those item scores producing a multiple 'r' of 0.66: 1) eating seems to calm me down or make me feel better; 2) I eat when I'm tense or anxious; 3) I eat when I'm sad or depressed. A high proportion of students reported episodes of binge eating (78%). No differences were found between groups in the kinds of food eaten during binges. Sweets, snack foods, and starches were the most popular binging choices for all three groups. Ondercin (33) concluded that compulsive eating/binging was a fairly typical behavior associated with college life rather than an indicator of an eating disorder. These results suggested that food intake may be a frequently used method to cope with unpleasant emotions thought to be precipitated by stressful events associated with the college experience.

A self-report measure of binge eating tendencies (Binge Scale) was developed by Hawkins and Clement (35) to measure the behavioral and attitudinal parameters of an eating behavior that was at one time

studied solely in clinical settings. The Binge Scale was administered to female and male college undergraduates in conjunction with a measure of dieting concerns and weight control, a scale assessing degree of negative self-image, and a SLEs scale assessing the frequency of major life changes experienced in the past month. The percentage deviation from the ideal body weight (Metropolitan Life Insurance Tables) for subjects was computed assuming a medium body frame. Clear-cut sex differences were found in the frequency of self-reported occurrences of binge eating. Seventy-nine percent of the women compared with 49 percent of the men reported this pattern of food intake. Binges were reported as frequently among normal weight females as among the overweight women. Seventy-five percent of normal and overweight males and females indicated that their binge eating tendencies manifested between the ages of 15-20 years, indicating that age is a determining variable when investigating the phenomena of stress-related eating. Thirty-three women students stated that they "hated themselves" after a binge, while 47 women reported becoming moderately to severely depressed following a binge. University men did not associate either of these feelings with the tendency to lose control with regards to food intake. For both sexes, severity of reported binge eating was correlated positively ( $p < 0.001$ ) with degree of dieting concern, even when body weight percentage was controlled in the analysis. The male data showed positive correlates between weight percentage, dieting concern, a negative self-image, and the number of reported life events. For females, binge eating and dieting concerns were related positively to negative self-image as well as to the number of SLEs

experienced. Hawkins and Clement (35) suggested that more severe binge eating problems may coexist with stringent attempts to restrain eating behavior, e.g., dieting, meal-skipping. Implications of such a vicious cycle upon the individual's physical health parameters, i.e., nutritional status, remain to be investigated.

The relationships of compulsive eating behaviors, diet behaviors, stress, and hostility were the focus of a study by Kagan and Squires (34). Three subscales for assessing sources of stress were derived from a 27-item questionnaire by means of a factor analysis. The three Stress scales and their contribution to the total amount of variance on the stress questionnaire are: 1) Stress: Unable to Relax, Depressed, 57%; 2) Stress: Inferiority, Lack of Self-Confidence, 12%; 3) Stress: Lack of Direction, 10%. Male and female responses to the Stress scales, items regarding diet behavior and weight control (Diet scale), compulsive eating (Eat scale), fear of failure (Failure scale), and a Hostility scale were examined for statistically significant relationships. Compulsive eating was correlated positively with each of the Stress scales; the Diet scale also was related significantly to each Stress scale, but less strongly. The women students exhibited the above relationships significantly more than the male subjects. A multiple regression analysis which evaluated the power of the Stress scales, in combination, to predict scores on the Eat scale resulted in a multiple 'r' of 0.26 with Stress: Inferiority, Lack of Self-Confidence, as the most powerful predictor. This particular subscale was correlated strongly ( $p < 0.005$ ) for the female subjects. Four variables on the Hostility scale (Indirect Hostility,

Irritability, Resentment, Guilt) were correlated positively and significantly with the Eat scale. The multiple regression analysis, which tested the power of the Hostility variables, in combination, to predict scores on the Eat scale, yielded a multiple 'r' of 0.19, with Indirect Hostility as the most powerful predictor. Kagan and Squires (34) concluded that individual compulsive eating behaviors were pervasive among the 423 male and female university students surveyed, and suggested the need for a campus-based intervention in both the management of stress and its resultant modification of eating habits.

Dietary studies. Dietary quality. In a nationwide survey (45) a food preference questionnaire was administered to approximately 50,000 university students. Respondents were instructed to indicate whether they Liked, Did Not Know, or Disliked 207 food items in 10 food classes. The data were expressed as a percentage of the total response for that food. All foods were then ranked in terms of percent Liked, Disliked and Did Not Know and median and percentile groupings were formed within each item preference category and food class. The percentages of the 1968 Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs) (46) for vitamin A, ascorbic acid, calcium and iron, which were provided by one serving of each food item, were calculated. This procedure facilitated examination of the indicated food preferences with regards to these nutrients. The survey results indicated that low dietary intake of vitamin A could result if food preferences of college students were the sole determinant of food intake. Two-thirds of the 19 food items, which supplied 30% or greater of the RDA for vitamin A, were among the most disliked foods. One food item, orange juice, met 90% of the RDA

for ascorbic acid; in contrast, 14 of the 24 foods, which contributed 30% or more of the RDA for vitamin C, were below the median in food preference for their respective classes. Sex differences were evident, however, which revealed that women liked vegetable sources of both ascorbic acid and vitamin A, e.g., asparagus, broccoli, carrots, squash, significantly more than men. The single richest iron source, liver, was among the least liked foods, but other less potent sources of the mineral were accepted, e.g., roast beef, french fries, scrambled eggs. These food preference data supported the estimate of about 6 mg of iron per 1000 kilocalories in the typical United States' diet (46). Thus, women would have a difficult time meeting their RDA for this nutrient. These investigators observed that despite the greater need for iron by the women subjects there was apparently no correspondingly greater preference for iron-containing foods. Milk and milk products were the most liked food sources of calcium, with an estimated 50% of the RDA supplied by these foods. In general, vegetable sources of calcium were not well liked.

Ostrom and Labuza (47) collected seven-day food records from 375 University of Minnesota students for the purpose of determining trends in deficient and excessive nutrient intakes. Mean daily intakes, by sex, were expressed as percentages of the 1968 RDAs (46). The data showed that students were consuming, on the average, over 100% of the RDA for protein, calcium, phosphorus, riboflavin, niacin, and ascorbic acid; and from 90-100% of the RDA for calories, vitamin A, and thiamin. A high degree of variability, however, was observed in parts of the data. Two-thirds of the total sample and 40% of the female

sample were below 60% of the RDA for vitamin A. Nine out of 10 women were consuming less than 80% of the RDA for iron. These findings tended to support the trends observed in the nationwide survey (45). The investigators did not discuss the relative magnitude of nutrient excesses compared with the RDAs, even though this was one of their research objectives. Nutrient excesses are a desirable focus when viewed from the perspective that malnutrition encompasses over- as well as undernutrition.

Nutrient intakes of Canadian university women were examined by O'Leary and Lee (48) through the use of seven-day food records. Nutrient contributions from dietary supplements were included in the analysis. In contrast to low intakes of vitamin A which were reported by Ostrom and Labuza (47), these data showed that a modest proportion (around 10%) of their subjects consumed less than 100% of the 1964 Canadian Dietary Standards (CDS) (49). Ascorbic acid intakes were adequate with all respondents obtaining 100% of the CDS. A noticeable finding was that the caloric intake of over 33% of the sample was less than two-thirds of the CDS for energy. The low energy intakes were associated with 50% of the low calcium and 90% of the low iron intakes, suggesting that some of the subjects were placing their calcium and iron status in jeopardy by consuming low energy diets.

Cornell undergraduate women provided seven-day food records for nutrient analysis in a study conducted by Jakobovits et al. (50). Mean daily nutrient intakes were computed and expressed as percentages of the 1974 RDAs (51). Mean ascorbic acid intake was in excess of 200% of the RDA, with mean intakes of vitamin A, calcium, protein,



riboflavin, thiamin and niacin all 100% or greater of their respective RDAs. A high degree of variance was evident in the ranges of intakes of most nutrients, which indicated consistently low intakes for some women. Energy intake was again an issue; 65% of respondents consumed less than 100% of the RDA for energy. A considerable proportion (over 40%) of the women had iron intakes less than two-thirds of the RDA, which reaffirmed this mineral as a problem nutrient. A dietary adequacy score was computed by assigning one point for each of the nine nutrients in excess of two-thirds of the RDA. Forty percent of the women had a perfect score of nine, and less than 15% scored below seven. The investigators concluded that, in general, nutrient intakes of the women in their sample were good, but a small proportion might have been consuming diets of poor nutritional quality. It was suggested that the low energy intakes may have been related to a sedentary lifestyle, which was hypothesized to exist within this group, but data concerning activity levels in the university population were not available.

Gottschalk et al. (52) examined three-day food records provided by University of Guelph men and women. Nutrient supplements were included in the computation of mean daily intakes. The percentage of total energy intake supplied by fat (36.7%) was similar to that observed by O'Leary and Lee (38-40%) (48). In agreement with the findings in other studies (48,50), 80% of the women and 60% of the men had inadequate energy intakes. As shown in previous research (48), 90% of the women's low intakes of iron were linked to low energy intakes. Calcium, vitamin A, thiamin,

riboflavin, and niacin intakes were below the 1975 CDS (53) for 19-58% of the university women, and a significant number of the men (41-59%) also reported low intakes of vitamin A and thiamin. Several students reported "abnormal" dietary habits during the survey period attributable to midterm pressures. The researchers suggested that a sedentary lifestyle in conjunction with dieting concerns related to body image may have contributed to the low energy intakes.

Analysis of 24-hour recall data, which were collected from university students by Khan and Lipke (54) showed that both men and women consumed, on the average, over 100% of the 1980 RDA (9) for ascorbic acid, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, vitamin A, calcium and protein. Mean iron intakes for women ranged from 68.6 to 71.1%. Mean energy intakes for both men and women, 96.0 and 89.1% respectively, appeared to be adequate, but the ranges of intakes were not reported. Three-way analyses of variance were computed to investigate daily nutrient intakes of students in relation to sex, major (nutrition or non-nutrition), and meal pattern (meals or snacks). Energy, protein, calcium, riboflavin and niacin intakes of men were higher ( $p < 0.01$ ) than those reported by women. Thiamin intakes for male students also were higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) than those of female students. Intakes of iron, vitamin A, and ascorbic acid by both sexes were comparable.

Meal-skipping patterns. Frequency of food intake is investigated often in dietary studies. In 1975 O'Leary and Lee (48) found that among students living in university residence the most frequently skipped meal was breakfast (37%), while only 10% of lunches and 9% of

suppers were missed. Two years later, Jakobovits et al. (50) reported a similar pattern of breakfast- and supper-skipping among college students, but a marked increase in the number of noon meals missed; 32% of 195 women surveyed reported skipping lunch from three to five times a week. No correlation was found between meal-skipping and snacking behavior, which suggested that their food consumption patterns varied greatly.

Sex differences in the percentages of breakfasts missed by college students were reported by Gottschalk et al. (52). Men, with and without meal contracts, missed 49% and 18%, respectively, of this meal, compared to 31% and 12%, respectively, for women. Khan and Lipke (54) reported nonsignificant differences between University of Illinois men and women with regard to the number of noon and evening meals skipped; sex differences in the number of breakfasts missed were not reported. One-fourth of their mixed sample missed breakfast, 12% missed lunch, and 4% skipped dinner.

These data suggest that meal-skipping patterns among college students are highly variable, and that there may be sex differences in the magnitude and pattern of meals skipped. It remains unclear as to how altered meal patterns relate to the quality of diets of this age group.

Snacking behavior. Studies (48,54,55) have indicated that snacking has supplemented and/or replaced meal patterns for a sizeable portion of university students. The impact of this trend warrants attention because poor food habits during this stage of life can result in serious consequences that may be further aggravated by

physical stress and emotional problems.

A study conducted in the mid 1960s (55) indicated some undesirable patterns in the kinds of snacks consumed by college students. Soft drinks, candy and hamburgers were consumed at a higher rate, whereas milk and cheese intakes declined markedly on campus compared to retrospective food intakes reported while at home. O'Leary and Lee (48) observed that the nutrient profile of snacks consumed by their sample of Canadian college students was one of low nutrient/high caloric density. Eighteen to 29% of the total daily caloric intake was supplied by snacks, whereas those same foods contributed only 10% of the student's daily needs for vitamin A and ascorbic acid. In contrast, 16 to 21% of their calcium requirement was obtained from snack items.

Snacks accounted for 34 to 51% of the total caloric intake of a group of college students who participated in an investigation by Gottschalk et al. (52). Contrary to the observations of O'Leary and Lee (48), these researchers found that, in most cases, snacks contributed significantly to the nutrient content of the diet. For example, snacks consumed by university males represented 56% of their total daily intakes of vitamin A and 47% of ascorbic acid.

Snacking rates of Cornell university women, expressed on a per-subject, per-day basis, were: 0.45 morning, 0.84 afternoon, and 1.54 evening (50). Forty-seven percent of these women reported snacking primarily in the evening. Foods that were eaten most frequently as snacks included: coffee, tea, fruit and fruit juices, milk, bread and bread products, candy, cookies, sweets, and alcoholic beverages.

The impact of selected snack items on the nutritive value of the diet was not assessed.

Snacking and its contribution to nutrient intakes was the focus of a 1982 study conducted by Khan and Lipke (54). A significant difference was found between the mean number of times a day male subjects ate (4.10) compared to women (4.02). A majority of students reported consuming beverages as snacks, with carbonated drinks being the most common. Morning snacks consumed, in addition to beverages and in order of magnitude, were candies, gum, fruits, vegetables, breads, cereals, and sandwiches. Soft drinks, candies and gum appeared at the top of the afternoon list of snack items, followed by salted snack items, fruits, vegetables, and cookies. Salted snack items were consumed during the evening hours by the majority of the 250 students who provided data, followed by fruits, vegetables, sandwiches, candies, and gum. The contribution of snacks toward meeting the 1980 RDAs (9) for key nutrients was as follows:

1) protein, 13.4-24.1%; 2) ascorbic acid, 13.5-29.0%; 3) vitamin A, 3.5-19.7%; 4) iron, 11.3-34.8%; and 5) calcium, 9.9-20.2%. These contributions to the total dietary intakes of calcium and iron were especially important for the college women; percentages of the RDAs met by mealtime intakes of calcium and iron ranged from 69.9 to 87.6% and 54.8 to 59.8%, respectively. Without snacks, all subjects would have consumed diets supplying less than desired energy levels.

The results of a recent study (56) of snack and beverage preferences of university students indicated that the readily available food items (salted snacks, candy, carbonated beverages,

etc.) were not the most preferred. One hundred eighty-six students indicated that fruit drinks, not soft drinks, were the most preferred beverage, followed by milk and iced tea. Fresh fruits were the most desired food item, along with sandwiches, natural food packs, bakery items, ice cream items, chips, candy bars, and dried fruits--listed in order of desirability. These results were significant because Slochower et al. (18) found that availability was a determining factor with regards to stress-related food intake. The nutritional quality of available food items thus becomes an issue when investigating the relationship of stress-related food intake to quality of diet consumed.

## METHODS

### Approval and consent

The study was conducted in a university in a medium-sized midwestern city. Data were collected during class time on men and women enrolled in physical education or English composition classes. Approval for the study was obtained from the university committee on research involving human subjects (Appendix B).

A letter that described the study and a consent form (Appendix B) were distributed to the students by the researcher, who also collected the completed forms. To ensure anonymity, a three-digit identification (ID) number was assigned to each student who agreed to participate.

### Stressful Life Event (SLE) measurement

The potential for stress in the students' lives was measured using the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) instrument (14). The instrument consists of 47 items which college students have identified as causing adjustment in their lives and that may elicit a stress response (Appendix C). Students were asked to report the number of times (0-4) during the last year that they experienced each of the SLEs on the CSRE. The questionnaire required about ten minutes to complete.

The validity of the instrument was reported by Marx et al. (15), who used a one-way analysis of variance to compare three levels of SLE categories to self-reported stress associated with social life, family life, and school work. Mean stress scores related to family

life and school work were statistically different across the three SLE categories. As the CSRE score increased, mean family and school stress scores also increased.

In the present study, the reliability of the CSRE was determined by administering the questionnaire in a test-retest design at a two-week interval to 20 students, who were enrolled in an upper-level nutrition course. The correlation coefficient computed for total number of Life Change Units (LCUs) between tests was positively related ( $p < 0.0001$ ) with an 'r' = 0.80. This result was in agreement with the reliability measurement ( $r = 0.78$ ) of a similar instrument administered to a comparable population under similar experimental conditions and design (57).

#### Dietary evaluation

A quantifiable food frequency instrument was used to assess each student's pattern of dietary intake during the last year (Appendix D). This instrument is comprised of 90 food groups, which are actually aggregates of specific food items. The food groups are arranged in the following food categories: milk or milk drinks; cheese or cottage cheese; other dairy products; meat; poultry; fish; shellfish; cereals; breads or pasta; vegetables; fruit; miscellaneous foods; nuts and snacks; candies or sweet desserts; non-alcoholic beverages; alcoholic beverages. Students were asked to indicate the frequency (0-9) per time period (day, week, month, year) that they consumed the food groups. This instrument also included questions concerning sex, age, student classification, residence status, meal patterns, height/weight



data, diet behavior, supplement usage, and activity levels. About 20 minutes were required to complete the questionnaire.

The food frequency data were quantified with a computer program that assigns serving sizes, based on the age and sex of the subject, to the food frequency responses. Serving size weights were derived from data obtained in the second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES II) (58). The weight of an item in a food group is proportional to the reported use (frequency and/or quantity). Each food group also has a weighted "nutrient profile" based on the amount (in grams) NHANES II subjects consumed of each food item in that group.<sup>1</sup> Computed nutrient intakes are expressed on a daily basis for a composite day's dietary intake. Daily intakes were then expressed as percentages of the 1980 RDAs (9) by means of a computerized nutrient analysis program, based on the age, sex, and activity level of respondents. The following energy expenditure values (9) were utilized in the nutrient analysis program to compute an individualized energy RDA based on the respondents' reported number of hours spent in each of the activity levels during a 24-hour period.

activity level	rate, women	rate, men
	kcal per minute	kcal per minute
level 1; sleeping, reclining	1.00	1.10
level 2; very light	1.60	1.90
level 3; light	2.95	3.70
level 4; moderate	4.95	6.20
level 5, heavy	8.00	9.75

<sup>1</sup> Personal communication from John Stanton, Chair of Food Marketing Research, Academy of Food Marketing, St. Joseph University, Philadelphia, PA.

Stanton investigated the validity of the food frequency instrument by utilizing data from each of the 20,319 individuals in NHANES II and "simulating" their completion of the instrument.<sup>1</sup> The estimated food frequency intake values were then used to predict the actual values reported in NHANES II; separate regression models were built for each nutrient "to control for systematic variation and improve the predictive power of the system." The multiple regression coefficients were regarded as a measure of "convergent validity." The R<sup>2</sup>s obtained were:

calories	0.956	vitamin A	0.726	iron	0.761
protein	0.940	ascorbic acid	0.791	calcium	0.950
fat	0.873	thiamin	0.590	phosphorus	0.745
saturated fat	0.867	riboflavin	0.820	potassium	0.914
cholesterol	0.923	niacin	0.845	sodium	0.793
carbohydrate	0.947				

In the present study, the validity of the food frequency instrument was examined by computing correlation coefficients to compare the average energy and nutrient content of three-day food records with that of a composite day of food frequency data. Dietary data were collected from 20 students who were enrolled in an upper-level nutrition course (Appendix E). The average intakes of energy, protein, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, and iron were calculated for the three-day period and for the composite day of food frequency data and expressed as percentages of the 1980 RDAs (9) for their appropriate age groups. Intakes of sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol also were determined.

---

<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

Percentages of the RDAs for iron and phosphorus were positively correlated ( $p < 0.05$ ) and those for energy, riboflavin, and calcium were correlated at  $p < 0.10$ . A possible explanation for the relatively low degree of linear correlation found may be explained by the fact that the weighted nutrient profiles are not age-specific,<sup>1</sup> allowing for error in the estimation of dietary intake data, i.e., specific nutrients, from a subpopulation which may exhibit atypical eating patterns in comparison to the general populace.

The reliability of the food frequency instrument was tested in the present study by administering the questionnaire to 20 students, who were enrolled in an upper level nutrition course, in a test-retest design at a two week interval. The percentages of the 1980 RDAs (9) for energy and 9 nutrients (protein, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus and iron) and intakes of sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol were correlated positively ( $p < 0.05$ ) on the two tests.

#### Data analysis

Demographic information. Frequency distributions of the demographic data were compiled. Mean body mass indexes (BMI) for men and women participants were calculated from self-reported height/weight data and assuming medium body frame according to the following formula (59):

$$\text{BMI} = \text{Weight (kg)} / \text{Height}^2 \text{ (m)}$$

---

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

Minimum BMI criteria for obesity was utilized to classify the students as obese or non-obese (59).

The hours spent in the five activity levels were rounded to whole numbers prior to data processing. An estimate of the time the student was involved in non-sedentary activity was made by averaging the hours in levels 3-5 and expressing those hours as a percentage of the 24-hour period. Means and standard errors of the activity levels were computed, by sex, and sex differences were determined using the Student's t-test (60).

Meal skipping frequencies were converted to number of times per week prior to data analysis. Means and standard errors of the number of meals skipped per week were computed, by sex, and sex differences were determined using the Student's t-test (60).

College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE). Standard statistical coding procedures (61) were followed to assign variable names to the CSRE events. Event frequencies (0-4) were designated CSREX, where 'X' indicated the event number as it appeared on the instrument (Appendix C). A weighted response was constructed by multiplying the event frequency by the event value (Appendix A) and expressing it as a percentage of the total SLE score or total Life Change Units (LCUs). The weighted events were designated by their event number followed by a 'W', e.g., CSRE8W. Total LCUs were computed by summing all CSRE event frequencies multiplied by their respective values. A total frequency score also was calculated by summing frequency responses to the 47 CSRE events. Frequency distributions, means, and standard errors were computed, by sex, for CSRE frequency responses, weighted

responses, total LCUs, and total frequency scores. The Student's t-test (60) was used to determine significant sex differences in the variables.

Ranges of total LCUs, by sex, were established by designating scores that were within one standard deviation of the class mean as moderate change, and those that were one standard deviation above and below the mean as high and low change, respectively. A chi-square analysis (60) was used to determine significant sex differences in the distribution of LCUs.

