

Essential Nutrients: Food or Supplements?

Where Should the Emphasis Be?

Alice H. Lichtenstein, DSc

Robert M. Russell, MD

THE CONSUMPTION OF ADEQUATE nutrients and a proper balance of essential nutrients are critical for maintaining good health. Whether this need is met by happenstance or design, fulfillment has allowed humankind to sustain itself throughout the millennia. During the 20th century, essential nutrients were identified, isolated, and purified. This advance has been a double-edged sword. It has allowed scientists to uncover the mechanisms by which nutrients sustain life and to quickly and inexpensively treat nutritional deficiencies. However, it has also allowed the possibility that the proper balance of purified vitamins and minerals could supplant the need for a varied diet to support life. The nutrition community must determine how best to advise the general public in developed countries with respect to nutrient supplementation in an era in which nutrient deficiencies are rare, chronic disease rates are high, and overweight and obesity have reached epidemic levels. This discussion will not address issues related to well-established nutrient toxicities that have been documented, for example, high doses of vitamins A and D.

Nutrient Requirements

Under agreement with the Institute of Medicine, National Academy of Sciences, the US government has issued dietary guidance via the recommended dietary allowances (RDAs) since 1943. The RDAs were routinely revised according to new scientific information at approximately 5-year inter-

The consumption of adequate levels and proper balance of essential nutrients is critical for maintaining health. The identification, isolation, and purification of nutrients in the early 20th century raised the possibility that optimal health outcomes could be realized through nutrient supplementation. Recent attempts using this approach for cardiovascular disease and lung cancer have been disappointing, as demonstrated with vitamin E and beta carotene. Moreover, previously unrecognized risks caused by nutrient toxicity and nutrient interactions have surfaced during intervention studies. The most promising data in the area of nutrition and positive health outcomes relate to dietary patterns, not nutrient supplements. These data suggest that other factors in food or the relative presence of some foods and the absence of other foods are more important than the level of individual nutrients consumed. Finally, unknown are the implications on public health behavior of shifting the emphasis away from food toward nutrient supplements. Notwithstanding the justification for targeting recommendations for nutrient supplements to certain segments of the population (eg, the elderly), there are insufficient data to justify an alteration in public health policy from one that emphasizes food and diet to one that emphasizes nutrient supplements.

JAMA. 2005;294:351-358

www.jama.com

vals until recently, when a new rubric for establishing nutrient recommendations was devised. Under the new system, a series of dietary reference intakes (DRIs) reports have been published.¹ The DRIs for each nutrient include RDAs and estimated average requirements or adequate intakes, along with tolerable upper intake levels. DRIs that have been issued throughout the last decade have made clear that as the amount and scope of scientific evidence accumulates, our estimate of how much and how many nutrients are required to support optimal health and prevent chronic disease has changed. Outstanding issues include whether all essential nutrients have been identified, criteria on which to base requirements, and relative effect one nutrient

has on the metabolic requirements of another. These issues have become increasingly important because of the trend toward the unregulated addition of nutrients to a wide range of foods that do not traditionally contain them and the recommendation by some that nutrient supplements be used by the general population.²

Single-Nutrient Interventions: Disappointing Results

Strong data show an association between certain dietary patterns; for

Author Affiliations: Jean Mayer USDA Human Nutrition Research Center on Aging, Tufts University, Boston, Mass.

Corresponding Author: Alice H. Lichtenstein, DSc, Jean Mayer USDA Human Nutrition Research Center on Aging at Tufts University, 711 Washington St, Boston, MA 02111 (alice.lichtenstein@tufts.edu).

example, diets high in fruits and vegetables and decreased risk of cardiovascular diseases^{3,4} or diets rich in fruits, vegetables, and low-fat and nonfat dairy products, with or without sodium reduction, and blood pressure.^{5,6} These associations have been attributed to the putative foods being rich sources of nutrients and phytochemicals that can either act independently or in concert.⁷ However, instead of focusing on dietary patterns, most intervention trials have used high doses of single nutrients or nutrient cocktails in an attempt to prevent, affect, or mitigate a disease, intermediate measures of assessing disease risk, or disease outcomes. These results for the most part have been disappointing.

Perhaps no better example exists than the disheartening results of the vitamin E intervention trials for the prevention of cardiovascular disease. Epidemiologic observations suggested that the habitual use of vitamin E supplements was associated with decreased risk of developing cardiovascular disease,^{8,9} and some small-scale intervention studies also suggested positive effects.¹⁰⁻¹² These data were supported biologically. α -Tocopherol, in particular, was of interest because in vitro addition of vitamin E and other antioxidant nutrients such as beta carotene and vitamin C reduced the susceptibility of isolated low-density lipoprotein (LDL) to oxidation. Moreover, the in vitro data for vitamin E were replicated by feeding high doses of the vitamin to individuals before the isolation of the LDL.^{13,14}

However, as with other examples of positive associations identified from epidemiologic data,^{15,16} subsequent intervention studies did not support the original observations. A series of large, negative intervention studies on vitamin E and/or beta carotene supplements and cardiovascular disease began to emerge.¹⁷⁻²⁷ In 2003, after reviewing the data, a joint committee of the American College of Cardiology²⁸ and American Heart Association (AHA)²⁹ concluded that "... there is currently no basis for recommending

that patients take vitamin C or E supplements or other antioxidants for the express purpose of preventing or treating coronary artery disease." In 2004, the AHA Nutrition Committee similarly concluded that "At this time, the scientific data do not justify the use of antioxidant vitamin supplements for cardiovascular disease risk reduction."²⁹ That same year, an evidence-based review conducted for the US Preventive Services Task Force concluded that "... randomized, controlled trials of specific supplements [to prevent cardiovascular disease] have failed to demonstrate a consistent or significant effect of any single vitamin or combination of vitamins on incidence of or death from cardiovascular disease,"³⁰ as did another comprehensive³¹ and an evidence-based³² review.

