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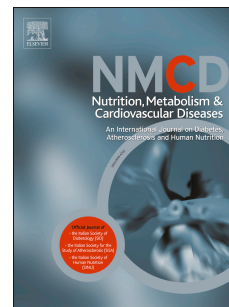
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TITLE PAGE

Title

Improving diet quality over nine-years is associated with less weight gain in mid-age Australian women: A cohort study

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Short Title

Diet quality in relation to weight change in mid-age women

1 Abstract

2 *Background and Aims:* Most studies measure baseline diet quality exclusively and hence the
3 impact of longitudinal changes in dietary intake in relation to weight change is not
4 considered. Therefore, this study aimed to examine whether change in diet quality over nine-
5 years was associated with weight change over the same period in mid-age Australian women.

6 *Methods and Results:* Healthy mid-age (45-49 years) women from the Australian
7 Longitudinal study on Women's Health (ALSWH) were eligible a valid total energy intake
8 (TEI) was reported at baseline ($n=2,381$), determined using Goldberg cut-offs. Diet quality
9 was measured by the Australian Recommended Food Score (ARFS) using data derived from
10 a validated food frequency questionnaire. Multiple linear regressions were used to evaluate
11 relationships between change in diet quality and weight in mid-age women ($n=1,999$).
12 Women in the highest tertile of ARFS change improved diet quality [mean \pm SD] [7 ± 4
13 points], while those in the lowest [-9 ± 5 points] and middle [-1 ± 2 points] tertiles had worse
14 diet quality at follow-up. Overall, mean weight gain was 2.3 ± 7.2 kg over nine years. Those in
15 the highest tertile of ARFS change gained significantly less weight, compared to the lowest
16 tertile; $\beta = -1.2$ kg [95% CI: -2.31, -0.11; $p=0.03$] after adjustment for changes in
17 confounders and baseline weight, baseline ARFS, and total energy intake.

18 *Conclusions:* Improving diet quality could be an important strategy for promoting modest
19 weight loss and *potentially contribute to* preventing weight gain in mid-age women, which is
20 important for metabolic health. **Keywords:** Diet quality, weight gain, mid-age women,
21 longitudinal, cohort

22

23 Introduction

24 Globally the prevalence of obesity has approximately tripled between 1975 and 2016⁽¹⁾. This
25 presents a major public health issue, given obesity is linked to an increased risk of all-cause
26 morbidity and mortality^(2,3). In 2016, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that
27 amongst adults (\geq aged 18 years), 55% of females and 50% of males were overweight or
28 obese, highlighting a slightly higher prevalence among females relative to males⁽¹⁾. In
29 western countries, mid-age (45-54 years) women are at high risk of weight gain^(4,5). The
30 2017-2018 Australian National Health Survey, reported that the prevalence of overweight and
31 obesity in women increased from 60% at ages 45-54 years to 65% at ages 55-64 years
32⁽⁶⁾. Weight gain in mid-age women is associated with changes in dietary intake including
33 increased energy intake^(7,8) and alcohol consumption^(9,10) as well as a reduction in physical
34 activity^(11,12) and change in smoking status^(8,10). Apart from behavioural factors, weight gain
35 during this lifestage may be partially attributed to the menopausal transition, with declining
36 estrogen (estradiol) concentration associated with an increase in abdominal fat deposition⁽¹³⁾.
37 Obesity in postmenopausal women is associated with a higher risk for all-cause mortality and
38 both coronary heart disease and breast cancer mortality⁽¹⁴⁻¹⁷⁾.

39 A substantial body of evidence has shown that moderate weight loss (i.e. 5-10% of initial
40 body weight) lowers the risk of cardiovascular disease^(18,19). Therefore, aiming to prevent
41 weight gain during the menopausal transition is an important strategy for reducing the burden
42 of chronic disease as well as risk of morbidity and mortality among mid-age women. Diet is a
43 key modifiable determinant of overweight and obesity and therefore an area likely to be
44 important to target for mid-age weight management. Mid-age women are known to attempt to
45 lose weight or try to prevent weight gain, but currently few women achieve weight
46 management success⁽²⁰⁾. Therefore, developing effective dietary recommendations to guide
47 weight management efforts for this population group at high risk of weight gain is needed.