Food frequency. A recognition file was utilized to transform dietary data into a form that was compatible with the statistical program. Means and standard errors were computed, by sex, for the students' intake of energy and 12 nutrients (protein, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron, sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol) for the composite day of food frequency data. Means and standard errors also were computed for percentages of the 1980 RDAs (9) for energy and all of the nutrients (except sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol), as well as for the percentages of carbohydrate, protein, and fat in the composite days' energy intakes.

Mean adequacy ratios (MARs). Mean adequacy ratios (MARs) (62) were calculated to evaluate overall dietary quality of the composite day of food frequency data. MAR values were generated by totaling nutrient adequacy ratios (NARs) for energy and 9 nutrients (protein, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron) and computing a mean value. Nutrient adequacy ratio

(NAR) refers to the percentage of the RDA for a single nutrient. All NAR values greater than 100 percent were truncated to 100 to prevent intakes in excess of the RDA for one nutrient compensating for inadequacies of others. The MAR values were calculated according to the following equation:

$$\text{MAR} = \sum_{i=1}^k \chi_i \text{ where } \chi_i = \begin{cases} \text{NAR} & \text{if } \text{NAR} \leq 100 \\ 100 & \text{if } \text{NAR} > 100 \end{cases}$$

Two MAR values, one with and one without energy, were calculated.

The MAR values were grouped into three ranges as follows:

90-100  
80-<90  
<80

A MAR less than 80 was used as a starting point for establishing ranges of the MAR values because, according to Guthrie (63) if the RDA is set two standard deviations (assumed to be  $\pm 30\%$  for most biological parameters) above the mean to cover the needs of essentially all individuals within that group, then an average intake of 77% (100/130) of the RDA would meet the needs of the group. In this study, the 77% was rounded to 80%. Means and standard errors were computed, by sex, for the MAR values, and sex differences in the values were determined using the Student's t-test (60).

Interrelationships among the variables. Linear relationships among selected demographic variables were computed, by sex, utilizing Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients (60). Variables included in these analyses included: student classification;

responsibility for selection or preparation of meals; residence status; meal patterns; diet behavior; supplement usage; BMI; non-sedentary activity level; CSRE variables: CSRE8; CSRE8W; total LCUs; total frequency score; percentages of the 1980 RDAs (9) for energy and the aforementioned nine nutrients; nutrient intakes of sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol; and MARs.

Regression models for both women and men participants were computed to determine the ability of weighted CSRE events in combination with total LCUs to predict MAR values. Independent variables entered the models, in a stepwise fashion (61), at  $p < 0.50$  and remained in the models at  $p < 0.15$ .

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Characteristics of the university students

The student sample was comprised of 36% women and 64% men (Table 3), which compared with the university undergraduate sex distribution of 44% females and 56% males. The majority of the students were freshmen, in their teens, and none were more than 22 years of age. More women than men indicated that they lived on campus, probably because the university encourages new women students to live in organized housing facilities. Approximately three-fourths of both sexes indicated that they were not responsible for the selection or preparation of their meals.

The calculated Body Mass Indexes for the women and men indicated that only 3% of both sexes were obese (Table 3). These data, however, must be interpreted with caution, because height and weight were self-reported and a medium-frame size was assumed in the calculations. Litchfield (64) found that many of her subjects provided inaccurate self-reported weight data, with as much as a ten pound variance. More males (39%) than females (22%) reported that their weight had increased over the last year, which may suggest that some men were still experiencing a physiological growth spurt. Decreased and/or fluctuation in body weight during the last 12 months was reported by more women (58%) than men (33%). Dieting and binge-eating behavior, which have been reported to be prevalent among college women (33-35), may have accounted for the reported weight changes of the women.



Table 3. Characteristics of the university students

characteristic	response category	percent of sample	
		women (N = 75)	men (N = 132)
sex	women	36	
	men		64
age, years	18	55	42
	19	28	44
	20-22	17	14
class	freshman	84	87
	other	16	13
residence	on campus	77	46
	off campus	23	54
responsible for selection or preparation of meals	no	76	77
	yes	24	23
dieting	no	88	96
	yes	12	4
weight change (over last 12 months)	increased	22	39
	decreased	16	10
	fluctuated	42	23
	no change	20	28
BMI*	obese	3	3
	non-obese	97	97
vitamin or mineral use	none	47	61
	regular	25	20
	irregular	28	19
health status (self-reported)	excellent	17	20
	very good	53	54
	good	25	24
	fair	4	2
	poor	1	0

\*Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated from self-reported height/weight data; BMI = weight (kg)/height<sup>2</sup> (m). Obesity was determined from this ratio utilizing minimum BMI criteria for obesity (59) with the assumption of a medium frame size for all subjects.

The percentage frequency distributions for self-reported health status were similar for both sexes: 95% of the women and 98% of the men assessed their health as good to excellent (Table 3). The use of vitamin or mineral supplements by women and men in this study was similar to that reported in other studies. Jakobovits et al. (50) observed that 23% of the college women in their study took a multi-vitamin with iron supplement on a regular basis, compared with 25% of the women in the present study. Twenty-eight percent of the combined male-female freshman sample surveyed by McCarthy and Sabry (65) reported taking a vitamin supplement. In this study, vitamin and/or mineral supplement usage was somewhat higher for women than for men.

Meal skipping patterns. The mean numbers of meals missed per week by the students in this study are listed in Table 4. Breakfast was the most frequently skipped meal, by both sexes, followed by lunch and dinner. Women omitted all meals more often than men, and the sex differences were significant for lunches and dinners ( $p \leq 0.01$  and  $p \leq 0.05$ , respectively). Other studies (48, 52, 54, 55, 66), also, have shown that breakfast is frequently skipped by women and men in this age group. Gottschalk et al. (52) reported that 49% of the respondents in their study missed breakfast routinely. Likewise, O'Leary and Lee (48) found that breakfast was the most frequently missed meal by university women during a seven-day study period. In a 1977 survey of Cornell women, which was conducted by Jakobovits et al. (50), breakfast was never omitted by 47%, missed only once or twice per week by 34%, and missed three or more times weekly by 19%.

The pattern of skipping lunch to a greater extent than the evening meal also has been reported (50).

Table 4. Means and standard errors of means for self-reported number of meals skipped per week by university students

	women (N = 75)	men (N = 132)
	mean ± SE	mean ± SE
breakfast	4.18 ± 0.30	3.52 ± 0.21
lunch	1.46 ± 0.19	0.80 ± 0.11**
dinner	0.89 ± 0.15	0.51 ± 0.09*

\* $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\* $p \leq 0.01$ : Student's t-test.

Activity levels. Students' typical level of activity during the last year was investigated to provide energy expenditure data for the computerized calculation of energy requirements and to examine the relationship between activity levels and levels of life stress. The mean self-reported activity levels for the women and men in the present study are provided in Table 5. The mean number of hours spent in very light activity (level 2) was higher ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) for women than for men. It may be that women, as a group, spent more time in the sedentary activity of studying than men. In this study women held jobs with greater frequency as compared to men while in school ( $p \leq 0.05$ , Table 9), and it is possible that their employment consisted of desk jobs that required little physical activity. Clerical-type positions are known to be held more often by women (67), and such jobs are in abundance on university campuses. Baecke et al.

Table 5. Means and standard errors of means for self-reported activity levels† of university students

activity levels‡	women (N = 75)	men (N = 132)
	mean ± SE	mean ± SE
level 1 sleeping, reclining	9.1 ± 0.26	8.8 ± 0.18
level 2 - very light standing, desk jobs	9.4 ± 0.36	8.0 ± 0.30**
level 3 - light walking, light work	3.4 ± 0.26	3.4 ± 0.17
level 4 - moderate biking, dancing	1.4 ± 0.13	2.2 ± 0.15***
level 5 - heavy swimming, basketball	0.7 ± 0.10	1.6 ± 0.13***
non-sedentary activity#	4.8 ± 0.30	5.7 ± 0.22*

†Number of hours in an average day spent in levels based upon preceding 12-month activity pattern.

‡Durnin, J.V.G.A. and Passmore, P.: Energy, Work and Leisure. London: Heinemann Educational Books, 1967.

#Non-sedentary activity = no. of hours spent in levels 3-5 expressed as % of total 24-hour period.

\*p ≤ 0.05, \*\*p ≤ 0.01, \*\*\*p ≤ 0.001: Student's t-test.

(68) reported that a factor-derived group of activities related to work occupied a greater portion ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) of their young adult women's time than the time spent by men.

Mean scores for moderate and heavy activities (levels 4 and 5, Table 5) were much higher ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) for men than for women in this study. These results contributed to the finding that university men spent more of their time ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) in non-sedentary activity as compared to university women (Table 5). In a recent Gallup poll, sex, age, and education were identified as the most important factors related to the incidence of jogging (68). This vigorous activity peaked between 18 and 24 years of age, and was most prevalent among males, especially those who were attending or who had attended college. Baecke et al. (67) also found that men spent more time ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) in a group of activities related to sports than women of comparable age.

Again, it should be emphasized that the activity levels of the women and men in this study were self-reported, and therefore the data must be interpreted cautiously. Self-assessment of physical activity, however, has been shown to parallel scores of actual activity reasonably well (70). Because caloric intake has become a major issue in dietary studies involving college-age students (48,50,52,54), it is important to assess activity levels so that caloric requirements can be determined as accurately as possible.

College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)

Frequency responses. Percentage frequency distributions of the students' responses to CSRE events are listed in Table 6 (Appendix F).

The distribution of male responses to CSRE8, change in eating habits, was comparable to the response pattern reported by Greenberg (13) in his pooled sample of male and female students. The frequency distribution of female responses to CSRE8 in this study, however, appeared to be skewed upward, indicating that they experienced a change in eating habits with greater frequency than male subjects, and also more than the men and women in Greenberg's sample.

CSRE events experienced by 50% or more of the students in the present study and in Greenberg's investigation (13) are compared in Table 7. A greater percentage of KSU subjects than Greenberg's reported entering college and changing to a new school. The difference can be attributed probably to the greater proportion of freshmen students in this sample (86%) compared to Greenberg's (63%) study. The CSRE events experienced by 50% or greater of the subjects in both studies were similar. KSU students, however, experienced certain events, e.g., change in sleeping and eating habits, change in type and amount of recreation, and revision of personal habits with greater frequency than Greenberg's subjects. Two CSRE events, held a job while in school and took a trip or vacation, were experienced by fewer participants in this study than in Greenberg's. Differences in age and economic status of the subjects may have accounted for this finding. Six CSRE events, including change in financial status and change in the use of alcohol, were experienced by over 50% of KSU students in contrast to less than half of Greenberg's respondents. Unfortunately, the CSRE instrument does not measure the direction of change.

The rank order of 13 CSRE events experienced one or more times

Table 7. A comparison of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)\* events reported by fifty percent or greater† of sampled students

CSRE event	Kansas State University (N = 207)	University of Maryland‡ (N = 308)
	%	%
entered college	96	87
held job while in school	55	69
change in sleeping habits	84	60
change in eating habits	80	61
revision of personal habits	81	60
outstanding personal achievement	70	74
change in financial state	70	-
change in residence/living conditions	93	51
change in church activities	51	-
change in type/amount of recreation	78	61
change in use of alcohol	52	-
change in social activities	81	58
change in school activities	63	-
change in independence/responsibility	86	66
took trip/vacation	62	72
change to new school	77	61
change in dating habits	60	-
change in self-concept awareness	50	-

\*Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

†Blanks indicate CSRE event was not experienced by 50% or greater of Maryland sample.

‡Greenberg, J.S.: A study of stressors in the college student population. Health Education 12:8, 1981.

during the year by women and men in this study is listed in Table 8. Twelve of the 13 events were experienced by both sexes. An almost identical rank ordering of event frequencies for older men and women was reported by Levenson et al. (72), who obtained a high correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.91$ ) for mean event frequencies between male and female subjects. Many of the events experienced by both sexes in this study were health-related, e.g., change in eating and sleeping habits, change in type or amount of recreation, and revision of personal habits. Hubble et al. (17) made the same observation in their study at Kansas State University almost 20 years ago. The sex differences (Table 8), change in dating habits for women and guilty of minor law violations for men, were similar to sex differences reported by Webb et al. (73), who found female subjects experienced greater numbers of personal events as compared to men, whereas male subjects experienced more involvements with the law as compared to women.

In this study, there were significant sex differences in four unweighted and three weighted frequency responses to CSRE events (Table 9). Women reported holding a job while in school, change in eating habits and marital engagement more often than men, and men reported more minor law violations than women. In addition, weighted responses for change in type/amount of recreation and change in use of alcohol were greater for men than women.

Total Life Change Units (LCUs) and total frequency of CSRE events. Because of problems in the design and reporting of stressful life events (SLE) studies, researchers who use SLE-type instruments



Table 8. Rank order of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)\* events experienced one or more times during the last year

women (N = 75)		men (N = 132)	
CSRE event	mean ± SE	CSRE event	mean ± SE
CSRE8 change in eating habits	2.09 ± 0.16	CSRE6 change in sleeping habits	1.85 ± 0.12
CSRE6 change in sleeping habits	2.05 ± 0.16	CSRE40 change in independence/ responsibility	1.75 ± 0.12
CSRE40 change in independence/ responsibility	1.84 ± 0.16	CSRE8 change in eating habits	1.62 ± 0.12
CSRE38 change in social activities	1.68 ± 0.15	CSRE33 change in type/amount of recreation	1.55 ± 0.12
CSRE10 revision of personal habits	1.52 ± 0.14	CSRE13 outstanding personal achievement	1.54 ± 0.12
CSRE13 outstanding personal achievement	1.51 ± 0.18	CSRE38 change in social activities	1.40 ± 0.10
CSRE33 change in type/amount of recreation	1.35 ± 0.14	CSRE10 revision of personal habits	1.34 ± 0.10
CSRE19 change in financial state	1.25 ± 0.14	CSRE21 change in residence/living conditions	1.20 ± 0.07
CSRE21 change in residence/living conditions	1.25 ± 0.08	CSRE41 trip or vacation	1.17 ± 0.11
CSRE41 trip or vacation	1.24 ± 0.14	CSRE19 change in financial state	1.14 ± 0.10
CSRE39 change in school activities	1.23 ± 0.14	CSRE39 change in social activities	1.06 ± 0.11
CSRE44 change in dating habits	1.15 ± 0.14	CSRE1 entered college	1.05 ± 0.04
CSRE1 entered college	1.13 ± 0.05	CSRE12 guilty of minor law violations	1.00 ± 0.11

\*Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

Table 9. Student's t-test results for mean sex differences on the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)<sup>†</sup>

CSRE variable	women (N = 75)	men (N = 132)
	mean ± SE	mean ± SE
frequency responses <sup>‡</sup>		
CSRE4 held job while in school	0.973 ± 0.111	0.667 ± 0.073*
CSRE8 change in eating habits	2.093 ± 0.157	1.621 ± 0.125*
CSRE12 guilty of minor law violations	0.493 ± 0.105	1.000 ± 0.109**
CSRE42 marital engagement	0.160 ± 0.047	0.045 ± 0.026*
weighted responses as a % of total LCUs <sup>#</sup>		
CSRE4W held job while in school	0.033 ± 0.004	0.023 ± 0.003*
CSRE8W change in eating habits	0.046 ± 0.003	0.035 ± 0.002**
CSRE12W guilty of minor law violations	0.008 ± 0.002	0.019 ± 0.002**
CSRE33W change in type/amount of recreation	0.036 ± 0.003	0.044 ± 0.003 <sup>¶</sup>
CSRE37W change in use of alcohol	0.022 ± 0.003	0.030 ± 0.003 <sup>¶</sup>
CSRE42W marital engagement	0.007 ± 0.002	0.003 ± 0.002 <sup>¶</sup>

<sup>†</sup>Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

<sup>‡</sup>Frequency responses (0-4) to number of times during previous year CSRE events were experienced.

<sup>#</sup>Weighted response = frequency response × event value expressed as a % of total Life Change Units (LCUs). Total LCUs = sum of frequency responses × respective event values for all CSRE events.

<sup>¶</sup>p ≤ 0.10, \*p ≤ 0.05, \*\*p ≤ 0.01: Student's t-test.

in the tradition of Holmes and Rahe (25) advocate the calculation of a sum of frequency responses for all SLEs, as well as a sum of frequency responses, multiplied by respective event values (Appendix A) (71,74, 75). The latter sum is referred to as total Life Change Units (LCUs). The mean total frequency responses and standard errors in our study were  $32.61 \pm 1.75$  and  $30.98 \pm 1.45$ , for women and men, respectively. The mean total LCUs and their standard errors were  $1404 \pm 77.56$  and  $1326 \pm 65.54$  for women and men. Individual LCU scores, by sex, are tabulated in Tables 10 and 11 (Appendix G). There were no significant sex differences in total LCUs or total CSRE event frequencies, however, both totals tended to be higher for women than for men. A similar tendency was reported by Anderson (14) and Bruns and Geist (76). The correlation coefficients between the two scoring methods for both women and men in our study were 0.99, which is slightly higher than the 0.94 reported by Zimmerman (77). The total LCU score was used in further statistical analyses in our study, because it was considered to be a more appropriate measure of life event stress than the total frequency score.

The mean numbers of LCUs for women (1404) and men (1326) in our study were higher than other reported values. Mean scores for women and men students in Dubord's study (78) in 1972 were 929 and 927, respectively. Marx et al. (15) reported an average LCU score of 891, with a range of values from 42 to 3890, for a college student population. A 1984 study by Marron and Kayson (79) indicated that freshman students had much higher scores (1127) than seniors (747). The tendency toward a decrease in the number of life events

experienced by upper classmen has been noted by other researchers (14,80).

The frequency distributions of LCU ranges, by sex, are listed in Table 12. Chi-square analysis indicated that the distribution of LCUs in the three ranges did not differ significantly for female and male students in our study ( $\chi^2 = 5.46, p \leq 0.05$ ).

Table 12. Frequency distribution of total Life Change Units (LCUs) for university students

ranges*	women (N = 75)	men (N = 132)
	%	%
low change	5	11
moderate change	76	80
high change	19	9

\*Ranges were calculated by designating those LCUs within one standard deviation of the class mean as moderate change; those one standard deviation below and above were designated "low" and "high change," respectively.

A number of factors may have influenced the LCUs reported in our study. Regional differences in both the pattern and magnitude of SLEs experienced by various populations have been reported (81). It is possible that rural adolescents experience greater amounts of adjustment associated with their college experience as compared to their urban counterparts. It is also conceivable that the time of data collection (prior to final examinations) may have heightened the students' introspectiveness, resulting in an increased number of life events recalled. Such an effect was described by Hansell and Mechanic (82).

Dietary evaluation of university students from food frequency questionnaire

Energy and nutrient intakes. The mean daily intakes of energy and 13 nutrients of the 18 to 22 year-old women and men in this study are listed in Table 13. Without exception, mean intake for males exceeded those of females, reflecting the males' greater physiological requirements for most nutrients during this developmental stage (83). Block et al. (84) also used a food frequency questionnaire, which was quantified using the NHANES II database (58), to collect dietary data from 25 to 35 year-old women and men. The energy and nutrients intakes of our subjects were higher than those reported by Block et al. (84). The greater nutrient needs of 18 to 22 year-olds compared to those of 25 to 35 year-olds (9) may have accounted for the difference in intakes.

The mean daily energy intake of 2288 kcal from the food frequency data of women in our study was higher than the energy intakes from food records of college women in other studies. Jakobovits et al. (50) and Polley et al. (85), found intakes of 1930 kcal from seven-day food records and 1733 kcal from four-day food records, respectively. Food frequency data have been found to overestimate energy and nutrient intakes compared to other methods of dietary assessment (86-88). There is some debate, however, as to whether food frequency data overestimate, or other instruments underestimate energy and nutrient intakes (86). Food intake patterns of college students, e.g. snacking behavior and meal-skipping, may contribute to the magnitude of error in estimating their energy and

Table 13. Means and standard errors of means for a composite day's energy and nutrient intakes of university students from food frequency data

	women (N = 75)			men (N = 132)		
	mean	±	SE	mean	±	SE
energy, kcal	2288	±	109.6	3581	±	111.8
protein, gm	91.1	±	3.89	142.7	±	5.13
fat, gm	91.1	±	4.29	148.6	±	5.04
saturated, gm	33.4	±	1.58	56.8	±	2.06
cholesterol, mg	319	±	14.8	596	±	29.4
vitamin A, I.U.	8089	±	558.2	9996	±	396.6
ascorbic acid, mg	153.4	±	10.75	208.8	±	9.93
thiamin, mg	1.58	±	0.08	2.38	±	0.08
riboflavin, mg	2.34	±	0.13	3.88	±	0.16
niacin, N.E.*	21.8	±	1.68	34.4	±	1.09
calcium, mg	1154	±	72.2	1838	±	95.9
phosphorus, mg	1709	±	83.4	2721	±	105.0
iron, mg	14.90	±	0.79	22.31	±	0.72
sodium, mg†	3682	±	154.4	4992	±	147.2

\*Niacin Equivalents do not account for amounts obtained through the conversion of tryptophan to niacin.

†Values represent sodium content of food, not discretionary use of salt.

nutrient intakes. Willett and Stampfer (89) acknowledged that any method of assessing caloric intake may either over- or underestimate intake.

Variance associated with energy intakes of the women and men in our study was similar (Table 13). This finding is in contrast to that reported by Sorensen et al. (86), who found that older females consistently showed more variation than males in their estimates of energy intake.

The mean daily intakes of ascorbic acid, 153.4 mg, and vitamin A, 8089 I.U., for the women in our study (Table 13) were intermediate to those reported for women in similar studies. Polley et al. (85) reported intakes of 235.0 mg of ascorbic acid and 8334 I.U. of vitamin A, whereas Jakobovits et al. (50) observed intakes of 124.0 mg and 6835 I.U., respectively, of those vitamins. A high degree of variation in ascorbic acid and vitamin A intakes has been reported (86,88, 90). It remains unclear how factors such as age, sex, season, and socioeconomic status affect the intakes of these two vitamins, which are believed to exert a protective influence against certain diseases (91-96).

Women's mean daily intakes of thiamin, riboflavin, and niacin in the present study (Table 13) also were in between those reported by Jakobovits et al. (50) and Polley et al. (85). Thus, the mean intakes calculated from food frequency data were comparable to those calculated from food records.