Another example of discordance between the observational associations and a single-nutrient supplement intervention is that of beta carotene, a carotenoid found in deeply colored fruits and vegetables, and lung cancer. A number of retrospective and prospective longitudinal studies had shown that high dietary beta carotene intakes, as well as high blood levels of beta carotene, predicted a lower risk of developing lung cancer, particularly among smokers.³³⁻³⁶ Beta carotene was known to be an effective antioxidant and a precursor of vitamin A, thus providing plausible mechanisms. However, a series of beta carotene intervention trials were conducted that categorically dispelled the notion that supplemental beta carotene could effectively reduce lung cancer risk.^{24,37,38} Results from the Alpha-Tocopherol Beta Carotene Prevention Study³⁷ and the Carotene and Retinol Efficiency Trial (CARET)³⁸ showed an increase in lung cancer among smokers or asbestos-exposed workers after beta carotene supplementation. The Physician's Health Study, in which only a small percentage of subjects were smokers (11%), showed no significant effect of beta carotene supplementation on lung cancer.²⁴ The negative (and harmful) results of 2 beta carotene intervention trials were com-

pletely unexpected and counterintuitive, according to predominant thinking of the time. Subsequently, with the ferret as a model, the oxidative breakdown products of beta carotene were found to interfere with retinoid signaling, thereby producing precancerous lesions (squamous metaplasia) in the smoke-exposed animal.³⁹

A more recent example is that of folate, homocysteine, and cardiovascular disease. Animal evidence had demonstrated a link between plasma homocysteine levels and cardiovascular disease.⁴⁰⁻⁴² Epidemiologic and clinical data suggested that elevated plasma homocysteine levels in humans were associated with increased cardiovascular disease risk.⁴³ In a review of epidemiologic studies that were conducted in 1999, the authors concluded that "Higher folic acid intake by reducing homocysteine levels promises to prevent arteriosclerotic vascular disease."⁴⁴ However, the relationship between diet and plasma homocysteine is complex and does not rely solely on folate status.

In 1991, a large-scale population intervention trial concluded that folate supplementation resulted in a significant decrease in the risk of children born with neural tube defects.⁴⁵ Subsequently, the US Food and Drug Administration mandated that all enriched flour, rice, pasta, cornmeal, and other grain products contain 140 μ g of folic acid per 100 g, which resulted in a secular decrease in plasma homocysteine and a rise in folate levels.⁴⁶ Concomitant with these changes, anticipation for a potential beneficial role of folate fortification in reducing cardiovascular disease risk was high, but now the enthusiasm has been somewhat tempered as a result of new studies.⁴⁷⁻⁵⁰ In the Vitamin Intervention for Stroke Prevention (VISP) study, a cocktail of folic acid, pyridoxine hydrochloride, and cyanocobalamin given to patients who had a nondisabling cerebral infarction successfully lowered homocysteine levels moderately during a 2-year period but had no significant effect on vascular outcomes.⁵¹ Lange et

al⁵² reported that patients who were recovering from successful coronary stenting procedures and received an intravenous dose followed by oral daily doses of folate, pyridoxine hydrochloride, and cyanocobalamin for 6 months exhibited increased, rather than decreased, risk of in-stent restenosis and the need for target-vessel revascularization. More recently, Morris et al⁵³ reported that high intakes of folate may be associated with cognitive declines in older persons, presumably because of interference with vitamin B₁₂ metabolism. A final assessment of the relationship between folate and cardiovascular disease and other health outcomes awaits the results of ongoing placebo-controlled intervention trials that take such issues into account as the time-dose relationship relative to disease-progression rates.

These examples suggest that although observational data are valuable in identifying areas in which to conduct intervention studies, they should not be used to draw premature conclusions. Final recommendations for the public must always await confirmation with rigorously controlled intervention trials in humans. These examples provide perspective on the complexity of disease-nutrient relationships and at times the unexpected nature of the science. They should further serve to reinforce the scientific community's need for restraint in making recommendations for nutrient supplementation for chronic disease prevention.

Possible Harmful Effects of Nutrient Supplements on Health Outcomes

The administration of single nutrient supplements in higher-than-physiologic doses can have detrimental effects on disease processes. For example, supplemental folic acid can precipitate vitamin B₁₂ dementia in patients who have minimal vitamin B₁₂ levels but who are without neurologic complaints.^{53,54} Such a case was recently described in a patient who had sickle cell disease and was treated with folate supplementation.⁵⁵ This effect of

folic acid is not a "masking effect" (that is, folic acid simply masking or hiding vitamin B₁₂ deficiency) but rather an actual precipitation of clinical vitamin B₁₂ deficiency because of the diversion of cobalamin from the central nervous system or from essential biochemical reactions needed for myelin synthesis in favor of the hematopoietic system.⁵⁴

In a similar vein, a recent report has demonstrated a potentially detrimental effect of high-dose antioxidant nutrients on high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol concentrations in patients treated with statin drugs that inhibit cholesterol biosynthesis.^{56,57} Individuals assigned to a simvastatin-niacin-treated group had a small regression of coronary artery stenosis, whereas those assigned to the simvastatin-niacin plus antioxidant vitamin (vitamins C and E and selenium) –treated group showed progression of the lesions, albeit to a lesser extent than in the placebo-treated group. Additionally, the increase in the concentration of a subfraction of HDL particles associated with decreased disease risk observed in simvastatin-niacin group was attenuated by the antioxidant regimen.

In another case, although supplemental vitamin E may be found to benefit certain segments of the population, such as frail elderly individuals with respect to upper tract respiratory infections,^{58,59} concern has been raised that chronic stimulation of the immune system by vitamin E could raise the incidence of autoimmune diseases.⁶⁰ Likewise, theoretically, vitamin E supplements may have detrimental effects in some individuals as assessed by recent *in vitro* work. Rat hepatocyte secretion of apolipoprotein B-100, a component of very low-density lipoprotein, and LDL was increased when vitamin E was added to the culture medium because of diminished fatty acid peroxidation.⁶¹ Increased apolipoprotein B-100 secretion is a potential mechanism by which supplementation with vitamin E and other antioxidants had unanticipated detrimental effects. A recent meta-analysis of vitamin E intervention stud-

ies suggested that vitamin E supplements at doses greater than 400 IU per day increased all-cause mortality.⁶² Another example of adverse effects at high levels of supplementation as previously mentioned is that of beta carotene and lung cancer.