48 Considerable research has examined the relationship between the intake of single nutrients or
49 food items and weight status^(21,22). However, evaluations should consider an individuals'
50 whole diet, and not be limited to individual foods or isolated nutrients. It is likely, whole diets
51 and dietary patterns may have cumulative effects on weight status compared with single
52 nutrients or food items^(23,24). Evidence based on dietary patterns can be more easily
53 translated into messages that inform dietary interventions and dietetic practice^(25,26). Diet
54 quality indexes or scores can be used as a measure of overall dietary intake and alignment of

55 eating patterns with dietary guidelines, while also predicting the risk of morbidity and
56 mortality^(27, 28). However, a systematic review ($n=16$ studies) indicated that few studies
57 (25%) have measured diet quality across multiple time-points and examined the association
58 between longitudinal changes in diet quality in regard to weight change over time⁽²⁹⁾.

59 Therefore, the current study aimed to evaluate change in diet quality, as measured by the
60 validated Australian Recommended Food Score (ARFS)^(33, 34) and weight change in mid-age
61 women over nine-years of follow-up, among those who were free of disease and had reported
62 valid total energy intakes (TEIs) at baseline. This evaluation is important in regard to
63 informing dietary recommendations for the prevention of overweight and obesity in mid-age
64 women.

65

66 **Methods**

67 **Population**

68 The current study analysed data from mid-age women participating in the Australian
69 Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (ALSWH) at two points in time, 2001 and 2010⁽³⁵⁻
70 ³⁷⁾. The ALSWH was established in 1996 and recruited over 40,000 women in three cohorts,
71 based on age: young women (18-22 years), mid-aged women (45-49 years) and older women
72 (70-74 years). The overall aim of the ALSWH was to examine the social, psychological and
73 physical predictors of mental health, well-being and health outcomes of women over time.
74 The National Health Insurance database (Medicare) was used as a sampling frame to recruit
75 women as it is the most up-to-date and complete dataset for women and permanent residents
76 in Australia. Participants were randomly selected from the Medicare database. The study was
77 approved by the University of Newcastle and the University of Queensland Human Research
78 Ethics committees.

79 **Participants**

80 Analyses were restricted to data obtained from the mid-age cohort ($n=1,999$) who completed
81 questionnaires in 2001 and 2010. Women were excluded if they reported any of the following
82 chronic conditions at baseline: type 2 diabetes, impaired glucose tolerance, heart disease,
83 stroke or breast, cervical or bowel cancer. A valid TEI was identified using Schofield
84 equations to calculate Basal Metabolic Rate (BMR) for each participant, based on age

85 (years), self-reported weight (kilograms), with a Physical Activity Level (PAL) of 1.55
86 applied to calculate individual Estimated Energy Requirements (EER). EERs were compared
87 with individual TEIs derived from the food frequency questionnaires (FFQs) and Goldberg
88 cut-offs (<0.76 and >1.24) for under and over-reporters were applied to identify those with
89 valid TEIs⁽³⁸⁾. The TEI (KJ/day) and nutrient intakes were quantified from the Australian
90 nutrient composition database using the Nutrient Data Table (NUTTAB)⁽³⁹⁾.

91 **Dietary assessment**

92 Dietary intake was assessed in both Survey 3 (2001) and Survey 6 (2010) of the ALSWH
93 using the Dietary Questionnaire for Epidemiological Studies Version 2 (DQESv2), an FFQ
94 developed by the Cancer Council of Victoria⁽⁴⁰⁾ which has previously been validated in
95 Australian women⁽⁴¹⁾. The DQESv2 required the women to report their consumption of 74
96 food items and six-alcoholic beverages over the previous 12 months using a 10-point
97 frequency scale which ranges from never to 3 or more times per day. Photographs were used
98 to represent different serving sizes for vegetables, potatoes and meat casserole dishes,
99 enabling a portion factor to be calculated that accounted for serving size variability.