The mean daily intake of calcium by our female students was 1154 mg (Table 13), which was much higher than the intakes reported

for college women by Jakobovits et al. (50) and Polley et al. (85), 862 mg and 846 mg, respectively. Mullen et al. (97) found that their bisexual college sample consistently overestimated the frequency with which they consumed milk. The high intake observed in our study may be a function of the food frequency instrument we used, or the women in our study may be consuming more milk and milk products as a result of the much publicized role of calcium intake in the development of osteoporosis. Their 14.9 mg mean daily intake of iron (Table 13) was very close to that reported by Polley et al. (85), 14.4 mg, for their women subjects.

Mean daily intakes of cholesterol for the women and men in our study were 319 mg and 596 mg, respectively; sodium intakes were 3682 mg for women and 4992 mg for men (Table 13). There were no reported intakes of these dietary components by college students for comparison. Sorenson et al. (86), who used a quantified food frequency instrument in the dietary assessment of an older population, reported cholesterol and sodium intakes of 334.9 mg and 2611.0 mg, respectively.

Percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances. The Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs) have been utilized as a standard for evaluating dietary survey data. Until recently, it was emphasized that the recommended intakes were applicable only to groups and not to individuals. The 1985 Recommended Dietary Allowances Committee, however, conceded that the standards may be applied to individuals within groups "as long as it can be assured that typical intake is compared with the RDAs" (63). It has been



asserted that an advantage of the food frequency method for assessing dietary intake is that it measures typical food intake patterns over time as opposed to other procedures that measure intake over shorter time periods (87,88). The 1980 RDAs (9) for college-age men and women are tabulated in Table 14. Means and standard errors, by sex, of the percentages of the 1980 RDAs for energy and nine nutrients that were consumed by women and men in this study are listed in Table 15. Their individual dietary intakes and percentages of the 1980 RDAs are presented in Tables 16 and 17 in Appendix H.

The mean percentages of the RDAs for energy that were consumed by the women and men in our study were 84% and 93%, respectively (Table 15). These values were somewhat lower than those reported by other investigators. Jakobovits et al. (50) found that upper class university women met an average of 92% of their RDA for energy, whereas Ostrom and Labuza (47) reported energy intakes of 96% and 98% of their RDAs for women and men, respectively. Based on 24-hour recall data, Khan and Lipke (54) found that college women met 89% and men 96% of their energy RDAs. Differences in the dietary data collection methods and the editions of the RDAs that were used as standards may explain some of the variation in energy intakes. Jakobovits et al. (50) used the 1974 RDA (51) as a standard and the 1968 (46) and 1980 RDAs (9), respectively, were used by Ostrum and Labuza (47) and Khan and Lipke (54). The exact energy value from the range of values in the 1980 RDAs used by Khan and Lipke was not reported. These differences highlight the need for standardization

Table 14. Recommended Dietary Allowances\* for university-age students

	women		men	
	15-18 years	19-22 years	15-18 years	19-22 years
energy, kcal	2100	2100	2800	2900
protein, gm	46	44	56	56
fat-soluble vitamins				
vitamin A, I.U.	4000	4000	5000	5000
water-soluble vitamins				
ascorbic acid, mg	60	60	60	60
thiamin, mg	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.5
riboflavin, mg	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.7
niacin, N.E.	14	14	18	19
minerals				
calcium, mg	1200	800	1200	800
phosphorus, mg	1200	800	1200	800
iron, mg	18	18	18	10

\*Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances. 9th rev. ed., National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 1980.

Table 15. Means and standard errors of means for percentages of the Recommended Dietary Allowances\* for a composite day's energy and nutrient intakes of university students from food frequency data

	women (N = 75)			men (N = 132)		
	mean	±	SE	mean	±	SE
energy, kcal†	84	±	4.0	93	±	5.1
protein, gm	198.1	±	8.72	254.6	±	9.16
vitamin A, I.U.	197	±	14.8	200	±	8.0
ascorbic acid, mg	254.5	±	18.07	347.5	±	16.60
thiamin, mg	141.61	±	7.63	164.25	±	5.54
riboflavin, mg	177.37	±	10.01	228.03	±	9.66
niacin, N.E.‡	152.8	±	7.70	185.9	±	5.95
calcium, mg	116	±	7.8	194	±	10.9
phosphorus, mg	171	±	4.0	287	±	12.0
iron, mg	82.29	±	4.72	176.25	±	7.00

\*Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances. 9th rev. ed., National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 1980.

†Individual activity patterns were used to determine energy RDAs utilizing mean energy expenditure values per activity level as reported by Durnin and Passmore (9).

‡Niacin Equivalents do not account for amounts obtained through the conversion of tryptophan to niacin.

of dietary data collection procedures and analyses if meaningful and valid comparisons are to be made.

In our study, the computerized calculation of the energy RDA was based not only on age and sex, but also on self-reported activity levels. It is possible that some of our subjects overestimated their activity levels, which resulted in an elevated energy RDA to which their energy intake was compared. It is also possible that some of the students were expending more energy than they were consuming. Low energy intakes in this population have been reported by other researchers (48,50,52,54). Approximately one-fourth of both sexes in our study consumed less than two-thirds of their energy RDA during the last year, suggesting that some of the students may be restricting their energy intakes below healthy levels. Consolazio (98) advised that insufficient energy intake could cause considerable stress on the adolescent that might not be detected readily. Continued energy restriction during adolescence may not permit the individual to reach his or her maximum growth potential.

The mean percentages of the RDAs for protein that were consumed by our students (Table 15) were higher than other reported values. The women in our study averaged 198% of their RDA for protein compared to a range of intakes from 139% to 164% of their respective RDAs in other studies (47,50,54). The men consumed, on the average, 255% of their protein RDA, which was much higher than the 168% reported by Ostrum and Labuza (47) and the 184% observed by Khan and Lipke (54). The high protein intakes observed in our study were not the result of a few extreme values. Ninety-two percent of the women

and 98% of the men reported consuming more than 100% of their RDA for this macronutrient. It has been stated that a diet, which provides no more than the RDA for protein, would be unacceptable to most people in industrialized societies, and that animal products naturally high in protein are important contributors of essential trace nutrients (9). A high protein intake may be advantageous for this population. Scrimshaw (99) reported that university men excreted greater amounts of urinary nitrogen during examinations than during a baseline period, indicating that protein catabolism was elevated during this stressful time. Mitchell (5), however, found that a high protein diet was a conditioning factor that enhanced the production of corticotrophic hormones by the anterior pituitary gland during the stress response, and that animals maintained on a low protein diet did not manifest either hypertension or nephrosclerosis as did animals that consumed high amounts of protein.

The mean percentages of the RDA for ascorbic acid that were consumed by both women (254%) and men (348%) in the present study were very high (Table 15). High intakes of this nutrient have been noted, elsewhere. College-age women reportedly consumed from 158% to 276% of their respective RDA for vitamin C in other studies (47,50,54). The mean percentage of the RDA for ascorbic acid (348%) consumed by the men in our study was much higher than intakes observed by Khan and Lipke (54), (171%), or by Ostrum and Labuza (47), (212%). As with protein, the high mean percentages of the RDA for ascorbic acid were the result of an upward skew of the distribution of individual intakes. It has been acknowledged that under

conditions of acute emotional or environmental stress the requirement for vitamin C increases, indicating that high intakes may be advantageous in the university population.

The average percentages of the RDA for vitamin A that were consumed by the women and men in our study were similar, 197% and 200%, respectively (Table 15). Reported mean percentage intakes for college women have ranged from 94% to 171% (47,50,54) and 96% to 107% for men (47,54). The food frequency method that we used to assess dietary intakes may have contributed to the high values. Sorenson et al. (86) observed that vitamin A intakes were higher from food frequency and diet history data than from 24-hour recalls or food records. The high intakes reported by the students in our study may indicate a desirable contemporary trend in eating behavior. Einstein and Hornstein (45) found that vitamin A was a problem nutrient for university students based on food preference data. Low intakes of this vitamin may be cause for concern; it has been suggested that this nutrient functions in the immunological responses, and may exhibit some anticarcinogenic activity (91,92,94-96).

The mean percentages of the RDAs for the B-complex vitamins that were consumed by our subjects were consistently higher than those reported by other investigators. Thiamin intakes of 142% of the RDA by the women in our study and 164% by the men compared with ranges of 93% to 112% and 99% to 108% for men and women, respectively, in other studies (47,50,54). Our women students consumed 177% and men students 228% of their RDAs for riboflavin compared with ranges of 113% to 134% for women and 138% to 143% for men reported by other

researchers (47,50,54). The mean percentages of the RDAs for niacin, excluding tryptophan conversion, that the women and men in our study consumed were 153% and 186%, respectively. Reported values in similar studies (47,50,54) ranged from 113% to 131% for women to 117% to 139% for men. As noted previously, the food frequency method overestimates energy and nutrient intakes when compared to other methods of assessment, i.e. food records and 24-hour recalls (86-88). Thiamin, however, had a somewhat low multiple correlation coefficient associated with its predictive ability (0.590) as a result of the convergent test of instrument validity that was conducted by Stanton (see Methods section, p. 34). It is not possible to determine whether the increased variability associated with thiamin's predictive power may result in under- or overestimation of the intake of this nutrient.

The mean percentages of the RDAs for calcium and iron that were consumed by the students in our sample (Table 15) support the conclusion that it is possible to classify individuals in ranges or categories of dietary intake accurately by using a food frequency instrument (87). As reported in similar studies (47,50,54), intakes of both calcium and iron, expressed as percentages of their RDAs, were low for a sizeable proportion of the women in our study. Although, as a group, they met 116% of their RDA for calcium and 82% of their RDA for iron (Table 15), approximately one-third of them reported intakes of less than two-thirds of the RDAs for both minerals. Intakes by college women in other studies have ranged from 85% to 110% of the RDA for calcium and 56% to 69% for iron (47,50,54).

The men students in our sample consumed 194% of their RDA for calcium and 176% of their RDA for iron (Table 15). Logue and Smith (100) reported that females indicated a lower preference for milk than males. This food preference impacts on calcium intake. The lower RDA for iron for men in this age group, compared to that for women, increases their likelihood of meeting their need for this micro-nutrient. Phosphorus intakes of the men and women in our study, 171% and 287% of their RDAs (Table 15), respectively, were similar to those reported by Ostrum and Labuza (152% for men and 235% for women) (47).

Mean Adequacy Ratios. Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs) (62) were computed to assess the overall quality of the students' diets in this study. Mean MAR values for university women and men, computed with and without energy, are listed in Table 18. Their individual MARs are presented in Tables 16 and 17 in Appendix H. The MAR values, with and without energy, for men were higher ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) than those for women. The MAR values for both sexes were higher ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) when the RDA for energy was not included in the computation. Using 80% as the dividing point between satisfactory and unsatisfactory diets in this method of assessing dietary quality, it appeared that, as a group these students were consuming nutritionally adequate diets. Jakobovits et al. (50) reported similar findings for a group of Cornell undergraduate women.

The percentages of our students in selected ranges of MARs are presented in Table 19. A greater ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) number of men than women had MAR values, with and without energy, of 80% or above.



Table 18. Means and standard errors\* for Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs)† of university students from food frequency data

	women (N = 75)		men (N = 132)	
	mean	± SE	mean	± SE
MAR (with energy)	90.9	± 1.05	96.5	± 0.58
MAR (without energy)	92.6	± 1.00	98.1	± 0.51

\*All values are significantly different at  $p \leq 0.001$ : Student's t-test.

†MARs were calculated by averaging individual percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances for nine nutrients (protein, vitamin A, ascorbic acid, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron), with and without energy, with values >100 truncated.

Although over 80% of the women had MAR values of 80 or greater, MAR values, with and without energy, for 16% and 12%, respectively, were below 80% compared to 1.5% for men.

Table 19. Percentages of university students in selected ranges of Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs)\*

	women (N = 75)			men (N = 132)		
	<80	80-<90	90-100	<80	80-<90	90-100
MAR (with energy)	16.0	10.7	73.3	1.5	8.3	90.2**
MAR (without energy)	12.0	12.0	76.0	1.5	3.8	94.7**

\*MARs were calculated by averaging individual percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances for nine nutrients (protein, vitamin A, ascorbic acid, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron), with and without energy, with values >100 truncated.

\*\* $p \leq 0.01$ : Chi-square.

Intercorrelations among CSRE variables, quality of dietary nutrient intakes, meal patterns, and reported alcohol consumption

Correlations among CSRE variables and percentages of the 1980 RDAs for energy, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, and iron. Both CSRE8, the frequency response to change in eating habits, and the total Life Change Units (LCU) scores for the women in our study were correlated positively ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) with their calculated energy intakes expressed as percentages of the RDA (Table 20), but no such relationship was observed for the men. It has been reported that female subjects increase their food intake under stress more frequently than male subjects (21,34-36). The LCU scores for the women in our study were somewhat higher than those for the men (see Results, p. 51). Assuming that their greater number of stressful life events resulted in a physiological stress response, it is possible that opioid-induced ingestive behaviors influenced the relationship between energy intake and total LCUs. Evidence exists suggesting that endogenously-produced opioid peptides may be released during the stress response (101), that may influence appetite regulation secondarily by stimulating a hyperphagic response (102,103). Because male subjects did not demonstrate increased energy intake in conjunction with their total LCUs (Table 20), it may be that gender differences in psychoneuroendocrinological responses exist (29,32). Alternatively, Kagan and Squires (34) speculated that women are behaviorally conditioned to use food as a narcotic in response to anxiety.

The positive correlation ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) between the intakes of ascorbic acid, expressed as a percentage of the RDA, and both CSRE8

Table 20. Intercorrelations among College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)† variables, Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs), ‡ percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs), § nutrient intakes, and reported alcohol consumption for university women (N = 75) and men (N = 132)

variable	CSREB	CSREBW	total LCUs	MAR (with energy)	MAR (without energy)	energy	ascorbic acid	vitamin A	iron	sodium (mg)	saturated fat (gm)	cholesterol (mg)	alcohol (gm)
CSREB†													
women													
men													
CSREBW ††	0.70***												
women	0.84***												
men													
total LCUs†††	0.58***	-0.10											
women	0.51***	0.11											
men													
HAK--with energy	0.11	-0.11	0.26*										
women	-0.07	-0.17*	0.12										
men													
HAK--without energy	0.08	-0.13	0.22	0.99***									
women	-0.09	-0.21*	0.11	0.97***									
men													
energy	0.29**	0.07	0.35**	0.60***	0.51***								
women	-0.02	-0.05	0.06	0.58***	0.41***								
men													
ascorbic acid	0.30**	0.09	0.32**	0.58***	0.57***	0.46***							
women	0.03	-0.04	0.04	0.38***	0.34***	0.37***							
men													
vitamin A	0.25*	-0.04	0.39***	0.55***	0.55***	0.41***	0.73***						
women	0.05	-0.05	0.20*	0.44***	0.39***	0.43***	0.59***						
men													
iron	0.23*	-0.07	0.41***	0.69***	0.65***	0.81***	0.64***	0.66***					
women	0.07	-0.01	0.18*	0.45***	0.38***	0.50***	0.37***	0.60***					
men													
sodium (mg)	0.19	-0.08	0.38***	0.63***	0.58***	0.38***	0.55***	0.50***	0.48***				
women	0.06	0.02	0.14	0.52***	0.44***	0.51***	0.30***	0.39***	0.38***				
men													
saturated fat (gm)	0.20	-0.06	0.35***	0.57***	0.50***	0.88***	0.44***	0.39***	0.77***	0.48***			
women	0.06	0.04	0.08	0.49***	0.38***	0.68***	0.36***	0.58***	0.58***	0.41***			
men													
cholesterol (mg)	0.15	-0.18	0.44***	0.55***	0.50***	0.72***	0.35***	0.43***	0.64***	0.42***	0.78***		
women	0.12	0.07	0.16	0.36***	0.29***	0.42***	0.24**	0.54***	0.52***	0.43***	0.73***		
men													
alcohol (gm)	0.17	-0.02	0.31**	0.07	0.02	0.30**	0.15	-0.04	0.17	0.12	0.25*	0.25*	
women	0.10	0.12	0.05	0.12	0.11	0.16	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.13	0.22*	0.19*	
men													

†Anderson, G.E.; College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, H.B. and Bowers, F.K., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972).

††HAKs were calculated by averaging percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances for nine nutrients (protein, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron), with and without energy, with values >100 truncated.

†††Food and Nutrition Board; Recommended Dietary Allowances, 9th rev. ed., National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 1980.

\*\*CSREB = frequency response (0-4) to "change in eating habits."

†††CSREBW = frequency response to "change in eating habits" × event value expressed as a percentage of total life change units (LCUs).

††††total life change units (LCUs) = sum of frequency responses × respective event values for all CSRE events.

\*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001; Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

and total LCUs for women may be a desirable association (Table 20). Kallner (104) suggested that increased intakes of this vitamin resulted in an optimized stress response, that is, increased excretion of adrenaline, and that individuals on higher intakes may react with greater preparedness than those on lower intakes. Watson and Leonard (94) proposed that vitamin C exhibits cancer preventing properties through its function as a nitrite scavenger. Physical, physiological, emotional, and environmental stresses lower plasma ascorbate levels. The 1980 RDA committee (9) recognized acute emotional and environmental stresses as conditions which require ascorbic acid supplementation to maintain normal plasma levels. In contrast to the total female sample in our study, there was a negative correlation ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) between ascorbic acid intakes and the amount of life stress experienced by women with MARs less than 80 percent (Table 21).

The correlation between the percentages of the RDA for vitamin A ingested and total LCU scores was positive for both women ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) and men ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) in our study (Table 20). Numerous researchers have reported a negative association between vitamin A intake and cancer incidence, presumably through the vitamin's role in regulating and/or stimulating immune function (91,92,94,95). This proposed role makes adequate vitamin A intake especially important for a subpopulation experiencing significant exposure to stressors. The stress response has been demonstrated to depress immune function, perhaps through the involution of the thymus gland (3).

There was a positive relationship between iron intakes and total

Table 21. Intercorrelations among total Life Change Units (LCUs), reported alcohol consumption, dietary intakes of ascorbic acid and vitamin A,† and meal-skipping patterns‡ for university women (N = 9) with MARs# less than 80

variables	total LCUs¶	alcohol (gm)
ascorbic acid	-0.57*	-0.66*
vitamin A	-0.27	-0.80**
lunch	0.26	0.68*
dinner	0.25	0.84**

†Percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances.

‡Reported number of times per week meal was skipped.

#Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs) were calculated by averaging percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances for nine nutrients (protein, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron), with and without energy, with values >100 truncated.

¶Total LCUs are obtained by summing all College Schedule of Recent Experience (14) events multiplied by their respective LCU values.

|| Represents grams of alcoholic beverages consumed.

\*p ≤ 0.05, \*\*p ≤ 0.01: Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

LCUs for the women ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) and men ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) in our study (Table 20). Bereza (105) reported that dietary intakes of iron were 14.8% greater among adult Russians engaged in occupations involving mental and emotional stress than among those employed in less stressful work. It has been noted that a characteristic repercussion of the stress response involves the involution of the spleen (3), an organ that functions in the reutilization of heme iron. This change may indicate that the need for dietary iron is increased in individuals experiencing chronic exposure to stress, and it may have a special implication for college-age women whose intakes of dietary iron have been reported to be low (47,48,50,52,54).

Correlations among CSRE variables and MARs. A positive relationship ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) was observed between total LCUs and the Mean Adequacy Ratio (MAR) including energy, for the women in our study (Table 20). The magnitude of the correlations between the intakes of energy, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, and iron and total LCU scores contributed to this finding. The fact that a significant relationship between overall dietary quality and the level of life stress emerged only when energy intake was included in the calculation of the MAR, underscores the assertion made by Willett and Stamfer (89) that energy intake deserves careful scrutiny in nutrition studies.

There was a negative correlation ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) between CSRE8W, the weighted frequency response to change in eating habits expressed as a percentage of total LCUs, and MARs with and without energy for the men in our study (Table 20). This indicates that their diet quality

scores decreased as changes in eating habits increased as a proportion of total life stress.

Correlations among total LCU scores and dietary intakes of sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol. Positive correlations ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) were found between the total LCU scores for the women in our study and their reported intakes of sodium, saturated fat, and cholesterol (Table 20). No similar relationships existed for the men (Table 20). Kuta et al. (106) demonstrated that mice exposed to food deprivation and immobilization stressors experienced a stress-related increase in salt intake mediated by endogenous opioids. Marks-Kaufman and Kanarek (107) observed that laboratory rats given morphine, an opiate analgesic drug, selectively increased their fat intake during a six-hour feeding period, resulting in an overall increase in fat intake as compared to their intakes of either protein or carbohydrate.

Because of the hypothesized relationship between sodium intake and idiopathic hypertension (9,22,59,108), increased intakes of this mineral may be undesirable. The stress response also has been implicated in the etiology of high blood pressure (108). An increased intake of saturated fat and cholesterol that may result in elevated blood lipids is not compatible with the current dietary recommendations to lower the incidence of cardiovascular disease (22, 24,109). Adverse changes in blood lipid profiles have been reported in college-age students following exposure to perceived stressors (30).

Correlations among CSRE variables, MARs, and meal patterns.

Intercorrelations among CSRE variables, MARs, and meal patterns are shown in Table 22. There were positive correlations between CSRE8, frequency response to change in eating habits, and the number of times per week that the men in our study skipped breakfast ( $p \leq 0.05$ ), lunch ( $p \leq 0.01$ ), and dinner ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). The CSRE8W variable also was related positively ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) to the number of breakfasts they skipped per week. Both MAR scores, with and without energy, for men were correlated negatively with the CSRE8W variable ( $p \leq 0.05$ ), as were their MAR scores and the number of times per week that they missed breakfast, lunch, and dinner ( $p \leq 0.01$ ).