Nutrient Toxicity and Foods

Although nutrient toxicity is usually associated with high-dose single-nutrient supplementation, it has been rarely reported from eating naturally occurring nutrient-rich foods. The case of vitamin A is an exception. Vitamin A toxicity was recognized early in arctic explorers after they ate polar bear liver and has been much more recently reported among children from the long-term ingestion of chicken liver.⁶³ Occasionally, nutrient intoxication has been reported after consumption of fortified foods, primarily in instances when mistakes were made in overfortifying the food product (eg, superabundant amounts of niacin improperly added to pumpernickel bagels and overfortification of milk with vitamin D).⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶

Metabolic Interferences From Nutrient Interactions

The ingestion of large amounts of certain nutrients can interfere with the absorption or metabolism of other nutrients. For example, calcium inhibits heme and nonheme iron absorption.⁶⁷ Other nutrient interferences are as follows: iron inhibits zinc absorption,⁶⁸ zinc inhibits copper absorption,⁶⁹ and vitamin E antagonizes vitamin K action.⁷⁰ In humans, vitamin E decreased (nonsignificantly) levels of circulating prothrombin in anticoagulated patients,⁷⁰ polyphenols from tea extracts inhibited nonheme iron absorption,⁷¹ and folate interfered with vitamin B₁₂ metabolism.⁵⁴ Beta carotene can inhibit lutein absorption when they are given together as supplements, although not when lutein and beta carotene are given together in the form of genetically selected yellow carrots.^{72,73} Finally, supplementing with relatively high doses of α -tocopherol decreases plasma levels of Δ - and γ -tocopherol.^{74,75}

Not all nutrient interactions are detrimental. Examples of positive effects are that vitamin C can regenerate or spare vitamin E, vitamin E and vitamin C can act synergistically with carotenoids to enhance their individual antioxidant effects,^{49-52,74,76,77} and vitamin C can facilitate nonheme iron absorption.⁷⁸ However, this latter effect might not be desirable in subpopulations with polymorphisms for hemochromatosis. Additionally, zinc can be used to block copper absorption in individuals with Wilson disease who are allergic to penicillamine.⁷⁹

Bioavailability and Bioactivity of Nutrients From Food vs Supplements

In general, nutrients provided as isolated compounds are highly bioavailable. The bioavailability of folate is significantly greater from folate supplements than folate in cooked spinach or yeast,^{80,81} and beta carotene bioavailability is significantly higher from a supplement than from a wide range of vegetables.⁸² Also, there is a higher conversion efficiency rate for synthetic beta carotene to vitamin A than for beta carotene found in food (sweet potato or spinach).^{83,84}

However, there are important factors that can influence the bioavailability of nutrients from foods. For example, the coingestion of fat has been repeatedly shown to increase the bioavailability of lycopene and other carotenoids from foods.⁸⁵⁻⁸⁸ Food processing also affects the bioavailability of nutrients. For example, although chopping and dissolving the cell matrix of spinach does not affect the bioavailability of lutein, it increases the bioavailability of beta carotene⁸⁹; cooking and pureeing carrots increases the bioavailability of beta carotene⁹⁰; heat processing of tomatoes increases the absorption of lycopene⁹¹; and the degradation of phytate increases the bioavailability of iron and zinc from legumes.⁹² Other classic examples are of flour fermentation increasing the bioavailability of zinc⁹³ and alkaline treatment of corn increasing niacin bioavailability.⁹⁴

The bioavailability of certain nutrients from some foods may be equal to or greater than that from supplements. The bioavailability of lutein is higher from eggs than from either lutein or lutein ester supplements,⁹⁵ the presence of soluble fiber (but not insoluble fiber) increases the bioavailability of some minerals,⁹⁶ and the bioavailability of iron is higher from meat than from vitamin-mineral supplements, as assessed by serum ferritin levels.⁹⁷

Collectively, these data suggest that nutrient and nutrient-food interactions are complex and have many facets. Factors such as food matrix, amount and type of food processing, competitive interaction among structurally similar compounds in the gut, and the presence of other compounds (eg, fat, fiber, alcohol) in the diet affect nutrient bioavailability and bioactivity.^{90,98} Far too little is known about nutrient bioavailability as a function of plant variety and maturity.

Dietary Patterns and Health Outcomes

A number of observational studies have reported that certain dietary patterns are associated with positive health outcomes. For example, diets high in fruits and vegetables, low-fat dairy products, or whole grains have been associated with decreased risk of heart disease, blood pressure, and cancer.^{3-6,40,99-101} A few high-quality large-scale interventions studies have confirmed these observations. For example, the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet, a dietary pattern rich in fruits, vegetables, and low-fat and nonfat dairy products, with or without restrictions in sodium intake, resulted in significantly reduced blood pressure.^{5,6} Yet, as already discussed, single nutrients or a combination of nutrients such as beta carotene, vitamins C and E, folate, and fiber, which are contained in the foods associated with beneficial effects in both observation and intervention studies, have shown disappointing results.^{28-30,102,103} These findings suggest that individual nutrients may simply be markers for other ben-

eficial substances in food or other lifestyle behaviors or act in concert with other nutrient or nonnutrient substances in food to have a beneficial effect on disease rates when used in lower, nonsupplemental doses. Support for this hypothesis comes from recent work suggesting that phyloquinone, the plant form of vitamin K, can be used as a marker for a heart-healthy diet.¹⁰⁴ Data suggest that individuals with high phyloquinone intakes are at lower risk of developing coronary heart disease.¹⁰⁵ However, after controlling for standard coronary heart disease risk factors, this association was no longer significant, suggesting a more casual than causal association.