100 **Diet quality**

101 The ARFS was used to calculate an overall diet quality score. Validation studies have
102 indicated that higher ARFS scores are associated with more optimal nutrient intakes and
103 better self-rated health in mid-age women^(33, 34). The ARFS was based on the US
104 Recommended Food Score⁽⁴²⁾ and contains a total of 74 items arranged into seven sub-
105 scales, with scores ranging from zero up to 74 points. Each item scores one point if the
106 participant meets 100% of the specific food group serves recommendation, and zero if
107 otherwise. Higher scores reflect dietary patterns more closely aligned with the Australian
108 Guide to Healthy Eating recommendations⁽⁴³⁾. The seven sub-scales have various point
109 allocations and additional points are allocated for optimal types or amounts within the sub-
110 scales. These include: Vegetables (21 items + 1 point for ≥ 4 serves daily = 22 points); Fruit
111 (13 items + 1 point for ≥ 2 serves daily = 14 points); Protein Foods (14 points), including
112 animal protein (8 animal protein items, 1 point ≤ 2 eggs weekly; 7 items scored 1 point for 1–
113 4 serves/week of beef, lamb, pork, poultry, fish/seafood (3 items); + 6 plant protein items
114 each item scored 1 point for ≥ 1 serve weekly = 14 points); Grains (13 items + 1 point for ≥ 4
115 serves per day = 14 points); Dairy (5 items + 1 point for using skim or reduced fat milk + 1
116 point for >500 ml milk per day = 7 points); Fats (1 point for using poly or monounsaturated

117 margarine = 1 point); Alcoholic Beverages (1 point for beer/wine/spirits up to 4 days per
118 week + 1 point for 2 or less drinks each occasion = 2 points)⁽³⁴⁾. Zero points are awarded
119 when alcohol is not consumed due to the U-shaped association between alcohol intake and
120 health status⁽³⁴⁾. To evaluate nine year change in ARFS, follow-up scores were subtracted
121 from baseline ARFS.

122 **Weight**

123 Weight (kilograms) was self-reported and weight change was calculated by subtracting
124 weight in 2001 from weight in 2010.

125 **Potential confounders**

126 The highest levels of education attained by the women were categorised into school
127 certificate (≤ 11 years schooling), higher school certificate (12-13 years schooling),
128 trade/apprenticeship, undergraduate university degree and post-graduate degree. The location
129 of residence of the women were categorised using the Australian Bureau of Statistics
130 definitions: urban (with 100,000 or more people), rural (with 200 to 999 people) and remote
131 (< 200 people). The change in area of residence were categorised into: women who lived in
132 urban areas in 2001 and 2010, those who lived in rural areas in 2001 and 2010, those who
133 lived in an urban area in 2001 and moved to a rural area by 2010, those who lived in a rural
134 area in 2001 and moved to an urban area by 2010. The changes in smoking status were
135 categorised into: women who reported that they never smoked in 2001 and 2010, those who
136 reported smoking only in 2010, those who reported they were current smokers in 2001 and
137 2010, and those who were smokers in 2001 and quit smoking by 2010. The changes in
138 menopause status were categorised into: women who were pre-menopausal or were using oral
139 contraceptive (OCP) in 2001 to being peri-menopausal in 2010, those who were pre-
140 menopausal in 2001 to being post-menopausal (or surgical menopause) in 2010, women who
141 were peri-menopausal in 2001 and remained peri-menopausal or had begun hormone
142 replacement therapy (HRT) in 2010, women who were peri-menopausal in 2001 and became
143 post-menopausal in 2010, and those women who were post-menopausal at baseline.

144

145

146 **Physical activity**

147 Participants self-reported walking, moderate and strenuous physical activity (PA) frequency
148 which was used to derive a PA score in metabolic equivalents (METs) per minute
149 (MET.mins)⁽⁴⁴⁾. Total MET minutes were calculated and categorised into four groups:
150 nil/sedentary (0 to <40 MET.min/week), low (40 to <600 MET.min/week), moderate (600 to
151 <1200 MET.min/week) and high (\geq 1200 MET.min/week)⁽⁴⁵⁾. The change in physical activity
152 from 2001 to 2010 was calculated as MET.min at follow-up subtracted from the MET.min at
153 baseline.