The reason for the absence of significant relationships among CSRE variables, MARs, and meal patterns for the women in our study is unclear (Table 22). The women reported that they skipped lunch ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) and dinner ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) more often than the men and with somewhat higher variability (Table 4). Perhaps the variability associated with possible erratic food intake of the women prevented detection of significant relationships among the variables. Nelson (110) reported that adolescent females tended to eat more frequently than males. Increased snacking behavior among the women in our study may have affected the number of meals that they skipped. Jakobovits et al. (50), however, reported that meal skipping patterns of their female university subjects were not correlated with their snacking behavior. The fact that the women's responses to CSRE8 were correlated positively with increased intakes of energy, ascorbic acid, vitamin A and iron (Table 20), suggests that they were making



Table 22. Intercorrelations among College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)<sup>†</sup> variables, Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs),<sup>‡</sup> meal-skipping patterns,<sup>#</sup> and reported alcohol consumption for university women (N = 75) and men (N = 132)

variable	CSRE8	CSRE8W	MAR (with energy)	MAR (without energy)	breakfaat	lunch	dinner	alcohol (gm)
CSRE8 <sup>†</sup>	.							
women								
men								
CSRE8W <sup>  </sup>								
women	0.70***							
men	0.84***							
MAR--with energy								
women	0.11	-0.11						
men	-0.07	-0.17*						
MAR--without energy								
women	0.08	-0.13	0.99***					
men	-0.09	-0.21*	0.97***					
breakfaat								
women	-0.13	-0.06	-0.18	-0.16				
men	0.19*	0.23**	-0.23**	-0.24**				
lunch								
women	0.18	0.11	0.03	0.05	0.07			
men	0.23**	0.16	-0.26**	-0.23**	0.27**			
dinner								
women	0.08	0.04	0.09	0.12	0.02	0.66***		
men	0.21*	0.13	-0.28**	-0.24**	0.34***	0.48***		
alcohol (gm) <sup>††</sup>								
women	0.17	-0.02	0.07	0.02	-0.01	0.29**	0.22*	
men	0.10	0.12	0.12	0.11	0.30***	0.02	0.21*	

<sup>†</sup>Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972).

<sup>‡</sup>MARs were calculated by averaging percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances (for nine nutrients (protein, ascorbic acid, vitamin A, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron), with and without energy, with values >100 truncated.

<sup>#</sup>Reported number of times per week meal was skipped.

<sup>†</sup>CSRE8 = frequency response (0-4) to "change in eating habits."

<sup>||</sup>CSRE8W = frequency response to "change in eating habits" × event value expressed as a percentage of total Life Change Units (LCUs).

<sup>††</sup>Represents grams of alcoholic beverages consumed.

\*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001: Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients.

desirable food choices in conjunction with reported changes in eating habits. It has been reported that adolescent females are better informed consumers with regard to food selection than adolescent males (110).

Correlations among reported alcohol consumption, meal patterns, percentages of the RDAs for energy, ascorbic acid, and vitamin A, and total LCU scores. Positive relationships between meals skipped and alcohol consumption were observed for both women and men in our study. In the total female sample there was a positive relationship between the number of lunches ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) and dinners ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) skipped and their reported intake of alcoholic beverages (Table 20). The same was true for the women with MARS less than 80%, except that the significance levels for the two meals were reversed (Table 21). Reported alcohol intake by the men was related positively to the number of breakfasts ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) and dinners ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) that they missed (Table 22).

Because of the relatively high energy density of alcohol, the ingestion of alcoholic beverages may increase energy intake considerably (59). The calculated energy intakes, expressed as percentages of the RDA, for the women in this study were correlated positively ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) with their self-reported consumption of alcoholic beverages (Table 20), suggesting that the empty calories derived from those beverages may have contributed substantially to their energy needs. Negative correlations were observed between the intakes of ascorbic acid ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) and vitamin A ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) and the grams of alcoholic beverages consumed by the subsample of women with

MAR values less than 80% (Table 21). Because alcohol consumption has been linked to a variety of oral cancers (6,22), and both ascorbic acid and vitamin A are believed to possess anti-carcinogenic properties (91-96) the women in this subsample of our population may be placing their health status in jeopardy.

There was a positive correlation ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) between women's total LCU scores and their reported alcohol consumption (Table 20). No relationship existed between male values for these variables. Nash and Maickel (111) reported that unpredictable exposure to stressful stimuli induced an alcohol consummatory behavior in rats. The present finding may suggest yet another sexually differentiated response pattern in association with increased levels of life stress.

Multiple regression analyses of the effect of stressful life events on the quality of diets of university students

The results of the stepwise analyses of the predictive ability of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) variables to account for the variance associated with diet quality scores are reported in Tables 23 and 24. The multiple correlation coefficient,  $R^2$ , associated with the model selected in the final step of each regression analysis is reported. The  $R^2$  values for the regression equations, which predict the Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs) with and without energy, for the women in our study were 0.401 and 0.486, respectively (Table 23). In contrast, the  $R^2$  values for the men were 0.218 and 0.219, respectively (Table 24). The  $R^2$  values indicated that the CSRE variables accounted for 40% or greater of

Table 23. Regression analysis\* of the relationships of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)<sup>†</sup> variables to diet quality of university woman (N = 75) from food frequency data

CSRE variable <sup>‡</sup>	MAR <sup>§</sup> (with energy)				MAR (without energy)			
	$\hat{B}_1$	SE	P <sup>¶</sup>	order	$\hat{B}_1$	SE	P	order
total LCUs <sup>‡</sup>	0.005	0.001	0.0001	6	0.004	0.001	0.0020	7
CSRE4W held job while in school	57.91	28.46	0.0459	3				
CSRE13W outstanding personal achievement	37.89	20.54	0.0696	2				
CSRE20W gained new family member	78.44	40.42	0.0566	8	75.04	35.31	0.0374	6
CSRE28W change in number of arguments with spouse					51.23	32.68	0.1219	12
CSRE30W spouse began/ceased work	306.92	140.51	0.0325	9	259.76	126.52	0.0442	5
CSRE10W revision of personal habits					-62.81	30.18	0.0414	11
CSRE12W guilty of minor law violations					-134.42	51.31	0.0110	8
CSRE14W experienced a pregnancy					-114.69	53.95	0.0374	1
CSRE16W sexual difficulties	-137.63	40.28	0.0011	5	-178.70	36.96	0.0001	2
CSRE18W change in number of family gatherings	-95.96	52.54	0.0723	12	-164.42	45.60	0.0006	4
CSRE34W change in use of drugs	-69.04	33.59	0.0438	11	-89.42	34.22	0.0112	10
R <sup>2</sup>		0.401				0.486		
mean square error		56.04				44.37		

\*The model reported is the exploratory regression model of which independent CSRE variables entered at  $p < 0.50$  and stayed at  $p < 0.15$ . Blanks indicate CSRE variable did not meet significance level for staying in the model.

<sup>†</sup>Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

<sup>‡</sup>CSRE variables were weighted by multiplying their reported frequency of occurrence (0-4) by their respective Life Change Unit (LCU) values; this product was then expressed as a % of the respondent's total LCU score. Total LCUs are obtained by summing all CSRE event frequencies multiplied by their respective LCU values.

<sup>§</sup>Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs) were calculated by averaging percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances for nine nutrients (protein, vitamin A, ascorbic acid, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron), with and without energy, with values  $>100$  truncated.

<sup>¶</sup>P = prob  $> F$ .

|| Step in which CSRE variables entered model in a stepwise regression analysis.

Table 24. Regression analysis\* of the relationships of College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)<sup>†</sup> variables to diet quality of university men (N = 132) from food frequency data

CSRE variable <sup>‡</sup>	MAR# (with energy)				MAR (without energy)			
	$\hat{B}_i$	SE	P <sup>¶</sup>	order	$\hat{B}_i$	SE	P	order
total LCUs <sup>‡</sup>	0.002	0.001	0.0077	7				
CSRE7W death of close family member	44.56	17.53	0.0123	2	34.56	15.63	0.0298	2
CSRE21W change in residence/living conditions	25.65	16.74	0.1281	10				
CSRE29W change in responsibilities at work					40.77	23.10	0.0800	6
CSRE40W change in independence/responsibility	24.54	11.62	0.0367	8	24.27	10.19	0.0187	4
CSRE4W held job while in school					-31.39	15.49	0.0449	5
CSRE8W change in eating habits	-41.30	18.51	0.0274	4	-38.73	16.41	0.0198	3
CSRE9W change in field of study					-28.17	17.43	0.1086	7
CSRE10W revision of personal habits	-45.54	15.02	0.0030	1	-46.43	13.59	0.0009	1
CSRE18W change in number of family gatherings	-41.45	25.11	0.1013	5				
CSRE32W marital separation	-151.72	69.30	0.0305	6				
R <sup>2</sup>		0.218				0.219		
mean square error		36.37				28.60		

\*The model reported is the exploratory regression model of which independent CSRE variables entered at  $p < 0.50$  and stayed at  $p < 0.15$ . Blanks indicate CSRE variable did not meet significance level for staying in the model.

<sup>†</sup>Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

<sup>‡</sup>CSRE variables were weighted by multiplying their reported frequency of occurrence (0-4) by their respective Life Change Unit (LCU) values; this product was then expressed as a % of the respondent's total LCU score. Total LCUs are obtained by summing all CSRE event frequencies multiplied by their respective LCU values.

<sup>¶</sup>Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs) were calculated by averaging percentages of the 1980 Recommended Dietary Allowances for nine nutrients (protein, vitamin A, ascorbic acid, thiamin, riboflavin, niacin, calcium, phosphorus, iron), with and without energy, with values >100 truncated.

<sup>¶¶</sup>P = prob > F.

|| Step in which CSRE variables entered model in a stepwise regression analysis.

the variation in MAR scores for women but only 22% for men.

The beta weights associated with significant predictors that had a chance to be included in the model are reported along with their significance levels (Table 23 and 24). A significant beta weight indicates that the corresponding CSRE variable as a significant predictor of diet quality, that is, the variable accounted for some of the variance in diet quality that was not accounted for by the other variables present in the regression model. Total Life Change Units (LCUs) were positive indicators of the women's MARs with and without energy ( $p \leq 0.0001$  and  $p \leq 0.0020$ , respectively) (Table 23). Other positive indicators ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) included a set of CSRE events suggestive of mature life roles, for example, held job while in school, gained new family member, and spouse began/ceased work (Table 23). Negative predictors ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) of women's MAR without energy were revision of personal habits, guilty of minor law violations, experienced a pregnancy, sexual difficulties, change in number of family gatherings, and change in use of drugs (Table 23). It has been reported that sexuality issues increased stress among adolescent women (76), and that life stress levels increased with elevated drug use (76). A change in the number of family gatherings may indicate a decrease in social support, which has been reported to ameliorate the impact of stressful life experiences (112-114).

Total LCUs were also a positive predictor ( $p \leq 0.0077$ ) of men's MAR with energy (Table 24). In addition, two CSRE events involving responsibility, that is, change in responsibilities at work and change in independence/responsibility were positive predictors

( $p \leq 0.05$ ) of the men's diet quality scores. In contrast to the finding for the women, negative beta weight ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) was associated with the CSRE variable, held job while in school, and the men's MAR without energy (Table 24). The CSRE variable involving a change in eating habits, CSRE8W, also was a negative predictor ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) of both MAR values for men. The strongest overall negative predictor of MARs with and without energy ( $p \leq 0.0030$  and  $0.0009$ , respectively) was CSRE10W, revision of personal habits.

## SUMMARY

Psychosocial epidemiological researchers have conceptualized stress as the need to adapt to stressful life events (SLEs). Numerous researchers have observed that university students experience significant exposure to potential stressors, one of which may be a change in eating habits. The physiological stress response is contingent on a number of conditioning factors, which may include nutritional status. The stress-illness relationship is attracting the attention of researchers. Because stress has been found to influence appetite and eating behaviors, and because stress and dietary quality have been found to be associated independently with various disease processes, the relationships between stress levels and the quality of diets of university students were investigated.

The College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) instrument was used to investigate the number of SLEs experienced by 75 female and 132 male university students. A quantifiable food frequency questionnaire was administered to assess their dietary intakes and meal patterns, and each student estimated his/her activity level. Dietary data were analyzed for energy and nine nutrients and expressed as percentages of the Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs). Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs), with and without energy, were calculated to assess dietary quality. Sex differences and relationships among all variables were analyzed statistically.

Total stress scores on the CSRE for the women and men did not differ significantly, although the women indicated a greater



frequency response to change in eating habits. Males reportedly spent more time in non-sedentary activity than females. All meals were omitted more frequently by the women than by the men. Average energy intakes for both sexes and iron intakes for females were less than their RDAs. More women than men had MAR values less than 80%.

The men's meal-skipping patterns were correlated positively with their frequency responses to change in eating habits and negatively with their MARS. Total stress scores for women were related positively to their intakes of energy, ascorbic acid, sodium, saturated fat, cholesterol, and alcoholic beverages, as well as to their MARS with energy. For both sexes total stress scores were correlated positively with their vitamin A and iron intakes. Stepwise regression analyses indicated that CSRE variables predicted women's MAR values with approximately twice the predictive ability as compared to men's MARS. Sex-specific CSRE events emerged as predictors of dietary quality.

The results of this study suggest differential responses to stress levels on the basis of sex. SLEs influenced women's dietary quality to a greater extent as compared to men, with desirable as well as undesirable dietary patterns emerging. Further investigation examining the interrelationships among stress levels, dietary quality and health status may clarify the degree to which dietary quality mediates the stress-illness relationship.

## REFERENCES

- (1) Greenberg, J.S.: Comprehensive Stress Management. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Company, 1983.
- (2) Hanck, A.: Stress and vitamin deficiency. Intl J Vit Nutr Res Supplement 26:81, 1985.
- (3) Selye, H.: Stress in Health and Disease. Boston, MA: Butterworth Publishers, Inc., 1976.
- (4) Selye, H.: The evolution of the stress concept. Am Sci 61:692, 1973.
- (5) Mitchell, M.L.: Stress factors and nutrition. J Am Diet Assoc 29:753, 1953.
- (6) Ramsey, J.M.: Basic Pathophysiology: Modern Stress and the Disease Process. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1982.
- (7) Kipp, D.K.: Stress and nutrition. Prof Med Assist Sept./Oct.: 10, 1984.
- (8) Herbert, V.: The vitamin craze. Arch Intern Med 140:173, 1980.
- (9) Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances. 9th rev. ed. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences, 1980.
- (10) Vitamin Nutrition Information Service: Vitamin nutrition and stress. 5:1, 1985.
- (11) Kast, S.V.: Pursuing the link between stressful life experiences and disease: A time for reappraisal. In Cooper, C.L., ed.: Stress Research: Issues for the Eighties. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1983.
- (12) Dohrenwend, B.S., and Dohrenwend, B.P.: Some issues in research on stressful life events. J Nerv Mental Disease 166:7, 1978.
- (13) Greenberg, J.S.: A study of stressors in the college student population. Health Ed 12:8, 1981.
- (14) Anderson, J.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis. North Dakota State University, 1972.

- (15) Marx, M.B., Garrity, T.F., and Bowers, F.R.: The influence of recent life experience on the health of college freshmen. *J Psychosom Res* 19:87, 1975.
- (16) Daniels, R.L.: Life change unit rating scale for college students. *Health Ed* 13:29, 1982.
- (17) Hubble, J., Wilder, R., and Kennedy, C.E.: The student as a physical being. *Personnel Guidance J* 48:229, 1969.
- (18) Slochower, J., Kaplan, S.P., and Mann, L.: The effects of life stress and weight on mood and eating. *Appetite* 2:115, 1981.
- (19) Robbins, T.W., and Fray, P.J.: Stress-induced eating: Fact, fiction or misunderstanding? *Appetite* 1:103, 1980.
- (20) Holmes, S.: Stress and nutrition. *Nurs Times* 80:53, 1984.
- (21) Pudiel, V.E.: Experimental feeding in man. In Silverstone, T., ed.: *Appetite and Food Intake*. Berlin, Germany: Abakon Verlagsgesellschaft, 1976.
- (22) Caliendo, M.A.: *Nutrition and Preventive Health Care*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1984.
- (23) Dean, M.C.: *The Stress Food Book*. Washington, DC: Acropolis Books, Ltd., 1982.
- (24) U.S. Senate Select Committee on Nutrition and Human Needs: *Dietary Goals of the United States*. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1977.
- (25) Holmes, T.H., and Rahe, R.H.: The Social Readjustment Rating Scale. *J Psychosom Res* 11:213, 1967.
- (26) Lloyd, C., Alexander, A.A., Rice, D.G., and Greenfield, N.S.: Life events as predictors of academic performance. *J Human Stress* 6:15, 1980.
- (27) De Meuse, K.P.: The life events stress-performance linkage: An exploratory study. *J Human Stress* 11:111, 1985.
- (28) Strang, H.R.: Time management anxiety in undergraduate students. *Coll Stud J* 15:365, 1981.
- (29) Collins, A., and Frankenhaeuser, M.: Stress responses in male and female engineering students. *J Human Stress* 4:43, 1978.
- (30) Francis, K.T.: Psychologic correlates of serum indicators of stress in man: A longitudinal study. *Psychosom Med* 41:617, 1979.

- (31) Flynn, M.A., Anderson, A., Rutledge, M., Nolph, G.B., Krause, G., and Ellersieck, M.R.: Eggs, serum lipids, emotional stress, and blood pressure in medical students. *Arch Environ Health* 39:90, 1984.
- (32) Hymphrey, J., and Everly, G.S.: Perceived dimensions of stress responsiveness in male and female students. *Health Ed* 11:38, 1980.
- (33) Ondercin, P.A.: Compulsive eating in college women. *J Coll Stud Personnel* 20:153, 1979.
- (34) Kagan, D.M., and Squires, R.L.: Compulsive eating, dieting, stress, and hostility among college students. *J Coll Stud Personnel* 25:213, 1984.
- (35) Hawkins, R.C., and Clement, P.F.: Development and construct validation of a self-report measure of binge eating tendencies. *Addictive Behaviors* 5:219, 1980.
- (36) Herman, C.P., and Polivey, J.: Anxiety, restraint, and eating behavior. *J Abnormal Psych* 84:666, 1975.
- (37) Garrity, T.F., Marx, M.B., and Somes, G.W.: The influence of illness severity and time since life change on the size of the life change-health change relationship. *J Psychosom Res* 21:377, 1977.
- (38) Holmes, T.H., and Masupa, M.: Life change and illness susceptibility. In Dohrenwend, B.S., and Dohrenwend, B.P., eds.: *Stressful Life Events: Their Nature and Effects*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974.
- (39) Rabkin, J.G., and Struening, E.L.: Life events, stress, and illness. *Science* 194:1013, 1976.
- (40) Dohrenwend, B.S., and Dohrenwend, B.P.: Overview and Prospects for Research. In Dohrenwend, B.S., and Dohrenwend, B.P., eds.: *Stressful Life Events: Their Nature and Effect*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974.
- (41) Garrity, T.F., Marx, M.B., and Somes, G.W.: Langner's 22-item measure of psychophysiological strain as an intervening variable between life change and health outcome. *J Psychosom Res* 21:195, 1977.
- (42) Roth, D.L., and Holmes, D.S.: Influence of physical fitness in determining the impact of stressful life events on physical and psychologic health. *Psychosom Med* 47:164, 1985.

- (43) Somes, G.W., Garrity, T.F., and Marx, M.B.: The relationship of coronary-prone behavior pattern to the health of college students at varying levels of recent life change. *J Psychosom Res* 25:565, 1981.
- (44) Marx, M.B., Somes, G.W., Garrity, T.F., Reeb, A.C., and Maffeo, P.A.: The influence of a supportive, problem-solving, group intervention on the health status of students with great recent life change. *J Psychosom Res* 28:275, 1984.
- (45) Einstein, M.A., and Hornstein, I.: Food preferences of college students and nutritional implications. *J Food Sci* 35:429, 1970.
- (46) Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances. 7th rev. ed. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences, 1968.
- (47) Ostrom, S., and Labuza, T.P.: Analysis of a seven-day diet survey of college students. *Food Tech* 31:69, 1977.
- (48) O'Leary, L., and Lee, M.: Nutrient intakes of university women. *J Canad Diet Assoc* 36:53, 1975.
- (49) Canadian Council on Nutrition: Dietary Standards for Canada. *Bull Nutr* 6:1, 1964.
- (50) Jakobovits, C., Halstead, P., Kelley, L., Roe, D.A., and Young, C.M.: Eating habits and nutrient intakes of college women over a thirty-year period. *J Am Diet Assoc* 71:405, 1977.
- (51) Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances. 8th rev. ed. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences, 1974.
- (52) Gottschalk, P.L., Macaulay, C.M., Sawyer, J.M., and Miles, J.E.: Nutrient intakes of university students living in residence. *J Canad Diet Assoc* 38:47, 1977.
- (53) Department of National Health and Welfare: Dietary Standard for Canada. Information Canada, 1975.
- (54) Khan, M.A., and Lipke, L.K.: Snacking and its contribution to food and nutrient intake of college students. *J Am Diet Assoc* 81:583, 1982.
- (55) Stasch, A.R., Johnson, M.M., and Spangler, J.J.: Food practices and preferences of some college students. *J Am Diet Assoc* 57:523, 1970.
- (56) Nelson, M.B., and King, P.C.: Snack and beverage preferences of university students. *J Am Diet Assoc* 81:65, 1982.

- (57) Neugebauer, R.: The reliability of life-event reports. In Dohrenwend, B.S., and Dohrenwend, B.P., eds.: Stressful Life Events and Their Contexts. New York: Prodist, 1981.
- (58) Carroll, M.D., Abraham, S., and Dress, C.M.: Dietary Intake Source Data: United States, 1976-1980. Data from the National Health Survey Series II, No. 231, 1983.
- (59) Zeman, F.J.: Clinical Nutrition and Dietetics. Lexington, MA: Collamore Press, 1983.
- (60) Snedecor, G.W., and Cochran, W.G.: Statistical Methods. Ames, IA: Iowa State University Press, 1980.
- (61) SAS Institute Inc.: SAS User's Guide: Basics, 1982 Edition. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc., 1982.
- (62) Guthrie, H.E., and Scheer, J.C.: Validity of a dietary score for assessing nutrient adequacy. *J Am Diet Assoc* 78:240, 1982.
- (63) Guthrie, H.E.: The 1985 Recommended Dietary Allowance committee: An overview. *J Am Diet Assoc* 85:1646, 1985.
- (64) Litchfield, R.: Oral Contraceptives, Weight Gain, and Fat Distribution in Young College Women. M.S. Thesis. Kansas State University, 1986.
- (65) McCarthy, M.E., and Sabry, J.H.: Canadian university students' nutrition misconceptions. *J Nutr Ed* 5:193, 1973.
- (66) Haseba, J., and Brown, M.L.: Breakfast habits of college students in Hawaii. *J Am Diet Assoc* 53:334, 1968.
- (67) Kreps, J.M.: Women and the American Economy--A Look to the 1980s. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.
- (68) Baecke, J.A.H., Burema, J., and Frijters, J.E.R.: A short questionnaire for the measurement of habitual physical activity in epidemiological studies. *Am J Clin Nutr* 36:936, 1982.
- (69) Shriver, J., ed.: The Gallup Report. The Gallup Poll Report No. 226, 1984.
- (70) Chave, S.P.W., Morris, J.N., and Moss, S.: Vigorous exercise in leisure time and the death rate: A study of male civil servants. *J Epidemiology Comm Health* 32:239, 1978.
- (71) Hough, R.L., Fairbanks, D.T., and Garcia, A.M.: Problems in the ratio measurement of life stress. *J Health Social Behav* 17:70, 1976.