In a similar vein, tomato powder was more effective than lycopene alone in reducing the development of prostate cancer in a rat model,¹⁰⁶ and fat-soluble extracts from vegetable powder were more efficacious than beta carotene in inhibiting cell proliferation and inducing morphologic changes consistent with apoptosis (cellular shrinkage, chromatin condensation, and nuclear fragmentation) in a cancer cell line.¹⁰⁷ Individuals who were given fruits and vegetables exhibited a greater increase in erythrocyte glutathione peroxidase activity and resistance of plasma lipoproteins to oxidation than those who received a nutrient supplement formulated to be equivalent to the amount of vitamins and minerals found in the fruits and vegetables.¹⁰⁸

Impact of Shifting the Emphasis From Food to Nutrient Supplements

There are good data to suggest that certain dietary and lifestyle patterns are associated with decreased risk of chronic disease. However, providing nutrient supplementation to mimic these effects has failed to result in the efficacy that was initially anticipated. These findings suggest that science is not at a point at which researchers can identify with relative certainty the putative compounds that are driving the food-disease relationship or the com-

pounds that are modulating these outcomes. A number of factors need to be considered.

First, researchers are far from certain that all the beneficial nutrients or biologically active factors in food have been identified. Although there have been no new essential nutrients discovered in more than 5 decades, there is no assurance that all chemical substances in foods have been identified that could promote positive health outcomes or all nutrient interactions have been identified that might prove crucial in providing a health benefit. Lack of outright deficiency states of these substances may be due to their passive introduction into the diet from various foodstuffs. These compounds may have unrecognized functions or have functions that are currently misattributed to other nutrients with which they covary. Some biologically active compounds may be conditionally essential, that is, become limiting only during chronically high demand, such as during disease states, overweight, or high exposure to physical or environmental stresses.

Second, increasing reliance on supplements to meet nutrient needs presupposes a relatively high level of compliance. This assumption cannot be made casually. According to the limited data available on dietary supplement use, individuals who use supplements tend to be older, white, well-educated, and more affluent and more likely to consume a "healthy" diet, engage in regular physical activity, and have lower rates of smoking.¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹⁴ Also, despite a prodigious public education effort promoting folic acid supplementation to avoid neural tube defects in the fetus of women who are capable of becoming pregnant, according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 60% of women in the United States remain noncompliant with this recommendation.¹¹⁵

Third, knowledge is limited with regard to the issues surrounding the determinants of food intake and lifestyle behaviors. Little is known about how a population-wide shift in the message

"rely on food to get your nutrients" to "rely on supplements to get your nutrients" would be interpreted. If the message perceived is that nutrient supplements provide an "insurance policy" against an imperfect diet, we must consider what impact this message would have on the balance of food choices and, hence, overall nutritional status, which is of particular concern if a combination of nutrients, rather than an individual nutrient, is responsible for the health outcome or if a nutrient not included in the supplement covaries with the target nutrient in food but is in fact the agent responsible for the positive health effect. Would the message to rely on supplements be interpreted to mean that it does not matter what food choices are made because a supplement will cover all nutrient needs? For example, would the message to take a nutrient supplement containing beta carotene or vitamin C be interpreted to mean "in addition to fruits and vegetables normally consumed" or "in place of fruits and vegetables in the diet"? If the latter, the impact on the intake of nutrients not supplied by the supplement but present in foods would be great.

Fourth, the issue of nutrient interaction and excess intake becomes more important because mainstream foods are heavily nutrient enriched or fortified. For example, many breakfast cereals are fortified with multiple nutrients, and calcium is added to a wide range of products not normally a source of this mineral. These foods are either passively or actively consumed as a result of a perceived health benefit or an assumption that if a little is good, more is better. Absent from the general population's consciousness is a consideration for the cumulative effect of multiple fortified foods on daily nutrient intake or the combination of these fortified foods with a multivitamin supplement. A recent report relating vitamin A intakes to increased risk of hip fracture in postmenopausal women highlights this point.¹¹⁶

Last, would a shift in emphasis from food to nutrient supplements diminish other lifestyle messages by imply-

ing that nutrient supplements will "cover" all health needs? This point goes back to the recognition that lifestyle behaviors, physical activity, weight control, smoking, and perhaps even sleep and stress reduction affect health outcomes as much as diet. Carrying the nutrient supplement insurance policy analogy further, would such a message deemphasize, rather than emphasize, the importance of the whole package? The latest 5-year revision of the US Dietary Guidelines for Americans issued by the Departments of Health and Human Services and Agriculture has increased emphasis on diet and lifestyle behaviors rather than diet alone.¹¹⁷

Targeted Supplementation

There are some strong reasons to make targeted recommendations for use of specific dietary supplements by certain segments of the population. Supplements are relatively inexpensive and can be reliably used to administer nutrients in precise doses. If used consistently, supplements can ensure adequate intakes of specific nutrients in targeted groups that have increased needs for those nutrients because of physiologic limitations or changes. As indicated above, folate supplementation significantly decreases the risk of children being born with neural tube defects.⁴⁵ Some elderly individuals have diminished ability to absorb vitamin B₁₂ because of atrophic gastritis and a decreased capacity to synthesize vitamin D and can benefit from these supplements.^{118,119} Calcium and vitamin D supplements are the most practical way for older individuals to meet current RDAs for these nutrients.¹²⁰ Fluoride supplementation is important for children who do not have access to a reliable source of fluoride.¹²¹ The AHA recommends omega-3 supplements for individuals with established coronary heart disease.¹²²

Additionally, our understanding of nutrient-gene interactions is in its infancy. It has been suggested that individuals with polymorphisms at specific gene loci, for example, for apolipoproteins such as apolipoprotein

tein A-I, A-4, and E,¹²³ and for enzymes involved in folate metabolism such as cystathionine beta synthase and methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase,^{124,125} may be candidates for personalized nutritional recommendations. These examples, however, are in contrast to broad-based recommendations for the general public.

Conclusions

There are insufficient data to justify an alteration in public health policy from one that emphasizes a food-based diet to fulfill nutrient requirements and promote optimal health outcomes to one that emphasizes dietary supplementation. Our conclusion is based on the lack of a complete understanding of nutrient requirements and interactions, disappointing results of intervention studies with single nutrients or nutrient cocktails, and limited understanding of how the message would be interpreted with respect to dietary and lifestyle behaviors. It is critically important to actively conduct rigorous research in these areas and to reevaluate this conclusion regularly as new data are published.