154 **Statistical analyses**

155 All analyses were conducted using STATA 11 (College Station, TX: StataCorp LP 2011). All
156 changes in data were checked for normality and found to be normally distributed. Analysis of
157 variance (ANOVA) was used to compare means of the continuous variables across tertiles of
158 ARFS change. Multivariate linear regressions were used to examine whether change in the
159 ARFS, classified as tertiles, impacted on weight change from 2001 to 2010. The models
160 included change in ARFS (grouped as tertiles), as the independent variable and weight
161 change (in kilograms) as the dependent variable. The lowest tertile of change in ARFS was
162 the reference group in the regression models. Two separate linear regressions were applied: a
163 crude and a fully adjusted model, the latter of which was adjusted for changes in confounder
164 variables or for baseline results (i.e. changes in education, smoking status, area of residence,
165 menopause status, baseline weight, baseline ARFS, and baseline TEI).

166

167 **Results**

168 Of the 10,267 women in the mid-age cohort in 2001, 5,989 met the inclusion criteria and had
169 ARFS and weight data at both 2001 and 2010 (Figure 1). Of these, 2,381 women were
170 deemed to have a valid TEI at baseline and 1,999 women had complete weight and dietary
171 data.

172 No significant differences were found between women with a valid TEI ($n=2,381$) and an
173 invalid TEI ($n=3,608$) at baseline in terms of age, education, menopause status, area of
174 residence and smoking status variables. However, there were significant differences between
175 the samples in terms of baseline prevalence of healthy weight (BMI 18.5 to 24.9kg/m²) or
176 obesity (BMI: \geq 30), $p<0.01$. For women with an invalid TEI, baseline prevalence of healthy
177 weight was 34% compared with 50% amongst those with a valid TEI, while baseline obesity

178 prevalence among women with a valid TEI 16% versus was 23% among those with an
179 invalid TEI.

180 After the nine year follow-up, women on average were heavier [mean(standard
181 deviation(SD)) [2.3 (7.2) kg] and demonstrated a small decline in diet quality of 2(8) ARFS
182 points (Table 1). There was an 11% increase in the prevalence of obesity, with no significant
183 changes in PA reported during the nine-year follow-up.

184 ARFS change was -9.0(5.0) [range values (-4 to -31) and median = -8] for the lowest (worse
185 diet quality) tertile, -1.0(2.0) [range values (2 to -3) and median was -1.] for the middle tertile
186 and +7.0(4.0) [range values (22 to 3), and median was 6 scores] for the highest tertile
187 (greatest improvement in diet quality), $p < 0.01$ (Table 2). Weight change was [+2.6(6.8)],
188 [+2.2(7.5)] and [+1.5(7.4)] for those in the lowest, middle and highest tertiles of change in
189 ARFS score, $p = 0.04$ (Table 2).

190 Table 3 reports the change in ARFS sub-scale scores across tertiles of nine-year change in
191 ARFS scores. Across the tertiles of all sub-scale change scores, there were significant
192 differences detected between 2001 and 2010, p -values < 0.001 . The greatest increase in sub-
193 scale scores were reported for vegetables [3(3) points], fruit [2(3) points] and protein [2(2)
194 points] for women in the highest tertile of ARFS change. For women in the lowest tertile of
195 change in ARFS, the greatest decreases in sub-scale scores were reported for vegetables [-5(4
196 points)], fruit [-2(3points)] and grains [-2(2 points)].

197 In the fully adjusted models, women in the highest tertile (greatest improvement in diet
198 quality) of ARFS change, gained significantly less weight compared with women in the
199 lowest tertile (worse diet quality) over nine-years of follow-up; β : -1.2 [95% CI: -2.31, -
200 0.11], ($p = 0.03$) (Table 4).