- (72) Levenson, H., Hirschfeld, M.L., Hirschfeld, A., and Dzubay, B.: Recent life events and accidents: The role of sex differences. *J Human Stress* 9:4, 1985.
- (73) Webb, L.J., Snodgrass, D., and Thagard, J.: Sex differences and life event experiences. *Psych Reports* 43:47, 1978.
- (74) Cleary, P.J.: A checklist for life event research. *J Psychosom Res* 24:199, 1980.
- (75) Dohrenwend, B.S., and Dohrenwend, B.P.: Life Stress and Illness Formulation of the Issues. In Dohrenwend, B.S., and Dohrenwend, B.P., eds.: *Stressful Life Events and Their Contexts*. New York: Prodist, 1981.
- (76) Bruns, C., and Geist, C.S.: Stressful life events and drug use among adolescents. *J Human Stress* Fall:135, 1984.
- (77) Zimmerman, M.: Weighted versus unweighted life event scores: Is there a difference? *J Human Stress* 9:30, 1985.
- (78) Dubord, R.J.: An Evaluation of the College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Report. North Dakota State University, 1972.
- (79) Marion, J.A., and Kayson, W.A.: Effects of living status, gender, and year in college on college students' self-esteem and life change experiences. *Psych Reports* 55:811, 1984.
- (80) Klein, S.: Correlates of the MMPI Lb Scale in a college population. *J Clinical Psych* 40:185, 1984.
- (81) Goldberg, E.L., and Comstock, G.W.: Epidemiology of life events: Frequency in general populations. *Am J Epidemiology* 111:736, 1980.
- (82) Hansen, S., and Mechanic, D.: Introspectiveness and adolescent symptom reporting. *J Human Stress* 11:165, 1985.
- (83) McKigney, J.I., and Munro, H.N., eds.: *Nutrient Requirements in Adolescence*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press, 1976.
- (84) Block, G., Hartman, A.M., Dresser, C.M., Carroll, M.D., Gannon, J., and Gardner, L.: A data-based approach to diet questionnaire design and testing. *Am J Epidemiology* 124:453, 1986.
- (85) Polley, D.C., Willis, R.A., and Folkers, K.: Dietary vitamin B-6 in college students. *Nutr Reports Intl* 31:281, 1985.

- (86) Sorenson, A.W., Calkins, B.M., Connolly, M.A., and Diamond, E.: Comparison of nutrient intake determined by four dietary intake instruments. *J Nutr Ed* 17:92, 1985.
- (87) Roberge, A.G., Sevigny, J., Seoane, N., and Richard, L.: Dietary intake data: Usefulness and limitations. *Progress Food Nutr Sci* 8:27, 1984.
- (88) Block, G.: A review of validations of dietary assessment methods. *Am J Epidemiology* 115:492, 1982.
- (89) Willeh, W., and Stampfer, M.J.: Total energy intake: Implication for epidemiological analyses. *Am J Epidemiology* 124:17, 1986.
- (90) Hankin, J.H., Rawlings, V., and Norum, A.: Assessment of a short dietary method for a prospective study on cancer. *Am J Clin Nutr* 31:355, 1978.
- (91) Graham, S.: Diet and cancer. *Am J Epidemiology* 112:247, 1980.
- (92) Moore, D.H., Moore II, D.H., and Moore, C.T.: Breast carcinoma etiological factors. *Adv in Cancer Res* 40:189, 1983.
- (93) Watson, R.R., and Ismail, A.H.: Diet and exercise: Modifiers of stress which can change host defenses, longevity, and cancer growth. In Watson, R.R., ed.: *CRC Handbook of Nutrition in the Aged*. CRC Press, Inc., 1985.
- (94) Watson, R.R., and Leonard, T.K.: Selenium and vitamins A, E, and C: Nutrients with cancer prevention properties. *J Am Diet Assoc* 86:505, 1986.
- (95) Ziegler, R.G., Mason, T.J., Stemhagen, A., Hoover, R., Schoenberg, J.B., Gridley, G., Virgo, P.W., and Fraumeni, J.F.: Carotenoid intake, vegetables, and the rise of lung cancer among white men in New Jersey. *Am J Epidemiology* 123:1080, 1986.
- (96) Rivers, J.M., and Collins, K.K.: Planning meals that lower cancer risk: A reference guide. Washington, DC: American Institute for Cancer Research, 1984.
- (97) Mullen, B.J., Krantzler, N.J., Grivezli, L.E., Schultz, H.G., and Meiselman, H.L.: Validity of a food frequency questionnaire for the determination of individual food intake. *Am J Clin Nutr* 39:136, 1984.



- (98) Consolazio, C.F.: Physical activity and performance of the adolescent. In McKigney, J.I., and Munro, H.N., eds.: Nutrient Requirements in Adolescence. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press, 1976.
- (99) Scrimshaw, H.S., Habicut, J.P., Piché, M.L., Cholakus, B., and Arroyave, G.: Protein metabolism of young men during university examinations. *Am J Clin Nutr* 18:321, 1966.
- (100) Logue, A.W., and Smith, M.E.: Predictors of food preferences in adult humans. *Appetite* 7:109, 1986.
- (101) Selye, H.: The stress concept: Past, present, and future. In Cooper, C.L., ed.: Stress Research: Issues for the Eighties. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1983.
- (102) Morley, J.E., Levine, A.S., Yim, G.K., and Lowy, M.T.: Opioid modulation of appetite. *Neuroscience & Biohev Rev* 7:281, 1983.
- (103) Cohen, M.R., Cohen, R.M., Pickar, D., and Murphy, D.L.: Naloxone reduces food intake in humans. *Psychosom Med* 47:132, 1985.
- (104) Kallner, A.: Influence of vitamin C status on the urinary excretion of catecholamines in stress. *Human Nutr: Clinical Nutr* 37C:405, 1983.
- (105) Bereza, V.Y.: Nutritional state and peculiarities of metabolic processes in workers in occupations involving mental and emotional stress (abstract). In Nutrition Abstracts and Reviews. Series A: Human and Experimental 52:485, 1982.
- (106) Kuta, C.C., Bryant, H.U., Zabik, J.E., and Yim, G.K.W.: Stress, endogenous opioids and salt intake. *Appetite* 5:12, 1984.
- (107) Marks-Kaufman, R., and Kanhrek, R.B.: Morphine selectively influences macronutrient intake in the rat. *Pharmacology Biochem & Behav* 12:427, 1980.
- (108) Kaplan, N.M.: Stress, the sympathetic nervous system and hypertension. *J Human Stress* 4:29, 1978.
- (109) American Heart Association: An Eating Plan for Healthy Americans. Dallas, TX, 1985.
- (110) Nelson, M.: Dietary practices of adolescents. In Winick, M., ed.: Adolescent Nutrition. John Wiley & Sons, 1982.

- (111) Nash, J.F., and Maickel, R.P.: Stress-induced consumption of ethanol by rats. *Life Sci* 37:757, 1985.
- (112) Burke, R.J., and Weir, T.: Sex differences, adolescent life stress, social support, and well-being. *J Psych* 98:277, 1978.
- (113) Holahan, C.J., and Moos, R.H.: Life stress and health: Personality, coping, and family support in stress resistance. *J Personality Social Psych* 49:739, 1985.
- (114) Samson, I.G., Samson, B.R., Potter III, E.H., and Antoni, M.H.: Life events, social support, and illness. *Psychosom Med* 47:156, 1985.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Special thanks are extended to Dr. Tony Wilcox and Calista McBride for granting access to their Physical Education and English Composition classes, and to those Kansas State University students who willingly agreed to become research subjects. Gratitude is also extended to Ruth Litchfield, Dr. Katherine Grunewald, and Wanda Koszewski for their efforts involved with data processing.

Recognition is expressed to Dr. Dallas Johnson for his patience, guidance, and professionalism during the statistical analyses, and his willingness to serve as a committee member. Appreciation is also expressed to Dr. Kathleen Newell, major professor, for initiating the idea for this project, and for her time spent during the editing of this text. A heartfelt thanks is also extended to Nedra Sylvis for her help in typing the text.

Sincere gratitude is expressed to my entire family for their support throughout my education, and their patience and flexibility extended to me during the duration of this project.

## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Life Change Unit (LCU) values on the College Schedule of Recent  
Experience (CSRE) listed in descending order

Table 1. Life Change Unit (LCU) values\* on the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)† listed in descending order

life event	LCU value
death of spouse	87
married	77
death of family member	77
divorced	76
marital separation	74
death of close friend	68
pregnant or fathered a pregnancy	68
experienced personal injury/illness	65
fired from work	62
broken steady relationship	60
sexual difficulties	58
marital reconciliation with mate	58
change in self-concept/awareness	57
change in health/behavior of family member	56
marital engagement	54
change in financial state	53
change in use of drugs	52
took mortgage/loan <\$10,000	52
entered college	50
gained new family member	50
conflict with/change in values	50
change in line of work	50
change in number of arguments with spouse	50
change to new school	50
change in independence/responsibility	49
change in responsibilities at work	47
change in use of alcohol	46
revision of personal habits	45
trouble with school administration	44
held job while in school	43

Table 1. Life Change Unit (LCU) values\* on the College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)† listed in descending order (cont)

life event	LCU value
change in social activities	43
change in working hours/conditions	42
trouble with in-laws	42
change in residence/living conditions	42
change in dating habits	41
spouse began/ceased work outside home	41
change in field of study	41
outstanding personal achievement	40
trouble with boss	38
change in school activities	38
change in type/amount of recreation	37
change in church activities	36
change in sleeping habits	34
took trip/vacation	33
change in eating habits	30
change in number of family get-togethers	26
guilty of minor law violations	22

\*LCU values were obtained by consensus from the responses of 284 college students at North Dakota State University; these units are said to represent the amount of adjustment required by an individual as the result of experiencing the particular life event.

†Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

APPENDIX B

Approval and consent



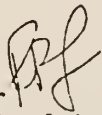


Graduate School

Research and Sponsored Programs  
Fairchild Hall  
Manhattan, Kansas 66506  
913-532-6195

TO: Dr. Kathleen Newell  
Foods and Nutrition  
Justin Hall

Proposal Number: 494

FROM: Robert P. Lowman, Chair   
Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects

DATE: November 22, 1985

RE: Committee Review of Your Proposal Titled Stress as a Factor  
in the Quality of Diets of Kansas College Students

The Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects has reviewed and approved the proposal identified above and has determined that:

- There is no more than minimal risk to subjects.
- There is greater than minimal risk to subjects.

This approval applies to this project only and only under the conditions and procedures described in the application. Any change in the protocol or conditions described in the proposal will require separate approval. This approval may be followed by a periodic review of the project and examination of records related to the project. Individual identification of human subjects in any publication is an "invasion of privacy" and requires a separately executed "informed consent."

Prior to involving human subjects, properly executed informed consent must be obtained from each subject or an authorized representative, and such forms must be retained on file for a minimum of three years after termination of the project. Each research subject must be furnished with a copy of the informed consent document for his or her personal records. Your informed consent statement, as approved by the Committee, is attached to this memorandum.

Any unanticipated problems involving risk to human subjects or others must be reported immediately to the Director of the Student Health Center and the Chairperson of the Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects.

APPROVED

NOV 22 1985

Committee on Research  
Involving Human Subjects  
Kansas State University



Department of Foods and Nutrition

Justin Hall  
Manhattan, Kansas 66506  
913-532-5508

Dear Student:

University students have been found to experience significant amounts of stress attributable to the numerous adjustments required of them. This study has been designed to gain a better understanding of the relationship of stress to quality of the diet.

All students enrolled in Concepts of Physical Education (PE 101) are being asked to participate. Each student will be asked to complete a questionnaire concerning life events that may elicit a stress response; this should require about 10 minutes. In addition, each student will be asked to complete a food frequency questionnaire, requiring about 20 minutes to complete.

Risks to the student will be minimal and all information will be kept confidential with responses and data identified by number only. We hope that all students will take part in the study; however, participation is voluntary. The student may refuse to participate or discontinue participation at any time with no penalty or loss of benefits to which the student is otherwise entitled.

Data from this study will hopefully provide greater understanding of how stress may be related to diet quality. This understanding could then be utilized by those professionals who conduct stress management/intervention instruction.

Please indicate your willingness to take part in the study on the form below. You may retain the second copy (attached) for your file. If you have any questions regarding the research, please contact Dr. Kathleen Newell (913-532-5503). Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

*MARGARET MALL*  
Margaret Mall  
Graduate Student, KSU

*Kathleen Newell*  
Kathleen Newell  
Professor  
Dept. of Foods & Nutrition, KSU

\*\*\*\*\*

STUDENT CONSENT

I have read the description of the research study and:  
(please sign your name after one sentence)

I will take part in this study. \_\_\_\_\_  
(signature of student) (date)

I will not take part in this study. \_\_\_\_\_  
(signature of student) (date)

Thank you.

APPENDIX C

College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)

## COLLEGE SCHEDULE OF RECENT EXPERIENCE:

Below is a list of 47 events which college students have identified as causing adjustment in their lives. This adjustment may elicit a stress response in an individual. In order to examine the relationship between stress and diet quality, we would like for you to complete this questionnaire. All answers will be kept confidential. You are not required to answer all questions, however the data will be invalid unless all questions are answered.

Directions: In the space provided at the left of each item indicate the NUMBER OF TIMES (0,1,2,3,4+) during the LAST YEAR (12 month period) that you:

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. entered college.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. married.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. had trouble with your boss; either a lot more or a lot less.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. held a job while attending school.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. experienced the death of a spouse.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. experienced a major change in sleeping habits (sleeping a lot more or less, change in part of day when asleep, etc).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. experienced the death of a close family member.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. experienced a major change in eating habits (a lot more or less food intake, or very different meal hours or surroundings).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. made a change in or choice of a major field of study.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. had a revision of your personal habits (friends, dress, manners, associations).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. experienced the death of a close friend.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. have been found guilty of minor violations of the law (traffic tickets, jaywalking, etc.).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. have had an outstanding personal achievement.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. experienced pregnancy or fathered a pregnancy.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. had a major change in the health or behavior of a family member.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. had sexual difficulties.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. had trouble with in-laws.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. had a major change in the number of family get-togethers (a lot more or less).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. had a major change in financial state (a lot worse off or a lot better off than usual).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. gained a new family member (through birth, adoption, older person moving in, etc.).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. changed your residence or living conditions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. had a major conflict in or change in values.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. had a major change in church activities (a lot more or less than usual).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. had a marital reconciliation with your mate.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. were fired from work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. were divorced.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27. changed to a different line of work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 28. had a major change in the number of arguments with spouse (either a lot more or less than usual).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 29. had a major change in responsibilities at work (promotion, demotion etc.).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 30. had your spouse begin or cease work outside the home.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 31. had a major change in working hours or conditions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 32. had a marital separation from your mate.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 33. had a major change in usual type and/or amount of recreation.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 34. had a major change in the use of drugs (a lot more or less).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 35. took a mortgage or loan less than \$10,000 (such as purchase of a car, TV, school loan, etc.).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 36. had a major personal injury or illness.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 37. had a major change in the use of alcohol (a lot more or less).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 38. had a major change in social activities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 39. had a major change in the amount of participation in school activities.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 40. had a major change in the amount of independence and responsibility (for example: managing time, money, etc.).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 41. took a trip or vacation.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 42. were engaged to be married.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 43. changed to a new school.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 44. changed dating habits.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 45. had trouble with school administration (instructors, advisors, class scheduling, etc.).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 46. broke or had broken a marital engagement or a steady relationship.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 47. had a major change in self-concept or self-awareness.

APPENDIX D

Quantifiable food frequency instrument

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENT OF FOODS & NUTRITION

FOOD INTAKE QUESTIONNAIRE:

This food intake questionnaire has been designed with the purpose of collecting data regarding your pattern of food intake during the LAST YEAR (12 month period). These data will be analyzed to determine what, if any, relationships exist between your stress score and the quality of your diet. Please complete Section I and II below as accurately as possible.

I. GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT YOU AND YOUR FOOD HABITS

1. What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_ 2. What is your student classification?  Freshman  Sophomore  Junior  Senior
3. Are you male or female?  male  female If female, are you:  pregnant  lactating
4. What is your weight? \_\_\_\_\_ 5. What is your height? \_\_\_\_\_
6. Has your weight changed in the last 12 months? a.  increased b.  decreased c.  both a & b d.  no change
7. Are you on a special diet?  no  yes If yes, is it:  reducing  therapeutic
8. Are you responsible for the selection and preparation of most of your meals?  no  yes
9. Do you live on or off campus?  on  off If off, check appropriate status:  apartment, house
10. Do you take a vitamin or mineral pill?  no  yes, regularly  yes, irregularly  sorority, fraternity  Jardine  with parents, family
11. Which vitamin or mineral pill do you take?  multiple vitamins with iron or other minerals  multiple vitamins  iron  calcium  vitamin A  vitamin B-complex  vitamin C  vitamin E  other

	Never	# of times									Per Time Period			
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	day	week	month
12. How often do you skip breakfast?	0										D	W	M	Y
13. How often do you skip lunch?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	D	W	M	Y
14. How often do you skip dinner?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	D	W	M	Y

15. What is your general state of health?  excellent  very good  good  fair  poor
16. Activity level (Based on the LAST YEAR): The purpose of this section is to get a rough approximation of how many calories you expend in an average day. Below, you will see that all activities are divided into 5 categories or "levels". For each level fill in the TOTAL NUMBER OF HOURS A DAY that you think you spend in an activity comparable to the examples supplied below. All 5 levels should add up to 24 hours.

LEVEL	Description	# of hours
LEVEL 1	(sleeping, reclining)	_____
LEVEL 2	(most desk jobs, typing, standing, driving a car, etc.)	_____
LEVEL 3	(walking, volleyball, washing windows, carpentry work, etc.)	_____
LEVEL 4	(fast walk, weeding & hoeing, tennis, skiing, biking, etc.)	_____
LEVEL 5	(lap swimming, basketball, jogging, etc.)	_____
		24 hrs.

II. HOW OFTEN DO YOU EAT OR DRINK THE FOLLOWING FOODS?

Please tell us how often you eat or drink the foods listed below.

To answer each question:

- a) Circle the number that tells how often you eat the food.
- b) Circle the letter that tells if you eat the food every day, week, month or year.

For example: If you drink skim milk for breakfast and before going to bed almost every day, circle 2 (for number of times) and D (for the time period). If you never drink skim milk circle 0.

1. WATER MILK DRINKS  
(including hot chocolate, milk shakes, chocolate milk drinks)

	Never	Number of times									Per Time Period			
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	day	week	month
Skim milk or skim milk drinks (including reconstituted dry milk)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
low-fat or low-fat milk drinks	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
whole milk or whole milk drinks	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

2. CHEESE OR CHEESE PRODUCTS

	Never	Number of Times									Per Time Period			
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
cottage cheese or ricotta cheese	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
other cheeses such as American, Swiss, Cheddar, or Mozzarella	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

3. OTHER DAIRY PRODUCTS

Yogurt	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Pudding	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Ice Cream	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Sour Cream or Cream Cheese	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Butter or Margarine	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Eggs	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

4. MEAT

Hamburger	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
hot dogs or Sausage	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Luncheon meats (bologna, salami, or chicken/turkey roll)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Beef or steak	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Pork or ham	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Bacon	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Liver	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Other meats (veal, lamb, or venison)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

5. POULTRY

(chicken, turkey, or duck)

Fried poultry	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Baked or broiled poultry	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

6. FISH

(other than shellfish)

Canned fish (tuna, salmon, or sardines)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Fried fish	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Baked, broiled, or cooked fish	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

7. SHELLFISH

(shrimp, crab, or oysters)

Raw shellfish	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Fried shellfish	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Baked, broiled, or cooked shellfish	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

8. GRAINS, BREADS OR PASTA

Cooked breakfast cereals	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Ready-to-eat breakfast cereals	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Waffles (waffles, pancakes, or french toast)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Breads, rolls, muffins, and biscuits white or whole grain	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

	<u>Veget</u>	<u>Number of times</u>									<u>Day Time Period</u>			
<u>Other Starches—Rice, potatoes or pasta</u>														
Rice	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Pasta, macaroni, noodles or tortilla	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Fried potatoes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Boiled or baked potatoes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
<u>9. <del>vegetables</del> (canned, fresh or frozen, excluding juices)</u>														
Taro or sweet potatoes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Corn	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Brussel sprouts or cabbage	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Squash, zucchini, or eggplant	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Cauliflower	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Broccoli	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Carrots	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Tomatoes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Olives	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Lettuce	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Spinach or other greens	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Green peas	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Green or yellow beans	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Dry Beans, peas, or lentils	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Soybeans or soybean products such as tofu or textured vegetable protein	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Other vegetables such as mushrooms, peppers, turnips, or beets	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
<u>10. <del>fruit</del> (fresh, frozen or canned but not juice)</u>														
Citrus fruits	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Apples or pears	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Peaches or plums	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Cherries or berries	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Bananas	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Melons	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Raisins or other dried fruit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Mixed fruits or other fruits (such as fruit cocktail, grapes, pineapple, or nectarines)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
<u>11. <del>Miscellaneous Foods</del></u>														
Peanut butter	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Jams and jellies	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Pancake syrup	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Sugar or honey added to food	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Pizza	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y



	<u>Major</u>	<u>Number of times</u>									<u>Per Time Period</u>			
Soups such as broth, consommé, or bouillon	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Other soups	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Meat gravies	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
White or cheese sauces	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Tomato sauce or Ketchup	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Mayonnaise	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Low-cal salad dressing	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Regular salad dressing	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Mustard - condiments	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
<b>12. <u>MEATS AND SNACKS</u></b>														
Nuts	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Crackers	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Potato chips or corn chips	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Other snacks such as popcorn or pretzels	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
<b>13. <u>CANDIES OR SWEET DESSERTS</u></b>														
Candies	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Other sweets such as cookies, cakes, pies, donuts, danish, or pastries	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
cake icing	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
chocolate syrup	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
sherbert	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
<b>14. <u>NON-ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES</u></b>														
Fruit or vegetable juices	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Fruit drinks (such as lemonade or Hawaiian Punch)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Low-cal carbonated soft drinks	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Regular carbonated soft drinks	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Beverage mixes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Coffee or tea	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
instant coffee or tea with sweetener	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
coffee or tea with sugar added	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Do you usually add:														
non-calory creamers		<input type="checkbox"/>	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	no									
milk or cream		<input type="checkbox"/>	yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	no									
<b>15. <u>ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES</u></b>														
Beer	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
wine	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y
Liquor or liqueur	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	W	M	Y