REFERENCES

- Institute of Medicine. *How Should the Recommended Dietary Allowances Be Revised?* Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences; 1994.
- Fletcher RH, Fairfield KM. Vitamins for chronic disease prevention in adults: clinical applications. *JAMA*. 2002;287:3127-3129.
- Ness AR, Powles JW. Fruit and vegetables, and cardiovascular disease: a review. *Int J Epidemiol*. 1997; 26:1-13.
- Law MR, Morris JK. By how much does fruit and vegetable consumption reduce the risk of ischaemic heart disease? *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 1998;52:549-556.
- Appel LJ, Moore TJ, Obarzanek E, et al; and the DASH Collaborative Research Group. A clinical trial of the effects of dietary patterns on blood pressure. *N Engl J Med*. 1997;336:1117-1124.
- Sacks FM, Svetkey LP, Vollmer WM, et al. DASH-Sodium Collaborative Research Group: effects on blood pressure of reduced dietary sodium and the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;344:3-10.
- Lampe JW. Health effects of vegetables and fruit: assessing mechanisms of action in human experimental studies. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1999;70(3 suppl):475S-490S.
- Rimm EB, Stampfer MJ, Ascherio A, Giovannucci E, Colditz GA, Willett WC. Vitamin E consumption and the risk of coronary heart disease in men. *N Engl J Med*. 1993;328:1450-1456.
- Stampfer MJ, Hennekens CH, Manson JE, Colditz GA, Rosner B, Willett WC. Vitamin E consumption and the risk of coronary disease in women. *N Engl J Med*. 1993;328:1444-1449.
- Boaz M, Smetana S, Weinstein T, et al. Secondary prevention with antioxidants of cardiovascular disease in endstage renal disease (SPACE): randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2000;356:1213-1218.
- Rapola JM, Virtamo J, Ripatti S, et al. Randomised trial of alpha-tocopherol and beta-carotene supplements on incidence of major coronary events in men with previous myocardial infarction. *Lancet*. 1997;349:1715-1720.
- Stephens NG, Parsons A, Schofield PM, Kelly F, Cheeseman K, Mitchinson MJ. Randomised controlled trial of vitamin E in patients with coronary disease: Cambridge Heart Antioxidant Study (CHAOS). *Lancet*. 1996;347:781-786.
- Reaven PD, Khouw A, Beltz WF, Parthasarathy S, Witztum JL. Effect of dietary antioxidant combinations in humans: protection of LDL by vitamin E but not by beta-carotene. *Arterioscler Thromb*. 1993;13: 590-600.
- Jialal I, Grundy SM. Effect of dietary supplementation with alpha-tocopherol on the oxidative modification of low density lipoprotein. *J Lipid Res*. 1992; 33:899-906.
- Osganian SK, Stampfer MJ, Rimm E, Spiegelman D, Manson JE, Willett WC. Dietary carotenoids and risk of coronary artery disease in women. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2003;77:1390-1399.
- Stampfer MJ, Colditz GA, Willett WC, et al. Postmenopausal estrogen therapy and cardiovascular disease: ten-year follow-up from the Nurses' Health Study. *N Engl J Med*. 1991;325:756-762.
- Lonn E, Yusuf S, Hoogwerf B, et al. Effects of vitamin E on cardiovascular and microvascular outcomes in high-risk patients with diabetes: results of the HOPE study and MICRO-HOPE substudy. *Diabetes Care*. 2002;25:1919-1927.
- Hodis HN, Mack WJ, LaBree L, et al. Alpha-tocopherol supplementation in healthy individuals reduces low-density lipoprotein oxidation but not atherosclerosis: the Vitamin E Atherosclerosis Prevention Study (VEAPS). *Circulation*. 2002;106:1453-1459.
- Heart Protection Study Collaborative Group. MRC/BHF Heart Protection Study of antioxidant vitamin supplementation in 20,536 high-risk individuals: a randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2002; 360:23-33.
- de Gaetano G; and the Collaborative Group of the Primary Prevention Project. Low-dose aspirin and vitamin E in people at cardiovascular risk: a randomised trial in general practice. *Lancet*. 2001;357:89-95.
- Yusuf S, Dagenais G, Pogue J, Bosch J, Sleight P; The Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators. Vitamin E supplementation and cardiovascular events in high-risk patients. *N Engl J Med*. 2000;342:154-160.
- Gruppo Italiano per lo Studio della Sopravvivenza nell'Infarto miocardico. Dietary supplementation with n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids and vitamin E after myocardial infarction: results of the GISSI-Prevenzione trial. *Lancet*. 1999;354:447-455.
- Virtamo J, Rapola JM, Ripatti S, et al. Effect of vitamin E and beta-carotene on the incidence of primary nonfatal myocardial infarction and fatal coronary heart disease. *Arch Intern Med*. 1998;158:668-675.
- Hennekens CH, Buring JE, Manson JE, et al. Lack of effect of long-term supplementation with beta-carotene on the incidence of malignant neoplasms and cardiovascular disease. *N Engl J Med*. 1996;334: 1145-1149.
- Greenberg ER, Baron JA, Karagas MR, et al. Mortality associated with low plasma concentration of beta-carotene and the effect of oral supplementation. *JAMA*. 1996;275:699-703.
- Katz D, Evans M, Chan W, et al. Oats, antioxidants and endothelial function in overweight, dyslipidemic adults. *J Am Coll Nutr*. 2004;23:397-403.
- Lonn E, Bosch J, Yusuf S, et al. Effects of long-term vitamin E supplementation on cardiovascular events and cancer: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2005;293:1338-1347.
- Gibbons RJ, Abrams J, Chatterjee K, et al. ACC/AHA 2002 guideline update for the management of patients with chronic stable angina—summary article: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines (Committee on the Management of Patients With Chronic Stable Angina). *Circulation*. 2003; 107:149-158.
- Kris-Etherton P, Lichtenstein AH, Howard B, et al. Antioxidant vitamin supplements and cardiovascular disease. *Circulation*. 2004;110:637-641.
- Morris CD, Carson S. Routine vitamin supplementation to prevent cardiovascular disease: a summary of the evidence for the US Preventive Services Task Force. *Ann Intern Med*. 2003;139:56-70.
- Eidelman RS, Hollar D, Hebert PR, Lamas GA, Hennekens CH. Randomized trials of vitamin E in the treatment and prevention of cardiovascular disease. *Arch Intern Med*. 2004;164:1552-1556.
- Shekelle PG, Morton SC, Jungvig LK, et al. Effect of supplemental vitamin E for the prevention and treatment of cardiovascular disease. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2004;19:380-389.
- Michaud DS, Feskanih D, Rimm EB, et al. Intake of specific carotenoids and risk of lung cancer in 2 prospective US cohorts. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2000;72:990-997.
- Ziegler RG, Mayne ST, Swanson CA. Nutrition and lung cancer. *Cancer Causes Control*. 1996;7:157-177.
- Mayne ST. Beta-carotene, carotenoids, and disease prevention in humans. *FASEB J*. 1996;10:690-701.
- Peto R, Doll R, Buckley JD, Sporn MB. Can dietary beta-carotene materially reduce human cancer rates? *Nature*. 1981;290:201-208.
- The Alpha-Tocopherol; Beta Carotene Cancer Prevention Study Group. The effect of vitamin E and beta carotene on the incidence of lung cancer and other cancers in male smokers. *N Engl J Med*. 1994;330: 1029-1035.
- Omenn GS, Goodman GE, Thornquist MD, et al. Effects of a combination of beta-carotene and vitamin A on lung cancer and cardiovascular disease. *N Engl J Med*. 1996;334:1150-1155.
- Wang XD, Liu C, Bronson RT, Smith DE, Krinsky NI, Russell M. Retinoid signaling and activator protein-1 expression in ferrets given beta-carotene supplements and exposed to tobacco smoke. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 1999;91:60-66.
- Bazzano LA, He J, Ogden LG, et al. Dietary intake of folate and risk of stroke in US men and women: NHANES I Epidemiologic Follow-up Study. *Stroke*. 2002;33:1183-1188.
- Harker LA, Ross R, Slichter SJ, Scott CR. Homocystine-induced arteriosclerosis: the role of endothelial cell injury and platelet response in its genesis. *J Clin Invest*. 1976;58:731-741.
- Harker LA, Slichter SJ, Scott CR, Ross R. Homocystinemia: vascular injury and arterial thrombosis. *N Engl J Med*. 1974;291:537-543.
- Malinow MR, Bostom AG, Krauss RM. Homocyst(e)ine, diet, and cardiovascular diseases: a statement for healthcare professionals from the Nutrition Committee, American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 1999; 99:178-182.
- Eikelboom JW, Lonn E, Genest J Jr, Hankey G, Yusuf S. Homocyst(e)ine and cardiovascular disease: a critical review of the epidemiologic evidence. *Ann Intern Med*. 1999;131:363-375.
- MRC Vitamin Study Research Group. Prevention of neural tube defects: results of the Medical Research Council Vitamin Study. *Lancet*. 1991;338:131-137.
- Jacques PF, Selhub J, Bostom AG, Wilson PW, Rosenberg IH. The effect of folic acid fortification on