201

202 **Discussion**

203 The current analysis indicates that improvements in diet quality are associated with less
204 weight gain among mid-age Australian women over a nine-year period. Those with the
205 greatest improvement in diet quality (i.e. highest tertile of ARFS change), gained less weight
206 (i.e. -1.2kg over nine years) compared to women whose diet quality worsened (i.e. lowest
207 tertile of ARFS change) over nine-years of follow-up. Although the magnitude of weight gain

208 was small in the current study, population attributable fractions (PAFs) derived from a cohort
209 of Swedish adults ($n=33,184$) indicated that 22-42% cases of newly diagnosed diabetes could
210 be prevented by population wide weight maintenance ($\pm 1.0 \text{ kg/m}^2$) or moderate weight loss
211 (-1.0 to -2.0 kg/m^2)⁽⁴⁷⁾. Furthermore, evidence indicates that for each kilogram of weight
212 gain the risk of developing diabetes increases by 5-9% over the proceeding 10 to 20 years^{(48,}
213 ⁴⁹⁾. While weight gain following weight loss termed weight cycling, is also associated with an
214 increased risk of developing diabetes^(50, 51). The Kangbuk Samsung Health study ($n=4,818$)
215 reported that adults who were overweight at baseline who experience high weight cycling
216 ($\geq 1.83 \text{ kg}$) over two years had a significantly greater risk of developing diabetes compared to
217 those with normal weight at baseline and a lower degree of weight cycling ($< 1.18 \text{ kg}$) over
218 four years (odds ratio 2.27; 95% CI 1.12-4.57)⁽⁵⁰⁾. These studies highlight the importance of
219 preventing weight gain and of sustaining weight loss for promotion of long-term health.

220 Overall women reported a mean weight gain of 2.3(7.2) kg and a reduction in diet quality
221 scores of -2(8) points during this time. We previously⁽⁵⁴⁾ identified that baseline diet quality
222 was not associated with weight gain or loss over six years of follow-up among 7,155 mid-age
223 ALSWH women (48 to 56 years). This current analysis examined the relationship between
224 change in ARFS and weight gain over a longer follow-up period (nine-years). This highlights
225 the importance of evaluating the relationship between change in diet quality and patterns of
226 weight gain, and further that diet quality is not static over time for mid-age women. In
227 contrast to the current findings, Arabshahi et al.,⁽⁵⁵⁾ found no relationship between change in
228 diet quality, measured by the Dietary Guidelines Index (DGI), and weight change in
229 Australian women aged 25 to 75 years over 15 years of follow-up. These conflicting findings
230 could be due to differences in the characteristics of the study sample, measurement of diet
231 quality, study design or differences in the adjustment for confounders.

232 Studies worldwide have also reported an inverse association between change in diet quality
233 and BMI change⁽⁵⁶⁾, weight change^(57, 58) or risk of obesity⁽⁵⁹⁾. In the Framingham Offspring
234 cohort, women aged 49-56 years ($n=1847$) with higher mean diet quality scores, as measured
235 by the DQI at two time-points, gained significantly less weight at 3.3 (17.4) lb, compared
236 with those with lower mean diet quality scores 8.0 (13.0) lb over eight years of follow-up⁽⁵⁷⁾.
237 Similarly, in the Spanish prospective cohort (SUN project), adults ($n=6319$) in the highest
238 quartile of diet quality at baseline, which aligned with a Mediterranean Diet Pattern (MDP),
239 had significantly less weight gain compared with those in the lower quartile of diet quality at
240 baseline ($p=0.016$)⁽⁵⁸⁾. Boggs et al.,⁽⁵⁹⁾ reported that African American women ($n=12,271$)

241 with a healthy weight at baseline (BMI 18.5 to 24.9kg/m²) reported improved diet quality
242 scores, measured using the Alternative Healthy Eating Index (AHEI), and had a lower risk of
243 becoming obese (BMI ≥ 30 kg/m²) over six years. Interestingly, Fung et al.,⁽³¹⁾ reported that
244 the relationship between improved diet quality and lower weight gain was stronger for
245 younger women (aged <55 years) compared with older women (≥ 55 years) over four year
246 follow-up ($p < 0.0001$). These age-related differences in weight change could potentially be
247 confounded by weight gain risk related to the menopause transition⁽⁶⁰⁾.