APPENDIX E

Individual percentages of the 1980 RDAs and MARs (including and  
excluding energy) for university students

(N = 20) from food frequency data

Table 2. Individual percentages of the 1980 RDAs\* and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university students (N = 20) from 3-day food records and food frequency data

ID number	energy	protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
307†	67	324.6	177	248.0	134.4	114.6	106.9	89	183	162.6	95.6	98.8
307A#	16	41.8	33	45.6	27.0	46.0	53.3	56	71	41.5	43.1	46.1
307B#	15	35.7	36	86.9	27.2	39.3	25.5	46	61	30.7	40.3	43.1
342	57	173.2	437	302.8	155.0	176.2	147.4	153	206	96.0	95.3	99.6
342A	47	143.0	249	273.8	153.7	158.5	155.8	117	165	81.6	92.2	98.0
342B	55	155.9	284	285.3	172.2	192.1	172.7	141	185	83.4	93.8	98.2
371	88	396.5	661	147.5	169.2	293.8	180.8	156	142	105.1	98.8	100.0
371A	105	201.0	166	203.6	174.3	221.9	169.6	172	212	91.3	99.1	99.0
371B	85	175.2	183	139.3	141.9	213.0	136.1	166	196	76.6	96.2	97.4
372	71	322.8	82	230.1	81.2	139.3	99.4	135	162	69.2	90.3	92.4
372A	88	211.9	184	232.3	132.8	187.2	162.3	165	215	83.6	97.2	98.2
372B	77	243.3	208	265.8	128.2	208.1	144.0	188	235	77.2	95.4	97.5
373	56	154.9	174	165.1	73.0	112.4	74.7	134	164	44.0	84.8	88.0
373A	53	155.6	158	281.9	116.9	140.5	109.4	129	162	54.7	90.8	95.0
373B	68	193.3	201	307.1	137.5	172.5	147.1	140	189	74.2	94.2	97.1
374	69	283.0	79	329.1	172.1	150.7	177.1	148	259	251.3	94.8	97.7
374A	113	243.0	309	468.9	179.5	253.1	238.4	200	324	252.0	100.0	100.0
374B	83	230.9	258	429.2	156.7	209.2	199.3	193	293	207.9	98.3	100.0
375	96	325.2	514	312.2	187.8	232.9	256.6	149	293	119.0	99.6	100.0
375A	79	234.3	369	201.8	167.1	279.9	176.8	236	262	89.3	96.8	98.1
375B	68	182.1	279	238.0	144.8	179.8	163.8	127	180	84.5	95.2	98.3
376	89	149.1	278	249.1	129.7	152.1	114.5	113	148	64.3	95.3	96.0
376A	115	228.5	243	294.7	188.9	308.3	171.6	253	304	90.5	99.0	98.9
376B	88	195.5	230	232.9	166.1	258.7	151.3	216	238	84.6	97.3	98.3
377	50	172.6	590	34.8	144.2	141.1	119.9	182	198	153.2	88.5	92.8
377A	74	270.7	154	88.7	215.8	219.5	161.9	229	322	193.1	96.3	98.7
377B	63	251.7	134	90.8	222.9	171.6	170.8	164	275	222.7	95.4	99.0
378	67	172.4	95	182.6	163.9	121.9	149.2	43	132	77.1	88.2	90.6
378A	79	209.6	202	583.0	162.7	162.0	159.2	102	264	84.7	96.4	98.3
378B	47	108.1	97	111.8	89.0	101.2	89.2	61	109	45.2	82.8	86.8
379	52	105.8	135	163.7	222.7	187.9	184.7	76	123	116.6	92.8	97.3
379A	48	125.2	130	191.6	103.8	118.6	111.0	74	113	62.3	88.4	92.9
379B	46	117.3	105	212.4	99.4	111.9	103.0	80	114	58.1	88.4	93.1
380	87	366.7	95	56.5	147.7	181.2	138.5	215	178	78.5	91.7	92.2
380A	56	160.1	92	138.1	87.8	131.5	101.3	131	159	46.8	88.3	91.8
380B	17	148.7	110	167.8	95.2	111.9	109.8	82	132	55.4	85.0	92.5

Table 2. Individual percentages of the 1980 RDAs\* and MARs† (including and excluding energy) for university students (N = 20) from 3-day food records and food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy	protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
381	78	287.5	149	89.8	141.8	174.5	161.4	157	187	108.9	96.8	98.9
381A	36	126.6	124	193.8	102.5	131.1	111.4	85	149	59.1	88.0	93.8
381B	45	120.5	95	182.8	81.9	115.0	94.6	84	139	49.7	85.0	89.5
382	68	172.1	46	144.4	72.4	70.1	91.7	75	115	47.5	77.1	78.1
382A	77	194.6	186	250.5	124.4	138.5	143.7	151	199	76.7	95.4	97.4
382B	108	244.6	153	246.6	150.5	152.5	185.4	128	212	98.9	99.9	99.9
383	55	138.1	175	417.7	111.1	130.8	96.6	103	107	71.2	92.3	96.4
383A	61	168.3	178	169.7	114.6	145.4	124.0	127	170	65.2	92.6	96.1
383B	51	135.5	131	166.7	88.6	120.0	93.3	101	141	54.9	88.8	93.0
384	46	215.3	84	111.5	91.4	109.5	100.7	99	86	75.9	88.2	92.9
384A	54	159.7	113	204.2	100.4	118.9	99.0	100	144	51.8	90.5	94.5
384B	40	137.9	86	150.1	83.1	86.3	97.2	74	117	46.4	81.3	85.9
400	63	178.2	94	159.4	60.1	73.8	89.7	47	92	39.6	75.9	77.4
400A	89	189.1	252	251.2	154.3	179.0	192.5	126	189	93.7	98.3	99.3
400B	78	140.2	187	220.8	121.7	143.3	141.9	93	142	67.1	93.8	95.6
401	38	120.6	26	2.9	49.6	58.9	39.5	71	53	30.7	47.0	48.0
401A	47	93.7	129	328.2	97.8	117.5	89.0	95	113	47.7	87.0	91.5
401B	58	147.6	177	304.3	105.5	133.7	116.7	92	150	59.6	91.0	94.6
402	113	231.5	466	256.9	108.7	165.4	89.7	146	204	73.3	96.3	95.9
402A	83	203.0	246	417.3	173.5	193.1	169.5	148	213	101.0	98.3	100.0
402B	68	186.5	223	222.3	138.7	160.8	157.5	115	177	89.1	95.7	98.8
405	67	271.7	182	244.5	142.5	147.2	132.2	107	151	70.2	93.7	96.7
405A	83	198.5	216	281.4	135.3	144.5	149.7	107	172	91.3	97.4	99.0
405B	67	163.1	206	256.3	109.2	129.0	109.8	103	152	73.3	94.0	97.0

\*Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances, 9th rev. ed., National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 1980.

†Mean Adequacy Ratios were calculated by averaging individual  $\bar{x}$  RDAs for the tabled nutrients, including and excluding energy, with values >100 truncated.

‡Averaged values over 3-day period recorded.

#Composite day's intake from food frequency data obtained twice at 2-week interval.

APPENDIX F

Percentage frequency distributions of student responses to  
College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)

Table 6. Percentage frequency distribution of student responses\* to College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)†

CSRE event	women (N = 75) response				men (N = 132) response					
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
entered college	1	87	11	0	1	5	87	5	2	1
married	99	1	0	0	0	99	1	0	0	0
trouble with boss	65	24	3	1	7	61	17	12	2	8
held job while in school	35	44	12	8	1	51	35	10	3	1
death of spouse	100	0	0	0	0	98	2	0	0	0
change in sleeping habits	14	30	17	15	24	17	33	19	8	23
death of family member	76	20	3	1	0	80	19	1	0	0
change in eating habits	8	36	21	8	27	26	30	17	8	19
change in field of study	45	37	11	4	3	54	34	8	3	1
revision of personal habits	15	51	15	8	12	21	46	17	11	5
death of close friend	85	12	0	2	1	82	14	3	0	1
guilty of minor law violations	69	20	4	5	2	51	19	12	13	5
outstanding personal achievement	36	25	11	8	20	26	34	14	10	16
pregnant or fathered a pregnancy	99	1	0	0	0	98	1	0	0	1
change in health/behavior of family member	8	19	9	3	1	71	24	3	1	1
sexual difficulties	83	9	7	0	1	83	8	4	0	5
trouble with in-laws	95	1	3	1	0	88	5	5	0	2
change in number of family get-togethers	56	27	11	1	5	55	30	7	3	5

Table 6. Percentage frequency distribution of student responses\* to College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)† (cont)

CSRE event	women (N = 75) response				men (N = 132) response					
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
change in financial state	28	46	9	8	9	31	46	10	4	9
gained new family member	81	16	1	0	1	86	12	1	0	1
change in residence/living conditions	5	72	17	3	3	7	76	7	7	3
conflict with/change in values	49	35	12	0	4	58	29	7	3	3
change in church activities	51	40	7	1	1	49	36	8	1	6
marital reconciliation with mate	97	0	0	3	0	94	2	1	2	1
fired from work	100	0	0	0	0	98	1	1	0	0
divorced	100	0	0	0	0	99	1	0	0	0
change in line of work	75	21	1	0	3	68	22	4	4	2
change in number of arguments with spouse	88	5	3	0	4	89	4	2	1	4
change in responsibilities at work	69	19	7	0	5	78	14	4	1	3
spouse began/ceased work outside home	97	2	1	0	0	99	0	0	0	1
change in working hours/conditions	49	32	12	4	3	56	28	11	1	4
marital separation	99	1	0	0	0	98	1	0	1	0
change in type/amount of recreation	24	43	17	7	9	20	42	15	8	15
change in use of drugs	88	7	3	0	2	85	9	3	2	1
took mortgage/loan <\$10,000	76	17	5	2	0	72	20	5	2	1
experienced personal injury/illness	84	13	3	0	0	83	12	3	2	0

Table 6. Percentage frequency distribution of student responses\* to College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)† (cont)

CSRE event	women (N = 75) response				men (N = 132) response					
	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
change in use of alcohol	55	29	6	5	5	45	36	7	5	7
change in social activities	19	37	16	13	15	20	50	11	8	11
change in school activities	29	40	16	8	7	41	35	8	9	7
change in independence/responsibility	9	48	15	5	23	16	39	15	13	17
took trip/vacation	36	25	23	11	5	39	28	18	8	7
marital engagement	85	13	2	0	0	97	2	0	1	0
changed to new school	17	80	1	2	0	26	70	3	0	1
changed dating habits	37	33	16	4	10	41	39	8	5	7
trouble with school administration	56	25	10	5	4	64	25	5	3	3
broken steady relationship	67	29	3	0	1	76	16	5	2	1
change in self-concept/awareness	51	27	12	2	8	49	35	10	3	3

\*Number of times (0-4) during the last year event was experienced.

†Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)



APPENDIX G

Individual total Life Change Units (LCUs) for university  
women (N = 75) and men (N = 132) from College  
Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)

Table 10. Individual total Life Change Units (LCUs)\* for university women (N = 75) from College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)†

ID number	LCUs	ID number	LCUs	ID number	LCUs	ID number	LCUs
3	2189	111	980	195	948	336	2568
9	942	115	815	197	2025	338	825
11	1487	116	818	198	1110	341	960
12	1263	117	768	199	632	343	1254
15	1147	118	1786	200	1162	344	790
16	761	119	2366	203	1120	346	2264
22	475	127	1346	304	939	347	1846
37	736	130	2128	305	1645	350	3594
40	1142	131	1882	308	1349	351	2379
41	1489	132	871	309	1263	352	1049
48	2495	133	962	310	1445	353	759
51	579	134	831	314	827	391	1028
62	2344	136	788	315	1377	398	2179
66	1067	149	1062	321	1575	400	1368
68	967	177	660	322	2613	401	1657
83	1838	184	1111	323	967	408	3168
99	1514	190	964	325	1525	417	1746
101	1608	191	1873	326	2239	420	611
103	610	192	929	327	2966		

\*LCUs = sum of frequency responses × respective event values for all CSRE events.

†Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

Table 11. Individual total Life Change Units (LCUs)\* for university men (N = 132) from College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE)†

ID number	LCUs	ID number	LCUs	ID number	LCUs	ID number	LCUs
1	1705	63	1672	141	1212	333	1486
2	971	64	1574	143	1662	335	2104
4	1072	65	548	153	3683	339	760
5	1036	71	191	154	862	340	1364
7	1805	75	1140	155	396	342	1265
8	1476	77	1872	161	535	345	425
17	867	78	1870	162	1548	348	1011
20	1003	79	1640	163	869	356	2780
23	1408	80	1889	164	1299	357	1064
24	1140	81	1506	165	431	387	1889
25	578	82	1272	166	2951	388	1842
26	1227	84	1403	172	1387	389	1139
27	4907	85	534	173	822	390	683
28	1328	86	506	175	2849	392	716
29	1170	91	1678	176	2248	393	1516
30	1285	92	1011	181	1671	394	1062
31	1503	93	737	183	931	397	1475
32	985	94	737	185	1189	399	1754
33	1249	95	1614	188	2038	402	758
34	728	96	1778	189	1058	403	1402
35	1647	98	5135	193	1680	404	836
36	1097	102	912	194	855	405	1864
38	644	106	677	204	2437	406	1727
42	2340	107	633	205	558	407	1570
43	324	110	688	306	1176	411	1648
46	1926	113	1346	311	1521	412	1569
47	1185	114	1078	313	1440	414	742
49	1012	121	657	316	426	416	1218
52	1278	122	1193	317	1162	418	765
53	1483	129	730	318	1120	419	614
57	1236	138	760	320	3339	421	591
59	1483	139	400	328	873	423	1264
61	1315	140	1109	330	2153	424	899

\*LCUs = sum of frequency responses × respective event values for all CSRE events.

†Anderson, G.E.: College Schedule of Recent Experience. M.S. Thesis, North Dakota State University, 1972. (As modified by Marx, M.B. and Bowers, F.R., University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1972.)

## APPENDIX H

Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs, and  
MARs (including and excluding energy) for university  
women (N = 75) and men (N = 132) from  
food frequency data

Table 16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data

ID number	energy		protein gm	vit A		ascorbic acid mg	thiamin mg	riboflavin mg	niacin N.E.	calcium mg	phosphorus mg	iron mg	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.		mg	mg									
003														
Intake	2141	7220	94.3	1.72	124.4	1.72	1.58	24.28	616	1395	16.02	16.02	92.8	93.4
% RDA	88	180	205.0	156.7	207.3	156.7	121.6	173.4	51	116	88.9	88.9		
009														
Intake	1670	3943	46.3	1.01	178.9	1.01	1.08	13.11	475	966	8.74	8.74	85.2	86.1
% RDA	77	98	105.3	92.4	298.1	92.4	83.0	93.6	59	121	48.5	48.5		
011														
Intake	1850	9222	63.6	1.76	164.6	1.76	2.17	21.63	868	1216	15.98	15.98	97.5	98.8
% RDA	86	230	144.6	160.3	274.2	160.3	167.5	154.5	108	152	88.8	88.8		
012														
Intake	1774	4106	77.8	1.09	79.8	1.09	1.25	20.01	511	1153	13.49	13.49	91.4	92.7
% RDA	79	103	176.8	99.7	132.9	99.7	96.2	143.6	64	144	74.9	74.9		
015														
Intake	1336	3023	63.4	1.17	51.4	1.17	1.07	13.89	514	927	9.06	9.06	77.6	79.2
% RDA	64	76	137.7	106.8	85.5	106.8	82.4	99.2	43	77	50.3	50.3		
016														
Intake	1835	3629	76.6	1.03	121.5	1.03	1.54	16.80	803	1424	10.89	10.89	91.1	93.9
% RDA	66	91	174.1	93.7	202.4	93.7	118.7	120.0	100	178	60.5	60.5		
022														
Intake	1837	5864	72.6	1.00	66.5	1.00	1.47	18.35	611	1226	10.57	10.57	71.0	70.1
% RDA	79	59	113.4	61.3	66.5	61.3	81.6	96.6	51	102	15.5	15.5		
037														
Intake	2621	13435	107.5	2.07	172.2	2.07	2.69	23.99	1401	184.5	17.84	17.84	99.3	99.9
% RDA	94	336	244.2	188.2	286.9	188.2	206.8	171.3	175	230	99.1	99.1		
040														
Intake	2196	11257	78.6	1.66	217.3	1.66	2.73	21.74	1332	1927	15.15	15.15	96.4	98.2
% RDA	80	281	170.7	151.5	362.2	151.5	210.5	155.3	111	161	84.1	84.1		
041														
Intake	2503	6753	94.0	1.58	185.5	1.58	1.77	21.87	633	1509	15.32	15.32	90.8	93.1
% RDA	70	135	167.7	113.1	309.1	113.1	104.5	121.5	53	126	85.1	85.1		
048														
Intake	3530	13601	158.5	2.83	212.8	2.83	3.63	42.38	1401	2504	28.70	28.70	100.0	100.0
% RDA	145	340	344.6	257.6	354.6	257.6	279.8	302.7	117	209	159.4	159.4		

Table 16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A		ascorbic acid		thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	% RDA	gm	I.U.	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg		
051	Intake	2339	86.3	9488	132.1	1.38	1.45	21.54	564	1442	16.49	91.6	93.2		
	% RDA	77	187.6	237	220.1	126.2	112.0	153.8	47	120	91.6				
062	Intake	1524	66.9	8449	83.4	0.89	1.96	11.39	1112	1302	8.83	87.2	89.3		
	% RDA	68	145.4	211	139.0	81.2	150.7	81.3	93	108	49.0				
066	Intake	2209	103.2	8799	126.7	1.78	2.94	23.52	1342	1825	15.63	95.7	98.5		
	% RDA	70	224.4	220	211.2	161.9	226.2	168.0	112	152	86.8				
068	Intake	2329	90.2	6052	143.6	1.72	2.65	20.09	1362	1866	12.96	94.1	96.9		
	% RDA	69	205.0	151	239.3	156.7	203.8	143.5	170	233	72.0				
083	Intake	2420	85.0	6623	90.0	1.77	2.02	27.84	651	1360	20.29	94.7	94.9		
	% RDA	93	184.8	166	150.0	161.2	155.7	198.8	54	113	112.7				
099	Intake	3544	124.0	14163	451.2	3.03	4.36	35.08	2136	3014	22.50	100.0	100.0		
	% RDA	100	221.3	283	752.0	216.9	256.9	194.9	178	251	125.0				
101	Intake	2438	87.9	8123	79.4	1.36	1.61	23.81	536	1257	17.56	93.8	94.7		
	% RDA	85	157.0	162	132.3	90.6	95.2	125.3	67	157	99.5				
103	Intake	1037	44.6	2815	74.1	0.55	1.22	7.67	742	939	4.89	67.4	70.4		
	% RDA	41	96.8	70	123.4	50.4	94.0	54.8	62	78	27.2				
111	Intake	1004	42.9	7950	183.2	0.85	1.13	11.98	502	791	8.41	78.0	83.9		
	% RDA	25	97.4	199	305.2	77.3	86.8	85.6	63	99	46.7				
115	Intake	2281	86.2	5893	69.3	1.11	2.13	19.54	1054	1594	10.97	94.0	94.3		
	% RDA	92	187.3	147	115.4	101.6	164.3	139.5	88	133	60.9				
116	Intake	2511	66.6	6219	84.2	1.94	2.04	23.11	607	1190	15.60	93.6	92.9		
	% RDA	119	144.8	155	140.3	176.4	157.6	165.1	50	99	86.6				

Table 16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARs† (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	g	I.U.	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg		
117	Intake	2323	92.5	7186	208.6	1.65	1.80	22.72	829	1607	16.35	93.1	95.5
	% RDA	71	201.1	180	347.6	150.0	138.9	162.3	69	134	90.8		
118	Intake	1803	83.9	3993	75.1	1.26	1.71	19.95	758	1282	12.68	91.4	92.6
	% RDA	81	182.3	99	125.1	114.6	132.0	142.5	63	107	70.4		
119	Intake	2660	98.9	8005	217.9	1.64	2.25	25.54	1022	1764	16.89	97.8	97.7
	% RDA	99	215.0	200	363.1	149.2	173.2	182.4	85	147	93.8		
127	Intake	2529	131.9	8170	260.7	1.57	3.77	19.26	2183	2761	13.49	93.5	97.2
	% RDA	60	286.6	204	434.5	143.1	290.0	137.6	182	230	74.9		
130	Intake	1960	66.7	8244	172.5	1.65	1.61	23.72	462	1017	17.49	90.4	91.1
	% RDA	84	145.0	206	287.5	150.7	124.1	169.4	38	85	97.1		
131	Intake	1598	63.1	1982	27.9	0.69	1.28	12.53	645	1058	7.44	74.9	74.3
	% RDA	80	143.3	50	46.5	63.0	98.7	89.5	80	132	41.3		
132	Intake	2452	102.7	7718	102.0	1.75	4.14	20.98	2352	2397	12.72	96.2	96.7
	% RDA	91	233.3	193	169.9	159.8	318.4	149.8	294	300	70.6		
133	Intake	2941	99.1	5838	146.6	2.13	3.37	22.93	1879	2109	14.86	98.2	98.1
	% RDA	145	215.5	146	244.3	194.2	259.5	163.8	156	176	82.5		
134	Intake	1423	56.1	5318	104.6	1.02	1.12	13.72	483	875	9.70	79.9	82.7
	% RDA	55	121.9	133	174.2	92.7	86.3	98.0	40	73	53.9		
136	Intake	1082	31.1	5066	88.8	0.83	1.09	9.66	509	660	7.78	68.3	70.8
	% RDA	46	67.5	127	148.0	76.1	84.1	69.0	42	55	43.2		
149	Intake	1325	53.4	5975	144.9	1.08	1.46	15.04	791	1081	9.75	90.4	94.6
	% RDA	52	121.4	145	241.5	98.3	112.9	107.4	99	135	54.1		