- plasma folate and total homocysteine concentrations. *N Engl J Med*. 1999;340:1449-1454.
47. Voutilainen S, Virtanen JK, Rissanen TH, et al. Serum folate and homocysteine and the incidence of acute coronary events: the Kuopio Ischaemic Heart Disease Risk Factor Study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;80:317-323.
 48. Hung J, Beilby JP, Knuiman MW, Divitini M. Folate and vitamin B-12 and risk of fatal cardiovascular disease: cohort study from Busselton, Western Australia. *BMJ*. 2003;326:131.
 49. Brilakis ES, McConnell JP, Ballman KV, Klee GG, Berger PB. Lack of association between plasma homocysteine and angiographic coronary artery disease in the era of fortification of cereal grain flour with folic acid. *Atherosclerosis*. 2002;165:375-381.
 50. Al-Delaimy WK, Rexrode KM, Hu FB, et al. Folate intake and risk of stroke among women. *Stroke*. 2004;35:1259-1263.
 51. Toole JF, Malinow MR, Chambless LE, et al. Lowering homocysteine in patients with ischemic stroke to prevent recurrent stroke, myocardial infarction, and death: the Vitamin Intervention for Stroke Prevention (VISP) randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2004;291:565-575.
 52. Lange H, Suryapranata H, De Luca G, et al. Folate therapy and in-stent restenosis after coronary stenting. *N Engl J Med*. 2004;350:2673-2681.
 53. Morris MC, Evans DA, Bienias JL, et al. Dietary folate and vitamin B12 intake and cognitive decline among community-dwelling older persons. *Arch Neurol*. 2005;62:641-645.
 54. Institute of Medicine. *Dietary Reference Intakes: B₁₂*. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences; 1998.
 55. Dhar M, Bellevue R, Carmel R. Pernicious anemia with neuropsychiatric dysfunction in a patient with sickle cell anemia treated with folate supplementation. *N Engl J Med*. 2003;348:2204-2207.
 56. Brown BG, Zhao XQ, Chait A, et al. Simvastatin and niacin, antioxidant vitamins, or the combination for the prevention of coronary disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;345:1583-1592.
 57. Brown BG, Cheung MC, Lee AC, Zhao XQ, Chait A. Antioxidant vitamins and lipid therapy: end of a long romance? *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2002;22:1535-1546.
 58. Meydani SN, Leka LS, Fine BC, et al. Vitamin E and respiratory tract infections in elderly nursing home residents: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2004;292:828-836.
 59. Pallast EG, Schouten EG, de Waart FG, et al. Effect of 50- and 100-mg vitamin E supplements on cellular immune function in noninstitutionalized elderly persons. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1999;69:1273-1281.
 60. Herbert V. Vitamin E supplementation and immune response in elderly patients [letter]. *JAMA*. 1998;279:505.
 61. Pan M, Cederbaum AI, Zhang YL, Ginsberg HN, Williams KJ, Fisher EA. Lipid peroxidation and oxidant stress regulate hepatic apolipoprotein B degradation and VLDL production. *J Clin Invest*. 2004;113:1277-1287.
 62. Miller ER III, Pastor-Barriuso R, Dalal D, Riemersma RA, Appel LJ, Guallar E. Meta-analysis: high-dosage vitamin E supplementation may increase all-cause mortality. *Ann Intern Med*. 2005;142:37-46.
 63. Carpenter TO, Pettifor JM, Russell RM, et al. Severe hypervitaminosis A in siblings: evidence of variable tolerance to retinol intake. *J Pediatr*. 1987;111:507-512.
 64. Niacin intoxication from pumpnickel bagels: New York. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 1983;32:305.
 65. Blank S, Scanlon KS, Sinks TH, Lett S, Falk H. An outbreak of hypervitaminosis D associated with the overfortification of milk from a home-delivery dairy. *Am J Public Health*. 1995;85:656-659.
 66. Jacobus CH, Holick MF, Shao Q, et al. Hypervitaminosis D associated with drinking milk. *N Engl J Med*. 1992;326:1173-1177.
 67. Hallberg L, Brune M, Erlandsson M, Sandberg AS, Rossander-Hulten L. Calcium: effect of different amounts on nonheme- and heme-iron absorption in humans. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1991;53:112-119.
 68. Solomons NW. Factors affecting the bioavailability of zinc. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1982;80:115-121.
 69. Institute of Medicine. *Dietary Reference Intakes: Zinc*. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences; 2001.
 70. Corrigan JJ Jr, Ulfers LL. Effect of vitamin E on prothrombin levels in warfarin-induced vitamin K deficiency. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1981;34:1701-1705.
 71. Disler PB, Lynch SR, Charlton RW, et al. The effect of tea on iron absorption. *Gut*. 1975;16:193-200.
 72. Mollndrem KL, Li J, Simon PV, Tanumihardjo SA. Lutein and beta-carotene from lutein-containing yellow carrots are bioavailable in humans. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;80:131-136.
 73. Kostic D, White WS, Olson JA. Intestinal absorption, serum clearance, and interactions between lutein and beta-carotene when administered to human adults in separate or combined oral doses. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1995;62:604-610.
 74. Huang HY, Appel LJ. Supplementation of diets with alpha-tocopherol reduces serum concentrations of gamma- and delta-tocopherol in humans. *J Nutr*. 2003;133:3137-3140.
 75. Olmedilla B, Granado F, Southon S, et al. A European multicentre, placebo-controlled supplementation study with alpha-tocopherol, carotene-rich palm oil, lutein or lycopene: analysis of serum responses. *Clin Sci*. 2002;102:447-456.
 76. McCay PB. Vitamin E: interactions with free radicals and ascorbate. *Annu Rev Nutr*. 1985;5:323-340.
 77. Yeum KJ, Russell RM, Krinsky NI, Aldini G. Biomarkers of antioxidant capacity in the hydrophilic and lipophilic compartments of human plasma. *Arch Biochem Biophys*. 2004;430:97-103.