248 Women undergoing the menopausal transition are at an elevated risk of weight gain⁽⁶⁰⁾ and
249 are not meeting the national dietary guidelines⁽⁶¹⁾. The current study found that mid-age
250 Australian women have poor diet quality, with a mean baseline ARFS of 35 out of 74 (47%).
251 Even women in the highest tertile of change in ARFS score, who reported modest
252 improvements in ARFS score, still gained weight over time, which is supported by other
253 Australian studies^(55, 61-65). Azadbakht et al.,⁽⁶⁶⁾ reported that less weight gain over four years
254 in young Iranian women aged ≥ 18 years ($n=120,877$) in association with a higher
255 consumption of vegetables, wholegrains, fruits, nuts and yoghurt ($p \leq 0.005$). Many of these
256 foods are relatively low in energy and high in fibre, providing greater satiety⁽⁶⁷⁾. Therefore, it
257 is not surprising that higher consumption of these foods contributes to less weight gain.
258 However, ARFS only captures intake of the healthy foods from nutrient-dense core food
259 groups (i.e. vegetables, grains, fruit, dairy and alternatives and meat and alternatives), but
260 does not evaluate portion size, estimate energy intake or the consumption of energy-dense
261 nutrient poor foods. The relationship between ARFS and weight is based on the previous
262 finding that greater consumption of the core, nutrient-dense foods displaces energy-dense and
263 nutrient-poor foods⁽³⁴⁾ and therefore impacts overall energy intake. Despite this, the ARFS
264 sub-scale analysis in the current study showed that women who gained the least amount of
265 weight, consumed a greater variety of vegetables, fruit and lean protein over time. These
266 study findings suggest that mid-age women need specific advice and guidance from health
267 professionals in regards to adopting healthy eating behaviours to promote better diet quality,
268 including the consumption of a variety of healthy nutrient-dense foods, for the prevention of
269 prospective weight gain.

270 This was a robust analysis of a prospective cohort study in a representative sample of mid-
271 age Australian women. However, there are some important limitations that need to be
272 acknowledged. Dietary intake, weight, socio-demographic and lifestyle information were
273 self-reported therefore, misreporting can not be excluded and could be related to other

274 factors, including socioeconomic status, BMI, perceived weight status and level of physical
275 activity ⁽⁶⁸⁻⁷⁰⁾. However, the DQESv2 has been previously validated in Australian women ⁽⁴¹⁾,
276 and self-reported weight in the ALSWH cohort shows good agreement with objective
277 measurements ⁽⁷¹⁾. Furthermore, the study analyses only included women with a valid TEI to
278 minimise mis-reporting bias. The determination of TEI based on the evaluation using the
279 food list in the DQESv2 and may have not captured all energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods
280 although, this is the case for most epidemiological studies that utilise FFQs. A strength of the
281 current analysis is that the ARFS has been validated and adapted for use in Australian
282 populations ^(33, 34). In addition, the longitudinal study design permitted assessment for change
283 in diet quality, while adjusting for change in confounders such as smoking, PA and
284 menopausal status.

285 **Conclusion**

286 Women, who improved their dietary quality, by increasing the consumption of a variety of
287 nutrient-dense, core-foods, gained the least weight over nine-years, while those with the
288 greatest reductions in diet quality gained the most weight. The current study provides some
289 support that improving diet quality in women during mid-life that is associated with very
290 modest weight reduction. Evaluation of whether promoting higher diet quality as a strategy for
291 preventing weight gain and reducing long-term susceptibility to chronic disease is warranted..

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335 **Competing Interests**

336 There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

337 **Authorship**

338 Contribution of each author; AP, DS, CEC conceptualised the research project; all authors
339 were involved in the design of the research; HMA conducted the research; HMA conducted
340 the analysis and HMA, RMT drafted the manuscript; all authors edited and provided
341 feedback and approved the final manuscript. The content in this manuscript is the original
342 work of all authors involved. The manuscript is not under consideration nor published
343 elsewhere in the same or in a similar form. All authors have read and approved the
344 manuscript.