Table 16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARs† (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg	(energy)	(without energy)
177													
Intake	1651	3482	75.6	78.6	0.89	1.13	14.95	473	1012	10.73	83.3	86.1	
% RDA	58	87	171.7	130.9	81.2	87.6	106.8	59	126	59.6			
184													
Intake	1199	3992	35.5	100.4	0.58	0.87	7.73	480	987	5.49	69.5	71.8	
% RDA	49	100	80.7	167.4	52.6	67.3	55.2	60	123	30.5			
190													
Intake	3205	9186	137.9	107.0	2.29	3.67	33.25	1673	2300	22.81	100.0	100.0	
% RDA	145	230	299.8	178.3	208.7	282.6	237.5	139	192	126.7			
191													
Intake	3052	4392	88.0	210.4	1.93	1.99	28.04	911	1977	16.21	95.4	96.2	
% RDA	88	110	191.2	350.7	176.2	153.5	200.3	76	165	90.0			
192													
Intake	2056	9208	82.4	191.9	1.45	1.53	22.71	724	1280	15.81	95.3	97.6	
% RDA	74	230	187.3	319.8	131.7	117.7	162.2	90	160	87.8			
195													
Intake	2282	4469	70.2	88.2	1.18	1.78	15.21	827	1292	12.85	96.9	96.8	
% RDA	98	112	159.4	147.0	107.9	137.4	108.6	103	161	71.3			
197													
Intake	1898	13308	89.8	209.0	1.51	2.96	18.82	1626	2012	12.41	93.8	96.5	
% RDA	69	333	204.0	348.2	138.0	227.9	134.4	203	251	68.9			
198													
Intake	2086	4964	107.9	45.6	1.32	2.60	16.92	1647	2016	10.77	89.9	92.9	
% RDA	63	124	234.5	75.9	120.5	200.2	120.8	137	168	59.8			
199													
Intake	1766	4764	83.8	76.7	1.13	2.93	13.95	1720	1836	8.43	91.3	94.0	
% RDA	66	119	190.4	127.8	102.6	225.8	99.6	215	230	46.8			
200													
Intake	1729	3164	49.6	118.8	0.79	1.15	14.79	526	1247	8.55	80.6	81.3	
% RDA	75	79	107.9	197.9	71.9	89.0	105.6	44	104	47.5			
203													
Intake	2372	4878	89.9	70.6	1.55	2.78	20.19	1428	1803	12.08	95.2	96.3	
% RDA	85	122	203.8	117.6	141.4	214.5	144.2	178	225	67.1			



Table 16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARs† (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg		
304													
Intake	2458	7812	101.2	105.1	1.55	2.46	22.83	1231	1756	15.58	15.58	98.5	98.5
% RDA	98	195	229.9	175.1	141.4	189.7	163.1	154	220	86.5	86.5		
305													
Intake	2557	27976	131.3	378.1	2.16	3.10	30.62	1793	2325	21.67	21.67	100.0	100.0
% RDA	102	699	285.5	630.1	196.5	239.1	218.7	149	194	120.3	120.3		
308													
Intake	1800	9955	87.0	143.1	1.19	1.63	19.30	805	1306	13.32	13.32	94.5	97.1
% RDA	71	249	197.8	238.5	108.1	125.8	137.8	101	163	74.0	74.0		
309													
Intake	1467	4603	64.7	61.1	0.85	1.01	16.43	367	902	9.77	9.77	75.5	79.5
% RDA	40	115	140.6	101.7	77.4	78.2	117.4	30	75	54.2	54.2		
310													
Intake	1624	1246	50.7	28.8	1.13	1.25	15.08	503	1066	6.53	6.53	72.6	74.9
% RDA	52	31	115.3	48.0	103.0	96.1	107.7	63	133	36.2	36.2		
314													
Intake	1378	3565	58.3	88.2	1.13	1.35	16.18	552	917	10.65	10.65	81.9	85.6
% RDA	48	89	126.7	147.0	103.4	104.3	115.6	46	76	59.1	59.1		
315													
Intake	2336	4844	70.1	194.5	1.49	1.77	17.89	819	1627	12.35	12.35	93.7	93.0
% RDA	103	121	152.3	324.1	136.1	136.8	127.7	68	136	68.6	68.6		
321													
Intake	3003	7114	102.8	336.3	1.95	3.12	19.73	1538	1953	15.97	15.97	97.6	98.7
% RDA	87	178	223.5	560.4	177.3	240.5	140.9	128	163	88.7	88.7		
322													
Intake	1987	8463	100.1	83.4	1.36	3.03	16.14	1784	2018	12.50	12.50	96.2	96.6
% RDA	93	212	227.4	139.0	124.1	233.4	115.2	223	252	69.4	69.4		
323													
Intake	1043	3620	44.9	51.8	0.66	1.27	9.30	721	853	6.55	6.55	77.0	80.8
% RDA	42	90	102.0	86.3	60.2	97.7	66.4	90	107	36.4	36.4		
325													
Intake	2194	7543	94.4	212.5	1.92	3.11	22.05	1688	1971	14.99	14.99	97.2	98.1
% RDA	89	188	205.2	354.2	175.2	239.6	157.5	141	164	83.3	83.3		

Table 16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein		vit A		ascorbic acid		thiamin		riboflavin		niacin		calcium		phosphorus		iron		MAR (energy)		MAR (without energy)			
	kcal	%	gm	%	I. U.	%	mg	%	mg	%	mg	%	N.E.	mg	%	mg	%	mg	%	mg	%		%		%	
326	intake	3104	130.6	16972	279.6	2.46	4.33	24.55	2526	2790	20.35	100.0	20.35	100.0	20.35	100.0	20.35	100.0	20.35	100.0	20.35	100.0	20.35	100.0	20.35	100.0
	% RDA	104	283.9	424	465.9	223.9	333.7	175.3	210	232	113.0	100.0	113.0	100.0	113.0	100.0	113.0	100.0	113.0	100.0	113.0	100.0	113.0	100.0	113.0	100.0
327	intake	3495	136.4	32110	491.0	2.47	3.36	35.63	2023	2584	31.58	100.0	31.58	100.0	31.58	100.0	31.58	100.0	31.58	100.0	31.58	100.0	31.58	100.0	31.58	100.0
	% RDA	109	296.4	803	818.3	225.3	259.0	254.5	168	215	175.4	100.0	175.4	100.0	175.4	100.0	175.4	100.0	175.4	100.0	175.4	100.0	175.4	100.0	175.4	100.0
336	intake	2171	89.6	9968	54.0	1.32	1.96	20.43	930	1468	14.92	69.6	14.92	69.6	14.92	69.6	14.92	69.6	14.92	69.6	14.92	69.6	14.92	69.6	14.92	69.6
	% RDA	47	95.3	66	45.0	66.3	93.3	97.3	58	92	12.6	67.3	12.6	67.3	12.6	67.3	12.6	67.3	12.6	67.3	12.6	67.3	12.6	67.3	12.6	67.3
338	intake	1747	75.3	7306	159.4	1.40	2.21	15.36	1246	1471	13.05	96.9	13.05	96.9	13.05	96.9	13.05	96.9	13.05	96.9	13.05	96.9	13.05	96.9	13.05	96.9
	% RDA	50	163.7	183	265.6	127.9	170.4	109.7	104	122	72.5	92.3	72.5	92.3	72.5	92.3	72.5	92.3	72.5	92.3	72.5	92.3	72.5	92.3	72.5	92.3
341	intake	2179	89.4	12993	153.4	1.59	2.36	19.98	1236	1698	14.21	97.7	14.21	97.7	14.21	97.7	14.21	97.7	14.21	97.7	14.21	97.7	14.21	97.7	14.21	97.7
	% RDA	58	194.2	325	255.6	144.9	182.2	142.7	103	141	78.9	93.7	78.9	93.7	78.9	93.7	78.9	93.7	78.9	93.7	78.9	93.7	78.9	93.7	78.9	93.7
343	intake	4915	186.4	8951	258.3	2.19	2.31	46.48	895	2736	27.80	100.0	27.80	100.0	27.80	100.0	27.80	100.0	27.80	100.0	27.80	100.0	27.80	100.0	27.80	100.0
	% RDA	169	423.5	224	430.5	199.2	177.6	331.9	112	342	154.4	100.0	154.4	100.0	154.4	100.0	154.4	100.0	154.4	100.0	154.4	100.0	154.4	100.0	154.4	100.0
344	intake	2092	98.1	5846	170.8	1.85	2.69	19.78	1314	1783	15.22	98.3	15.22	98.3	15.22	98.3	15.22	98.3	15.22	98.3	15.22	98.3	15.22	98.3	15.22	98.3
	% RDA	90	213.2	146	284.6	168.9	207.3	141.2	110	148	84.5	97.5	84.5	97.5	84.5	97.5	84.5	97.5	84.5	97.5	84.5	97.5	84.5	97.5	84.5	97.5
346	intake	2643	134.7	13127	203.0	2.22	3.92	28.83	1910	2431	20.42	100.0	20.42	100.0	20.42	100.0	20.42	100.0	20.42	100.0	20.42	100.0	20.42	100.0	20.42	100.0
	% RDA	74	202.7	328	338.3	202.5	302.0	205.9	159	202	113.4	100.0	113.4	100.0	113.4	100.0	113.4	100.0	113.4	100.0	113.4	100.0	113.4	100.0	113.4	100.0
347	intake	1510	70.9	3763	28.5	0.86	1.34	14.21	721	1089	8.11	83.8	8.11	83.8	8.11	83.8	8.11	83.8	8.11	83.8	8.11	83.8	8.11	83.8	8.11	83.8
	% RDA	55	161.0	94	47.4	78.2	103.6	101.5	90	136	45.0	83.8	45.0	83.8	45.0	83.8	45.0	83.8	45.0	83.8	45.0	83.8	45.0	83.8	45.0	83.8
350	intake	4381	149.7	7606	220.6	2.52	3.33	36.80	1620	2680	24.45	100.0	24.45	100.0	24.45	100.0	24.45	100.0	24.45	100.0	24.45	100.0	24.45	100.0	24.45	100.0
	% RDA	148	340.2	190	367.6	229.2	256.6	262.8	202	335	135.8	100.0	135.8	100.0	135.8	100.0	135.8	100.0	135.8	100.0	135.8	100.0	135.8	100.0	135.8	100.0
351	intake	7047	212.6	19414	334.5	5.38	7.36	67.01	2938	4843	50.53	100.0	50.53	100.0	50.53	100.0	50.53	100.0	50.53	100.0	50.53	100.0	50.53	100.0	50.53	100.0
	% RDA	269	462.2	485	557.4	489.3	556.1	478.6	245	403	280.7	100.0	280.7	100.0	280.7	100.0	280.7	100.0	280.7	100.0	280.7	100.0	280.7	100.0	280.7	100.0

Table 16. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university women (N = 75) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	(energy)	(without energy)
352													
Intake	2695	9477	127.7	114.4	2.07	4.11	32.32	2312	2872	15.32	15.32	95.7	98.3
% RDA	72	237	290.3	190.5	188.5	316.6	230.8	289	359	85.1	85.1		
353													
Intake	2019	7974	96.8	169.1	1.50	2.83	21.45	1482	1864	14.43	14.43	97.2	97.8
% RDA	92	199	219.9	281.7	136.5	217.9	153.2	185	233	80.1	80.1		
391													
Intake	1610	9169	77.3	135.8	1.11	1.80	16.69	877	1461	13.73	13.73	90.4	94.4
% RDA	54	229	168.0	226.3	101.1	138.5	119.2	73	122	76.3	76.3		
398													
Intake	2152	14945	100.6	114.1	1.36	2.28	21.11	1165	1538	17.38	17.38	96.5	99.3
% RDA	72	374	218.7	190.1	123.7	175.3	150.8	97	128	96.5	96.5		
400													
Intake	4471	9402	157.0	262.8	3.44	4.90	38.20	3017	3661	26.29	26.29	100.0	100.0
% RDA	111	235	356.9	437.9	312.7	376.9	272.9	377	458	146.1	146.1		
401													
Intake	1562	7160	74.8	105.7	1.09	2.32	13.01	1367	1619	8.47	8.47	89.4	93.3
% RDA	54	179	170.0	176.1	99.5	179.0	92.9	171	202	47.0	47.0		
408													
Intake	2917	8383	112.4	158.6	1.57	2.11	28.76	1037	2037	16.88	16.88	99.0	99.3
% RDA	97	210	255.4	264.3	143.1	162.4	205.4	130	255	93.7	93.7		
417													
Intake	3001	9377	126.8	311.4	2.21	3.49	29.21	1732	2635	19.39	19.39	100.0	100.0
% RDA	128	234	275.6	519.0	201.2	268.6	208.6	144	220	107.7	107.7		
420													
Intake	1687	6268	73.8	160.5	1.65	2.04	23.00	657	1176	14.10	14.10	93.4	95.6
% RDA	73	157	167.8	267.5	150.0	157.3	164.6	82	147	78.3	78.3		

\*Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances, 9th rev. ed., National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 1980.

†Mean Adequacy Ratios were calculated by averaging Individual % RDAs for the tabled nutrients, including and excluding energy, with values >100 truncated.

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARs† (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg		
001	intake	3111	118.6	12284	317.3	2.77	3.56	39.29	1163	2400	22.35	97.3	99.7
	% RDA	76	211.8	246	528.7	198.2	209.5	218.3	97	200	124.2		
002	intake	5142	228.9	9794	192.7	3.04	7.26	35.01	4407	4564	22.64	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	176	408.7	196	321.1	202.7	425.5	184.2	551	570	226.4		
004	intake	5001	243.4	17407	198.8	3.40	8.07	42.38	4386	7865	27.15	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	180	434.6	348	331.2	243.4	474.8	235.4	366	405	150.8		
005	intake	2839	103.9	5028	199.8	1.78	2.07	28.64	672	1813	18.93	93.9	95.1
	% RDA	83	185.5	101	332.9	127.4	121.7	159.1	56	151	105.1		
007	intake	2481	92.9	9507	147.1	1.42	1.94	21.93	788	1477	15.19	97.8	99.3
	% RDA	84	165.9	190	245.2	95.2	114.1	115.4	98	185	151.9		
008	intake	3067	141.1	11432	114.9	2.75	4.96	28.50	2649	3074	22.24	95.2	100.0
	% RDA	52	252.0	229	191.4	183.6	291.7	149.9	331	384	222.4		
017	intake	4414	170.4	12059	169.3	3.19	5.20	39.53	3083	3596	28.94	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	118	304.2	241	282.1	228.1	306.0	219.6	257	300	160.7		
020	intake	4504	154.1	18939	335.4	3.84	5.58	48.60	2304	3191	36.21	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	275	275.1	379	558.9	256.5	328.7	255.7	288	399	362.1		
023	intake	4119	192.5	16206	309.0	2.70	5.01	44.28	2162	3556	23.78	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	104	343.6	324	515.0	180.1	294.7	233.0	270	444	237.8		
024	intake	2727	82.3	9371	252.8	1.95	2.10	18.98	1088	1453	15.69	98.2	100.0
	% RDA	83	146.9	187	421.3	130.1	123.6	99.8	136	182	156.9		
025	intake	4408	148.4	10728	586.7	2.36	5.14	25.80	2895	5606	18.47	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	179	264.9	214	977.8	169.2	302.6	143.3	241	467	102.6		

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein gm	vit A I.U.	ascorbic acid mg		thiamin mg	riboflavin mg	niacin N.E.	calcium mg	phosphorus mg	iron mg	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	% RDA			mg	% RDA								
026														
Intake	4678	171.8	16828	16828	311.6	2.65	189.9	3.74	38.22	1414	2946	30.02	98.4	100.0
% RDA	84	306.8	336	336	519.3	189.9	220.0	220.0	212.3	118	246	166.8		
027														
Intake	4359	171.2	22074	22074	103.5	3.18	212.3	4.48	40.48	1609	3128	38.79	99.9	100.0
% RDA	99	305.6	441	441	172.4	212.3	263.6	263.6	213.3	201	391	387.9		
028														
Intake	2601	114.1	8038	8038	171.8	2.10	150.5	2.71	37.65	547	1732	23.11	90.4	94.0
% RDA	58	203.7	161	161	286.3	150.5	159.5	159.5	209.2	46	144	128.3		
029														
Intake	3686	183.0	5620	5620	114.8	2.68	191.6	3.90	40.90	1674	2881	24.36	100.0	100.0
% RDA	137	326.7	112	112	191.3	191.6	229.5	229.5	227.2	140	240	135.3		
030														
Intake	3712	163.6	5769	5769	72.2	2.08	138.8	5.36	31.63	2992	3314	15.63	100.0	100.0
% RDA	114	292.2	115	115	120.3	138.8	315.2	315.2	166.4	374	414	156.3		
031														
Intake	4821	177.0	7526	7526	178.3	3.45	230.5	4.93	47.51	2385	3161	30.83	100.0	100.0
% RDA	149	316.1	150.5	150.5	297.1	230.5	290.0	290.0	250.0	298	395	308.3		
032														
Intake	3779	168.3	10364	10364	267.2	2.48	177.2	3.45	39.59	1682	3003	25.86	96.8	100.0
% RDA	68	300.5	207	207	445.3	177.2	203.2	203.2	219.9	140	250	143.6		
033														
Intake	2341	61.8	9709	9709	251.7	1.92	128.0	2.40	25.97	855	1670	16.88	96.9	100.0
% RDA	69	110.4	194	194	419.4	128.0	141.5	141.5	136.7	107	210	168.8		
034														
Intake	3539	154.4	10462	10462	239.8	2.84	189.5	5.20	28.50	2864	3483	24.80	100.0	100.0
% RDA	100	275.7	209	209	399.7	189.5	305.8	305.8	150.0	358	435	248.0		
035														
Intake	5477	179.5	12922	12922	429.2	3.30	220.4	5.29	46.73	2420	3839	29.72	100.0	100.0
% RDA	197	320.5	258	258	715.3	220.4	311.1	311.1	245.9	302	480	297.2		
036														
Intake	3312	110.4	14870	14870	231.8	2.52	167.9	3.25	38.67	1366	2150	25.08	100.0	100.0
% RDA	101	197.1	297	297	386.4	167.9	191.5	191.5	203.5	171	269	251.0		

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy	protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	gm	I. U.	mg	mg	mg	N. E.	mg	mg	mg		
038												
intake	5052	194.9	15401	194.2	3.00	6.32	31.67	3648	4009	26.66	100.0	100.0
% RDA	155	348.0	308	323.7	200.5	372.0	166.6	456	501	266.6	100.0	100.0
042												
intake	2460	137.1	8596	106.8	1.71	3.81	22.72	1960	2517	16.07	97.4	98.8
% RDA	84	244.8	172	178.0	122.4	224.1	126.2	163	210	89.3	100.0	100.0
043												
intake	3679	172.7	12543	226.5	2.39	4.43	35.01	2512	3355	21.09	100.0	100.0
% RDA	132	308.3	251	377.5	159.6	260.7	184.2	314	419	210.9	100.0	100.0
046												
intake	3468	128.3	9281	157.0	2.57	4.07	33.37	1824	2460	22.96	97.9	100.0
% RDA	79	229.1	186	261.6	183.8	239.9	185.4	152	205	127.5	100.0	100.0
047												
intake	3335	142.5	11171	273.5	2.76	3.58	40.93	1354	2278	25.56	99.6	100.0
% RDA	96	254.5	223	455.8	197.5	210.6	227.4	113	190	142.0	100.0	100.0
049												
intake	3192	165.2	9810	196.1	2.28	3.24	44.81	1099	2336	27.49	95.6	99.0
% RDA	65	295.0	196	328.1	162.8	190.7	248.9	92	195	152.7	100.0	100.0
052												
intake	6255	211.4	17471	384.6	5.18	10.00	66.02	4102	5992	39.36	100.0	100.0
% RDA	178	377.4	349	641.0	370.5	588.4	366.7	342	499	218.6	100.0	100.0
053												
intake	2080	92.6	4757	164.2	1.30	2.29	21.62	1158	1778	12.30	93.1	98.0
% RDA	49	165.3	95	273.6	87.1	134.7	113.7	145	222	123.0	100.0	100.0
057												
intake	2110	62.5	4371	140.0	1.40	1.17	18.86	394	983	12.45	86.9	88.7
% RDA	71	111.8	87.4	233.3	93.7	69.1	99.2	49.2	123	124.5	100.0	100.0
059												
intake	2995	91.0	8692	210.0	2.47	3.06	32.63	1075	2356	25.02	99.7	100.0
% RDA	127	254.8	145	288.9	139.4	167.9	205.1	134	294	250.1	100.0	100.0
061												
intake	3701	142.7	7274	173.4	2.09	2.85	38.97	1075	2356	25.02	100.0	100.0
% RDA	127	254.8	145	288.9	139.4	167.9	205.1	134	294	250.1	100.0	100.0

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs<sup>a</sup>, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I. U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	mg	N. E.	mg	mg	mg		
063	Intake	2957	90.3	8082	225.5	1.59	2.25	24.29	961	2345	16.77	99.2	100.0
	% RDA	92	161.2	162	375.8	106.1	132.5	127.8	120	293	167.7		
064	Intake	2660	116.8	5554	61.0	1.29	3.63	19.44	2110	2343	10.64	95.1	98.5
	% RDA	64	208.5	111	101.6	86.3	213.7	102.3	264	293	106.4		
065	Intake	4068	133.1	8517	113.8	2.15	3.16	34.38	1553	2364	22.41	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	130	237.6	170	189.7	143.8	186.3	180.9	194	295	224.1		
071	Intake	2418	85.1	12150	180.3	1.80	2.33	25.10	922	1511	19.00	94.1	97.4
	% RDA	64	151.9	243	300.4	129.2	137.0	139.4	77	126	105.5		
075	Intake	5547	209.8	13462	189.8	3.16	7.59	40.35	4364	4772	22.23	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	140	374.6	269	316.2	225.9	446.5	224.1	364	398	123.5		
077	Intake	3828	161.8	6277	119.7	1.84	4.18	34.87	2221	2987	18.18	97.3	100.0
	% RDA	73	289.0	126	199.4	132.0	246.2	193.7	185	249	101.0		
078	Intake	4209	158.8	9246	153.8	2.35	3.58	37.06	1785	2812	22.26	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	144	283.6	185	256.2	168.2	211.0	205.8	149	234	123.6		
079	Intake	4226	177.8	16095	237.0	2.70	5.50	37.05	2888	3437	25.87	99.7	100.0
	% RDA	97	317.4	322	394.9	193.1	323.8	205.8	241	286	143.7		
080	Intake	6317	236.1	19341	452.4	4.57	6.21	65.15	2790	4506	41.47	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	153	421.5	387	754.0	326.5	365.5	361.9	232	376	230.4		
081	Intake	5984	187.6	17415	829.8	4.40	4.40	61.25	1657	4371	42.10	99.6	100.0
	% RDA	96	334.9	348	1382.9	314.2	258.8	340.3	138	364	233.9		
082	Intake	2724	120.8	7623	92.7	2.23	3.10	34.72	1105	1891	21.90	97.3	100.0
	% RDA	73	215.6	152	154.5	148.9	182.3	182.7	138	236	219.0		