 78. Teucher B, Olivares M, Cori H. Enhancers of iron absorption: ascorbic acid and other organic acids. *Int J Vitam Nutr Res*. 2004;74:403-419.
 79. Yuzbasiyan-Gurkan V, Grider A, Nostrand T, Cousins RJ, Brewer GJ. Treatment of Wilson's disease with zinc. X: intestinal metallothionein induction. *J Lab Clin Med*. 1992;120:380-386.
 80. Hannon-Fletcher MP, Armstrong NC, Scott JM, et al. Determining bioavailability of food folates in a controlled interventions study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;80:911-918.
 81. Sanderson P, McNulty H, Mastroiaco P, et al. Folate bioavailability: UK Food Standards Agency workshop report. *Br J Nutr*. 2003;90:473-479.
 82. Brown ED, Micozzi MS, Craft NE, et al. Plasma carotenoids in normal men after a single ingestion of vegetables or purified beta-carotene. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1989;49:1258-1265.
 83. Haskell MJ, Jamil KM, Hassan F, et al. Daily consumption of Indian spinach (*Basella alba*) or sweet potatoes has a positive effect on total-body vitamin A stores in Bangladeshi men. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;80:705-714.
 84. Tang G, Gu X, Hu S, et al. Green and yellow vegetables can maintain body stores of vitamin A in Chinese children. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1999;70:1069-1076.
 85. Sies H, Stahl W. Lycopene: antioxidant and biological effects and its bioavailability in the human. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med*. 1998;218:121-124.
 86. Mercke Odeberg J, Lignell A, Petterson A, Hoglund P. Oral bioavailability of the antioxidant astaxanthin in humans is enhanced by incorporation of lipid based formulations. *Eur J Pharm Sci*. 2003;19:299-304.
 87. Brown MJ, Ferruzzi MG, Nguyen ML, et al. Carotenoid bioavailability is higher from salads ingested with full-fat than with fat-reduced salad dressings as measured with electrochemical detection. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;80:396-403.
 88. Roodenburg AJ, Leenen R, van het Hof KH, Weststrate JA, Tijburg LB. Amount of fat in the diet affects bioavailability of lutein esters but not of alpha-carotene, beta-carotene, and vitamin E in humans. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2000;71:1187-1193.
 89. Castenmiller JJ, West CE, Linssen JP, van het Hof KH, Voragen AG. The food matrix of spinach is a limiting factor in determining the bioavailability of beta-carotene and to a lesser extent of lutein in humans. *J Nutr*. 1999;129:349-355.
 90. Livny O, Reifen R, Levy I, et al. Beta-carotene bioavailability from differently processed carrot meals in human ileostomy volunteers. *Eur J Nutr*. 2003;42:338-345.
 91. Stahl W, Sies H. Uptake of lycopene and its geometrical isomers is greater from heat-processed than from unprocessed tomato juice in humans. *J Nutr*. 1992;122:2161-2166.
 92. Sandberg AS. Bioavailability of minerals in legumes. *Br J Nutr*. 2002;88:S281-S285.
 93. Reinhold JG, Parsa A, Karimian N, Hammick JW, Ismail-Beigi F. Availability of zinc in leavened and unleavened wholemeal wheat breads as measured by solubility and uptake by rat intestine in vitro. *J Nutr*. 1974;104:976-982.
 94. Carter EG, Carpenter KJ. The bioavailability for humans of bound niacin from wheat bran. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 1982;36:855-861.
 95. Chung HY, Rasmussen HM, Johnson EJ. Lutein bioavailability is higher from lutein-enriched eggs than from supplements and spinach in men. *J Nutr*. 2004;134:1887-1893.
 96. Greger JL. Nondigestible carbohydrates and mineral bioavailability. *J Nutr*. 1999;129(7 suppl):1434S-1435S.
 97. Milman N, Pedersen AN, Ovesen L, Schroll M. Iron status in 358 apparently healthy 80-year-old Danish men and women: relation to food composition and dietary and supplemental iron intake. *Ann Hematol*. 2004;83:423-429.
 98. Willcox JK, Catignani GL, Lazarus S. Tomatoes and cardiovascular health. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr*. 2003;43:1-18.
 99. Hu FB, Rimm EB, Stampfer MJ, Ascherio A, Spiegelman D, Willett WC. Prospective study of major dietary patterns and risk of coronary heart disease in men. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2000;72:912-921.
 100. Strandhagen E, Hansson PO, Bosaeus I, Isaksson B, Eriksson H. High fruit intake may reduce mortality among middle-aged and elderly men: the Study of Men Born in 1913. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2000;54:337-341.
 101. Steinmetz KA, Potter JD. Vegetables, fruit, and cancer prevention: a review. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1996;96:1027-1039.
 102. Alberts DS, Martinez ME, Roe DJ, et al; Phoenix Colon Cancer Prevention Physicians' Network. Lack of effect of a high-fiber cereal supplement on the recurrence of colorectal adenomas. *N Engl J Med*. 2000;342:1156-1162.
 103. Schatzkin A, Lanza E, Corle D, et al; Polyp Prevention Trial Study Group. Lack of effect of a low-fat, high-fiber diet on the recurrence of colorectal adenomas. *N Engl J Med*. 2000;342:1149-1155.
 104. Braam L, McKeown NM, Jacques PF, et al. Dietary phyloquinone intake as a potential marker for a heart-healthy dietary pattern in the Framingham Offspring Cohort. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 2004;104:1410-1414.
 105. Erkkila AT, Booth SL, Hu FB, et al. Phyloquinone intake as a marker for coronary heart disease risk but not stroke in women. *Eur J Clin Nutr*. 2005;59:196-204.
 106. Boileau TW, Liao Z, Kim S, Lemeshow S, Erdman JW Jr, Clinton SK. Prostate carcinogenesis in N-methyl-N-nitrosourea (NMU)-testosterone-treated rats fed tomato powder, lycopene, or energy-restricted diets. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2003;95:1578-1586.