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589 **Table 1: Characteristics and anthropometric measurement for mid-age women**590 **(*n*=1999) with valid total energy intake (TEI)**

Variable	Baseline Mean	Baseline SD	Follow-up Mean	Follow-up SD
ARFS at baseline	35.0	9.0	32.0	8.0
Change in ARFS over nine-years	n/a	n/a	-2.0	8.0
Weight (kg)	68.5	13.7	72.7	15.7
Change in weight over nine-years (kg)	n/a	n/a	2.3	7.2
Participant Characteristics				
TEI (KJ/d)	8956.5	1414.0	n/a	n/a
Age (years)	52.5	1.5	61.5	1.5

PA (Met. minutes)	1012.9	1414.2	1220.3	1539.2
Change PA (exstat)	n/a	n/a	239.9	1678.6
Participant Characteristics	Baseline Percentage		Follow-up Percentage	
Underweight (BMI: <18.5) (%)	2.1		2.0	
Healthy weight (BMI: ≥18.5 to <24.9)(%)	50.0		37.0	
Overweight (BMI: ≥24.9 to <29.9) (%)	31.0		34.0	
Obese (BMI: ≥30) (%)	16.0		27.0	
Smoking Status (Non-smoker/ex-smoker/smoker)	57/30/13		62/29/9	
¹ Area of Residence (Urban/rural/remote)	35/60/5		38/57/4	
Education (No formal/school certificate/trade and apprentice/university degree and higher)	18/32/17/23		15/24/19/41	
Marital status (Married/defacto/separated/divorced/widowed/ single)	77/6/3/8/3/3		70/6/4/11/6/3	
Menopause status (Surgical menopause/ HRT use/OCP use/Pre- menopausal/Peri-menopausal/Post- menopausal)	27/20/9/19/24/1		37/4/0/0/59	

591 SD, Standard deviation. ARFS, Australian Recommended Food Score. n/a, Not applicable. BMI, Body Mass Index. TEI,
592 Total energy intake. KJ, Kilojoules. PA, Physical activity. Met. minutes, Metabolic equivalents per minute. Exstat, physical
593 activity summary score ⁽⁷²⁾. HRT, Hormone replacement therapy. OCP, Oral contraceptive pill.
594 ¹Urban (100, 00 or more people), rural (200-999 people), remote (<200 people).

595 **Table 2: Social-demographic variables of mid-age women (n=1999) at baseline and follow-up by tertile of changes of the Australian**
 596 **Recommended Food Score (ARFS)**

Variable	Baseline (2001)							Follow-up (2010)						
	Tertile 1 (n=778; 39%)		Tertile 2 (n=557; 28%)		Tertile 3 (n=664; 33%)		p-value ANOVA	Tertile 1 (n=778; 39%)		Tertile 2 (n=557; 28%)		Tertile 3 (n=664; 33%)		p-value ANOVA
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
ARFS	39.0	7.0	35.0	8.0	30.0	8.0	*<0.01	30.0	7.0	34	8	37.0	8.0	*<0.01
Change in ARFS	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	-9.0	5.0	-1.0	2.0	7.0	4.0	*<0.01
Change in weight (kg)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2.6	6.8	2.2	7.5	1.5	7.4	*0.04
Weight (kg)	69.0	13.1	69.1	14.1	67.7	13.4	0.27	71.6	14.2	71.2	15.6	69.0	13.1	*0.02
Energy intake (KJ/d)	8980.3	1406.7	8,896.2	1427.2	8806.0	1381.0	0.18	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Age (years)	52.4	1.5	52.5	1.5	52.5	1.5	0.61	61.4	1.5	61.5	1.5	61.5	1.5	0.53
	Tertile 1 (n=778; 39%)		Tertile 2 (n=557; 28%)		Tertile 3 (n=664; 33%)		p-value ANOVA	Tertile 1 (n=778; 39%)		Tertile 2 (n=557; 28%)		Tertile 3 (n=664; 33%)		p-value ANOVA
	Percentage		Percentage		Percentage			Percentage		Percentage		Percentage		
BMI: (Underweight/healthy/ overweight/obese) (%)	2/50/34/14		2/50/28/20		2/50/33/14		0.07	1/40/37/22		1/44/31/24		3/44/34/18		1.13
PA in METs (nil/low/moderate/ high) (%)	13/36/22/29		12/35/26/27		17/40/19/24		*<0.01	15/28/22/35		13/24/21/42		16/27/22/35		0.41
Changes in PA (METs)	n/a		n/a		n/a		n/a	150.7(1,476.1)		343.8 (1,757.4)		368.5(1,440.9)		0.07
Smoking status (never/ ex-smoker/ current) (%)	57/32/11		56/34/10		56/29/15		0.22	62/31/7		61/32/7		64/28/8		0.64
Residence (urban/ rural/ remote); proportion (%)	36/52/5		34/61/5		34/62/4		0.90	37/59/4		35/60/5		36/61/3		0.90
Highest education (nil/ school certificate/ trade/ university degree) (%)	28/36/18/18		17/38/18/18		17/34/19/33		*<0.01	10/41/21/28		11/44/25/20		17/48/16/19		*<0.01