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg		
084	intake	4593	188.2	16016	271.6	3.97	7.99	49.23	3858	4444	32.22	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	113	336.1	320	452.6	265.1	470.0	259.1	482	555	322.2		
085	intake	8875	443.6	28382	484.2	5.70	10.90	89.68	5345	7683	55.46	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	150	792.1	568	806.9	380.4	641.3	472.0	668	960	554.6		
086	intake	2232	99.4	6940	176.9	1.75	2.46	30.38	898	1685	17.71	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	81	177.5	139	294.8	116.8	144.6	159.9	112	211	177.1		
091	intake	3396	149.8	6749	201.4	2.03	3.09	34.95	1443	2667	20.34	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	74	267.5	135	335.7	135.8	182.1	183.9	180	333	203.4		
092	intake	4400	157.2	9819	228.6	2.86	5.11	43.78	2578	3480	24.13	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	117	208.8	196	381.0	204.5	300.8	243.2	215	290	134.0		
093	intake	6926	364.5	15795	214.4	4.07	7.86	64.45	3673	5483	44.54	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	126	650.9	316	357.4	290.8	462.3	358.0	306	457	247.4		
094	intake	2280	94.8	6906	186.5	1.74	3.15	21.32	1658	1908	13.49	94.9	97.2
	% RDA	74	169.2	138	310.8	124.5	185.5	118.4	138	159	74.9		
095	intake	2930	114.7	7692	133.4	1.53	2.65	24.97	1413	2131	15.76	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	54	204.8	154	222.3	102.4	156.1	131.4	177	266	157.6		
096	intake	4983	173.5	10818	176.9	3.02	6.10	44.19	3367	3858	25.29	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	164	310.0	216	294.8	201.5	358.9	232.6	421	482	252.9		
098	intake	3040	173.4	12035	126.8	2.82	4.14	46.42	1583	2699	27.94	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	95	309.6	241	211.3	201.7	243.8	257.9	132	225	155.2		
102	intake	5918	315.5	10023	142.7	3.05	4.92	66.92	1678	4132	48.63	99.9	100.0
	% RDA	99	563.3	200	237.8	217.9	289.4	371.7	140	344	270.1		



Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	mg	N.F.	mg	mg	mg		
106													
intake	5104	8400	168.7	1.86	176.3	5.33	43.65	2832	4225	17.26	100.0	100.0	
% RDA	133	168	301.2	124.3	293.8	313.8	229.7	354	528	172.6			
107													
intake	1813	6790	70.2	1.27	239.5	1.73	16.85	846	1334	12.16	86.6	91.4	
% RDA	43	136	125.3	91.0	399.1	101.8	93.6	70	111	67.5			
110													
intake	3861	15969	104.3	2.51	415.1	3.66	31.79	1610	2869	21.33	98.0	100.0	
% RDA	80	319	186.2	167.7	691.7	215.6	167.3	201	359	213.3			
113													
intake	3697	9520	130.8	2.91	326.8	2.98	41.42	1040	2049	25.91	100.0	100.0	
% RDA	126	170	233.5	194.4	544.6	175.7	218.0	130	256	259.1			
114													
intake	3631	8614	125.8	2.12	191.0	2.70	32.57	1159	2290	20.55	98.5	99.6	
% RDA	89	172	224.6	151.5	318.4	158.7	180.9	96	191	114.1			
121													
intake	2975	7234	120.8	1.83	145.6	3.70	25.09	2050	2396	15.44	95.6	98.4	
% RDA	70	145	215.8	130.9	242.6	217.8	193.3	171	200	85.8			
122													
intake	1722	4180	68.8	1.14	144.2	1.92	13.08	1060	1276	8.48	86.5	90.4	
% RDA	52	84	122.8	76.2	240.2	113.4	68.8	132	160	84.8			
129													
intake	2975	5807	89.2	1.43	158.1	2.12	29.51	711	1834	15.58	98.3	98.3	
% RDA	99	116	159.2	95.5	263.4	125.1	155.3	89	229	155.8			
138													
intake	1890	3215	89.8	1.04	74.0	1.65	19.36	773	1378	12.32	89.0	92.0	
% RDA	63	64	160.3	69.7	123.3	97.2	101.9	96	172	123.2			
139													
intake	3442	12040	142.5	2.30	233.2	3.85	29.95	1921	2483	20.84	100.0	100.0	
% RDA	132	241	254.5	153.4	388.5	226.6	157.6	240	310	208.4			
140													
intake	4783	11251	182.3	3.01	314.5	3.90	43.37	1686	2952	28.75	98.4	100.0	
% RDA	84	255	325.5	200.6	524.1	229.3	228.2	211	369	287.5			

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A		ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal		gm	I.U.	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg		
141	3882	91	106.9	7565	336.8	1.53	3.11	24.01	1595	3362	14.64	99.1	100.0	
			190.8	151	561.3	102.3	183.1	126.3	199	420	146.4			
143	5462	136	193.5	12967	285.9	3.96	5.87	55.44	2821	4162	35.71	100.0	100.0	
			345.5	259	476.4	282.8	345.5	308.0	235	347	198.4			
153	7652	157	336.9	20151	184.7	5.51	12.20	63.90	7326	7787	38.57	100.0	100.0	
			601.6	403	307.8	367.9	717.7	336.3	916	973	385.6			
154	3446	85	129.4	8277	432.4	3.82	4.21	37.23	1560	2317	22.80	98.5	100.0	
			231.1	165	720.7	254.7	247.7	195.9	195	290	228.0			
155	3234	82	117.8	6784	213.2	1.93	3.09	25.50	1544	2840	17.28	97.8	99.6	
			210.3	136	355.3	137.8	181.7	141.6	129	237	96.0			
161	2963	90	114.6	7457	136.4	2.27	3.14	28.83	1469	2043	19.47	99.0	100.0	
			204.7	149	227.2	151.5	185.0	151.7	184	255	194.7			
162	4193	102	181.8	9016	210.2	2.39	6.11	30.90	3651	3946	18.95	100.0	100.0	
			324.5	180	350.3	170.7	359.5	171.7	304	329	105.2			
163	3464	62	147.3	7497	120.8	2.58	4.23	38.65	1726	2544	23.41	96.2	100.0	
			263.0	150	201.3	172.2	248.9	203.4	216	318	234.1			
164	3506	86	156.2	9454	228.0	2.27	4.22	29.78	2350	2922	20.90	98.6	100.0	
			279.5	189	279.9	151.8	248.7	156.7	294	365	209.0			
165	1980	56	91.0	6736	179.3	1.62	2.87	22.48	1508	1822	13.48	95.6	100.0	
			162.5	135	298.7	108.5	169.0	118.3	188	228	134.8			
166	4489	128	189.6	10640	160.5	2.56	4.54	40.07	2200	3239	28.23	100.0	100.0	
			338.6	213	267.4	171.0	267.0	210.8	275	405	282.3			

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal		gm	I. U.	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg		
172													
Intake	3341		158.3	12028	163.9	2.11	4.44	25.13	2636	3219	19.30	95.4	100.0
% RDA	54		282.7	240	273.2	141.1	261.6	132.2	329	402	193.0		
173													
Intake	4186		162.1	8444	126.1	2.47	3.81	30.48	2065	2769	22.81	100.0	100.0
% RDA	110		289.4	169	210.1	164.9	224.1	160.4	258	346	228.1		
175													
Intake	3911		167.0	7602	281.9	2.35	3.29	41.88	1445	3063	24.44	97.9	100.0
% RDA	79		298.2	152	469.8	168.0	193.7	232.6	120	255	135.7		
176													
Intake	3199		131.8	8164	299.5	2.43	4.17	32.86	1792	2473	21.88	96.1	100.0
% RDA	61		235.3	163	499.2	174.0	245.3	182.5	149	206	121.5		
181													
Intake	4794		194.4	9430	224.8	2.94	5.40	42.80	2821	3981	25.07	100.0	100.0
% RDA	125		347.1	189	374.6	196.1	317.5	225.2	353	498	250.7		
183													
Intake	3122		125.7	14274	242.2	2.62	2.71	38.10	927	1992	25.78	99.1	100.0
% RDA	91		224.5	285	403.6	175.2	159.5	200.5	116	249	257.8		
185													
Intake	2578		83.0	7657	138.4	2.03	2.69	29.51	891	1460	20.21	92.7	97.1
% RDA	52		148.1	153	230.7	144.9	158.5	163.9	74	122	112.2		
188													
Intake	4019		168.9	6670	270.0	2.48	3.70	36.67	1867	2824	24.27	100.0	100.0
% RDA	102		301.6	133	449.9	177.4	217.9	203.7	156	235	134.8		
189													
Intake	2638		120.7	14861	196.7	1.72	4.12	23.10	2400	2684	12.79	93.2	96.8
% RDA	61		215.5	297	327.7	122.8	242.6	128.2	200	224	71.0		
193													
Intake	5182		166.2	7526	270.2	2.69	3.04	43.60	1419	3105	27.85	100.0	100.0
% RDA	186		296.8	150	450.3	179.4	179.2	229.5	177	388	278.4		
194													
Intake	2081		71.2	4451	88.6	1.19	1.64	17.18	736	1399	11.53	94.5	95.1
% RDA	89		161.8	111	147.7	108.4	126.1	122.7	92	175	64.0		

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal		gm	I.U.	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg		
204	intake	2877	126.9	8512	213.8	2.20	3.61	26.76	1546	2091	17.53	96.8	100.0
	% RDA	68	226.6	170	356.2	147.2	212.4	140.8	193	261	175.3		
205	intake	3542	139.0	7219	172.8	2.02	3.77	29.64	1874	2523	20.96	98.1	100.0
	% RDA	81	248.2	144	287.9	134.9	222.0	156.0	234	315	209.6		
306	intake	2216	114.2	6858	98.6	1.61	3.50	29.92	1906	2319	12.89	81.0	83.9
	% RDA	55	150.2	62	98.5	84.8	159.3	90.9	119	145	18.9		
311	intake	5404	181.6	21307	491.8	4.23	6.25	48.10	2961	4068	34.05	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	118	324.2	426	819.7	302.7	367.9	267.2	247	339	189.1		
313	intake	2415	83.2	6134	147.6	1.96	2.53	24.92	1002	1569	18.99	97.8	100.0
	% RDA	78	148.5	123	246.0	131.0	149.1	131.1	125	196	189.9		
316	intake	4284	154.2	7929	180.6	2.90	3.51	41.68	1511	2662	28.07	100.0	100.0
	% RDA	107	275.3	158	301.0	207.3	206.6	231.5	126	222	155.9		
317	intake	1568	58.3	6890	76.0	0.84	1.43	15.26	696	1070	8.62	83.2	88.2
	% RDA	38	104.1	138	126.7	55.9	84.4	80.3	87	134	86.2		
318	intake	2210	81.3	5682	108.9	1.35	1.91	26.79	901	1508	15.28	96.1	98.9
	% RDA	71	145.1	114	181.4	90.0	112.7	141.0	113	188	152.8		
320	intake	2651	89.8	7229	254.0	2.63	3.89	30.33	1599	2018	18.11	96.8	100.0
	% RDA	68	160.3	144	423.4	188.2	229.0	168.5	133	169	100.6		
328	intake	3153	98.0	5762	236.2	2.10	2.27	29.45	786	1985	20.52	93.7	96.2
	% RDA	72	175.0	115	393.7	150.1	133.5	163.6	65	165	114.0		
330	intake	2417	75.0	11333	216.5	1.30	2.09	25.22	753	1593	14.37	92.2	97.9
	% RDA	41	133.9	227	360.8	87.0	123.2	132.7	94	199	143.7		

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein		vit A		ascorbic acid		thiamin		riboflavin		niacin		calcium		phosphorus		iron		MAR (energy)		MAR (without energy)	
	kcal	gm	I. U.	mg	mg	mg	mg	N. E.	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg	mg
333																								
Intake	2353	129.1	16115	273.3	2.51	1.97	32.69	592	1597	27.31	91.5	97.1												
± RDA	41	230.4	322	455.5	167.4	116.1	172.0	74	200	273.1														
335																								
Intake	4627	153.5	8465	199.9	2.76	4.06	47.39	1647	2948	27.27	99.5	100.0												
± RDA	95	274.1	169	333.1	197.7	239.0	263.2	137	246	151.5														
339																								
Intake	2203	80.7	4972	91.9	1.41	2.46	19.47	1318	1596	13.04	94.5	99.3												
± RDA	51	144.1	99	153.2	94.5	144.9	102.4	165	200	130.4														
340																								
Intake	3732	142.6	10227	215.9	2.65	3.99	34.98	1880	2484	22.30	100.0	100.0												
± RDA	118	254.6	204	359.9	189.9	234.6	194.3	157	207	123.9														
342																								
Intake	3377	131.7	7401	210.6	2.01	3.77	29.77	2103	2621	18.03	100.0	100.0												
± RDA	101	235.2	148	351.0	143.8	221.7	165.4	175	218	100.1														
345																								
Intake	3457	139.2	8505	128.1	2.07	3.52	35.01	1681	2439	20.59	100.0	100.0												
± RDA	120	248.5	170	213.5	138.3	207.5	184.2	210	305	205.9														
348																								
Intake	3549	154.1	7594	154.5	2.61	4.84	31.44	2566	2919	20.22	99.1	100.0												
± RDA	91	275.1	152	257.4	173.9	285.2	165.4	321	365	202.1														
356																								
Intake	4832	169.5	12932	332.4	3.70	4.29	51.96	1640	3003	33.03	98.3	100.0												
± RDA	83	302.6	259	554.0	264.3	252.5	288.6	137	250	183.4														
357																								
Intake	2016	80.9	4882	139.2	1.25	1.94	19.92	890	1374	12.68	87.4	92.4												
± RDA	43	144.4	98	231.9	89.2	114.5	110.7	74	114	70.4														
387																								
Intake	4364	195.6	9093	128.7	2.34	3.22	46.66	1381	2895	27.53	96.9	100.0												
± RDA	69	349.3	182	214.4	156.0	189.7	245.6	172	362	275.3														
388																								
Intake	3226	105.0	6975	107.3	1.88	1.78	26.95	906	1733	19.04	100.0	100.0												
± RDA	120	187.4	140	178.8	125.4	104.6	141.8	113	217	190.3														

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A	ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg		
389													
intake	915	1295	47.5	15.52	0.39	0.69	9.86	325	609	6.90	45.9	49.0	
% RDA	19	26	84.8	25.8	26.1	40.5	51.9	41	76	69.0			
390													
intake	2683	7140	112.4	154.7	2.00	2.52	28.03	1127	1964	18.61	98.7	99.3	
% RDA	93	143	200.6	257.7	143.4	148.7	155.7	94	164	103.4			
392													
intake	2608	8895	112.2	115.4	2.22	3.76	31.03	1776	2279	19.27	95.5	100.0	
% RDA	55	178	200.4	192.2	158.8	221.3	172.3	148	198	107.0			
393													
intake	3598	8511	188.0	202.2	2.34	4.35	41.27	1750	2708	28.04	100.0	100.0	
% RDA	142	170	335.6	336.9	167.6	256.3	229.3	146	226	155.7			
394													
intake	1212	2554	51.4	18.90	0.62	1.49	12.50	711	993	6.63	67.1	69.4	
% RDA	47	51	91.7	31.4	41.4	87.9	65.8	89	124	66.3			
397													
intake	4115	9438	147.8	181.6	2.47	3.92	36.52	1851	2844	22.35	100.0	100.0	
% RDA	106	189	263.8	302.6	164.7	230.5	192.2	231	356	223.5			
399													
intake	3100	5884	108.9	114.0	1.65	2.61	31.10	1161	2090	16.60	97.6	100.0	
% RDA	76	118	194.4	190.0	110.4	153.5	163.7	145	261	166.0			
402													
intake	2275	4994	95.4	63.5	1.59	2.01	25.85	754	1441	15.10	88.9	94.1	
% RDA	42	100	170.4	105.8	113.7	118.7	143.6	63	120	83.9			
403													
intake	3504	7722	137.1	203.8	2.29	3.65	31.89	1896	2609	19.12	99.5	100.0	
% RDA	95	154	244.7	339.5	152.7	215.1	167.8	237	326	191.2			
404													
intake	2090	5710	104.1	69.1	1.39	2.53	20.97	1223	1747	12.71	98.0	99.2	
% RDA	87	114	185.9	115.1	93.0	149.1	110.3	153	218	127.1			
405													
intake	3243	12215	103.4	368.6	1.99	2.05	29.37	829	1990	21.61	95.6	100.0	
% RDA	56	244	184.6	614.2	132.6	121.0	154.5	104	249	216.1			

Table 17. Individual dietary intakes, percentages of the 1980 RDAs\*, and MARst (including and excluding energy) for university men (N = 132) from food frequency data (cont)

ID number	energy		protein	vit A		ascorbic acid	thiamin	riboflavin	niacin	calcium	phosphorus	iron	MAR (energy)	MAR (without energy)
	kcal	I.U.	gm	mg	mg	mg	mg	N.E.	mg	mg	mg	mg		
406	Intake	5751	261.8	18868	376.5	3.54	9.29	45.15	5560	5662	30.44	100.0	100.0	
	% RDA	110	467.5	377	627.5	252.8	546.8	250.8	463	472	169.1	100.0	100.0	
407	Intake	1910	70.7	4962	76.1	1.28	1.74	18.30	723	1207	12.45	88.5	91.1	
	% RDA	65	126.2	99	126.8	91.3	102.3	101.6	60	100	69.2	88.5	91.1	
411	Intake	3352	147.5	13135	409.5	2.52	2.18	41.44	716	2433	26.67	99.0	98.8	
	% RDA	135	263.3	263	682.5	168.3	128.2	218.1	90	304	266.7	99.0	98.8	
412	Intake	3733	177.6	20297	269.1	2.58	3.84	39.82	1684	2906	26.98	100.0	100.0	
	% RDA	106	371.2	406	448.4	184.7	226.2	221.2	140	242	149.8	100.0	100.0	
414	Intake	1806	79.1	3403	67.55	0.96	1.75	16.69	857	1305	10.37	80.2	84.3	
	% RDA	43	141.2	68	112.5	68.6	103.2	92.7	71	109	57.6	80.2	84.3	
416	Intake	2969	109.1	18932	236.8	1.80	3.70	24.06	2237	2358	18.16	95.8	100.0	
	% RDA	58	194.8	379	394.7	120.0	217.9	126.6	280	295	181.6	95.8	100.0	
418	Intake	2030	92.2	5680	74.6	1.03	1.65	21.80	607	1276	13.93	85.2	88.8	
	% RDA	53	164.6	114	124.2	73.5	97.5	121.1	51	106	77.4	85.2	88.8	
419	Intake	3360	111.5	9376	169.3	1.97	3.92	25.10	2204	2730	16.97	93.9	99.4	
	% RDA	44	199.0	188	282.1	141.1	230.6	139.4	184	227	94.3	93.9	99.4	
421	Intake	3612	140.4	15182	129.7	2.71	4.66	39.91	1807	2627	25.16	99.9	100.0	
	% RDA	99	250.7	304	216.2	194.0	274.3	221.7	150	219	139.8	99.9	100.0	
423	Intake	4739	202.8	11185	297.6	3.20	4.56	54.48	1576	2992	37.28	99.6	100.0	
	% RDA	96	362.1	224	495.9	213.4	268.1	286.7	197	374	372.8	99.6	100.0	
424	Intake	3611	114.1	11150	143.4	2.43	3.32	34.30	1231	2142	25.11	97.3	100.0	
	% RDA	73	203.8	223	239.0	162.2	195.4	180.5	154	268	251.1	97.3	100.0	

\*Food and Nutrition Board: Recommended Dietary Allowances, 9th rev. ed., National Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C., 1980.

†Mean Adequacy Ratios were calculated by averaging individual % RDAs for the tabled nutrients, including and excluding energy, with values >100 truncated.

STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS AS A FACTOR IN THE DIETARY  
QUALITY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

by

MARGARET J. MALL

B.S., Kansas State University, 1983

---

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Foods and Nutrition

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY  
Manhattan, Kansas

1987



## ABSTRACT

Psychosocial epidemiologists have conceptualized stress as the need to adapt to stressful life events (SLEs). Researchers have observed that university students experience exposure to potential stressors, one of which may be a change in eating habits. The physiological stress response is contingent on conditioning factors, which may include nutritional status. The stress-illness relationship is attracting the attention of researchers. Because stress has been found to influence appetite and eating behaviors, and because stress and dietary quality have been found to be associated independently with various disease processes, the relationships between stress levels and the dietary quality of university students were investigated.

The College Schedule of Recent Experience (CSRE) instrument was used to investigate the number of SLEs experienced by 75 female and 132 male university students. A quantifiable food frequency questionnaire was administered to assess their dietary intakes, meal patterns, and activity levels. Dietary data were analyzed for energy and nine nutrients and expressed as percentages of the Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDAs). Mean Adequacy Ratios (MARs), with and without energy, were calculated to assess dietary quality. Sex differences and relationships among all variables were analyzed statistically.

Total stress scores on the CSRE for the women and men did not differ significantly, although the women indicated a greater frequency response to change in eating habits. Males reportedly

spent more time in non-sedentary activity than females. All meals were omitted more frequently by the women than by the men. Average energy intakes for both sexes and iron intakes for females were less than their RDAs. More women than men had MAR values less than 80%.

The men's meal-skipping patterns were correlated positively with their frequency responses to change in eating habits and negatively with their MARs. Total stress scores for women were correlated positively to their intakes of energy, ascorbic acid, sodium, saturated fat, cholesterol, and alcoholic beverages, as well as to their MARs with energy. For both sexes total stress scores were correlated positively with their vitamin A and iron intakes. Stepwise regression analyses indicated that CSRE variables predicted women's MAR values with approximately twice the predictive ability as compared to men's MARs.