107. Lu QJ, Huang CY, Yao SX, Wang RS, Wu XN. Effects of fat-soluble extracts from vegetable powder and beta-carotene on proliferation and apoptosis of lung cancer cell YTMCL-90. *Biomed Environ Sci*. 2003;16:237-245.
108. Dragsted LO, Pedersen A, Hermetter A, et al. The 6-a-day study: effects of fruit and vegetables on markers of oxidative stress and antioxidative defense in healthy nonsmokers. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2004;79:1060-1072.
109. Jasti S, Siega-Riz AM, Bentley ME. Dietary supplement use in the context of health disparities: cultural, ethnic and demographic determinants of use. *J Nutr*. 2003;133:2010S-2013S.
110. Pelletier DL, Kendall A. Supplement use may not be associated with better food intake in all population groups. *Fam Econ Nutr Rev*. 1997;10:32-44.
111. Slesinski MJ, Subar AF, Kahle LL. Trends in use of vitamin and mineral supplements in the United States: the 1987 and 1992 National Health Interview Surveys. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1995;95:921-923.
112. Levy AS, Schucker RE. Patterns of nutrient intake among dietary supplement users: attitudinal and behavioral correlates. *J Am Diet Assoc*. 1987;87:754-760.
113. Koplan JP, Annett JL, Layde PM, Rubin GL. Nutrient intake and supplementation in the United States (NHANES II). *Am J Public Health*. 1986;76:287-289.
114. Osganian SK, Stampfer MJ, Rimm E, et al. Vitamin C and risk of coronary heart disease in women. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2003;42:246-252.
115. Use of vitamins containing folic acid among women of childbearing age—United States, 2004. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2004;53:847-850.
116. Feskanich D, Singh V, Willett WC, Colditz GA. Vitamin A intake and hip fractures among postmenopausal women. *JAMA*. 2002;287:47-54.
117. US Department of Health and Human Services, US Department of Agriculture. *Dietary Guidelines for Americans, 2005*. Washington, DC: US Dept of Health and Human Services; 2005.
118. Dawson DW, Sawers AH, Sharma RK. Malabsorption of protein bound vitamin B12. *BMJ*. 1984;288:675-678.
119. MacLaughlin J, Holick MF. Aging decreases the capacity of human skin to produce vitamin D3. *J Clin Invest*. 1985;76:1536-1538.
120. Institute of Medicine. *Dietary Reference Intakes: Calcium and Vitamin D*. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences; 1997.
121. American Academy of Pediatric Dentistry. Clinical guideline on fluoride therapy. *Pediatr Dent*. 2004;26:87-88.
122. Kris-Etherton PM, Harris WS, Appel LJ; American Heart Association Nutrition Committee. Fish consumption, fish oil, omega-3 fatty acids, and cardiovascular disease. *Circulation*. 2002;106:2747-2757.
123. Ordovas JM, Corella D. Nutritional genomics. *Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet*. 2004;5:71-118.
124. Girelli D, Martinelli N, Pizzolo F, et al. The interaction between MTHFR 677 C→T genotype and folate status is a determinant of coronary atherosclerosis risk. *J Nutr*. 2003;133:1281-1285.
125. Kruger WVD, Evans AA, Wang L, et al. Polymorphisms in the CBS gene associated with decreased risk of coronary artery disease and increased responsiveness to total homocysteine lowering by folic acid. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2000;70:53-60.

There's one characteristic that sets writing apart from most of the other arts—its apparent democracy, by which I mean its availability to almost everyone as a means of expression.

—Margaret Atwood (1939-)