597 ANOVA, Analysis of variance. SD, Standard deviation. ARFS, Australian Recommended Food Score. n/a, Not applicable. KJ, Kilojoules. BMI, Body Mass Index. PA,

598 Physical activity. METs, Metabolic equivalents per minute.

599 ¹Urban (100, 00 or more people), rural (200-999 people), remote (<200 people).

600 *Statistically significant (p<0.05)

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602 **Table 3: Change in the ARFS subscales (2001-2010) in mid-age women by tertiles**

Variable	Changes of the ARFS tertiles (<i>n</i> =1999)						p-value (ANOVA)
	Tertile 1 (<i>n</i> =778; 39%)		Tertile 2 (<i>n</i> =557; 28%)		Tertile 3 (<i>n</i> =664; 33%)		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
ARFS (baseline)	39.0	7.0	35.0	8.0	30.0	8.0	<0.001*
Vegetables	-5.0	4.0	-1.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	<0.001*
Fruit	-2.0	3.0	-0.04	2.0	2.0	3.0	<0.001*
Dairy	0.02	1.0	0.2	1.0	0.5	1.0	<0.001*
Grains	-2.0	2.0	-0.5	2.0	0.5	2.0	<0.001*
Protein	-0.1	2.0	1.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	<0.001*
Fat	-0.10	1.0	-0.07	0.5	0.03	1.0	<0.001*
Alcohol	-0.10	1.0	-0.07	0.5	0.03	1.0	<0.001*

603 ARFS, Australian Recommended Food Score. ANOVA, Analysis of variance. SD, Standard deviation.

604 *Statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)

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616 **Table 4: Multiple linear regression models to predict nine-year weight change in mid-**
 617 **age women ($n= 1999$)**

Predictor: Diet Quality Index	Model	Tertile (Comparator Tertile 1)	¹ Δ Weight (kg) β co-efficient	¹ Δ Weight (kg) 95% Confidence Interval	p-value
Change in ARFS (2001-2010)	¹ Crude	2	-0.41	-1.32, 0.49	0.37
		3	-1.06	-2.01, -0.10	*0.03
	¹ Fully adjusted	2	-0.33	-1.28, -0.62	0.49
		3	-1.2	-2.31, -0.11	*0.03

618 ARFS, Australian Recommended Food Score.

619 ¹Crude model: the dependent variable is nine- year weight change in kg and independent variable the
 620 nine-year change in ARFS score in tertiles. Fully adjusted model: same as the crude model plus
 621 adjustment for changes in confounder variables (including education and smoking status, area of
 622 residence, menopause status) and baseline weight, baseline ARFS, and total energy intake. The lowest
 623 tertile of the ARFS was the reference group in the models.

624 *Statistically significant ($p<0.05$)

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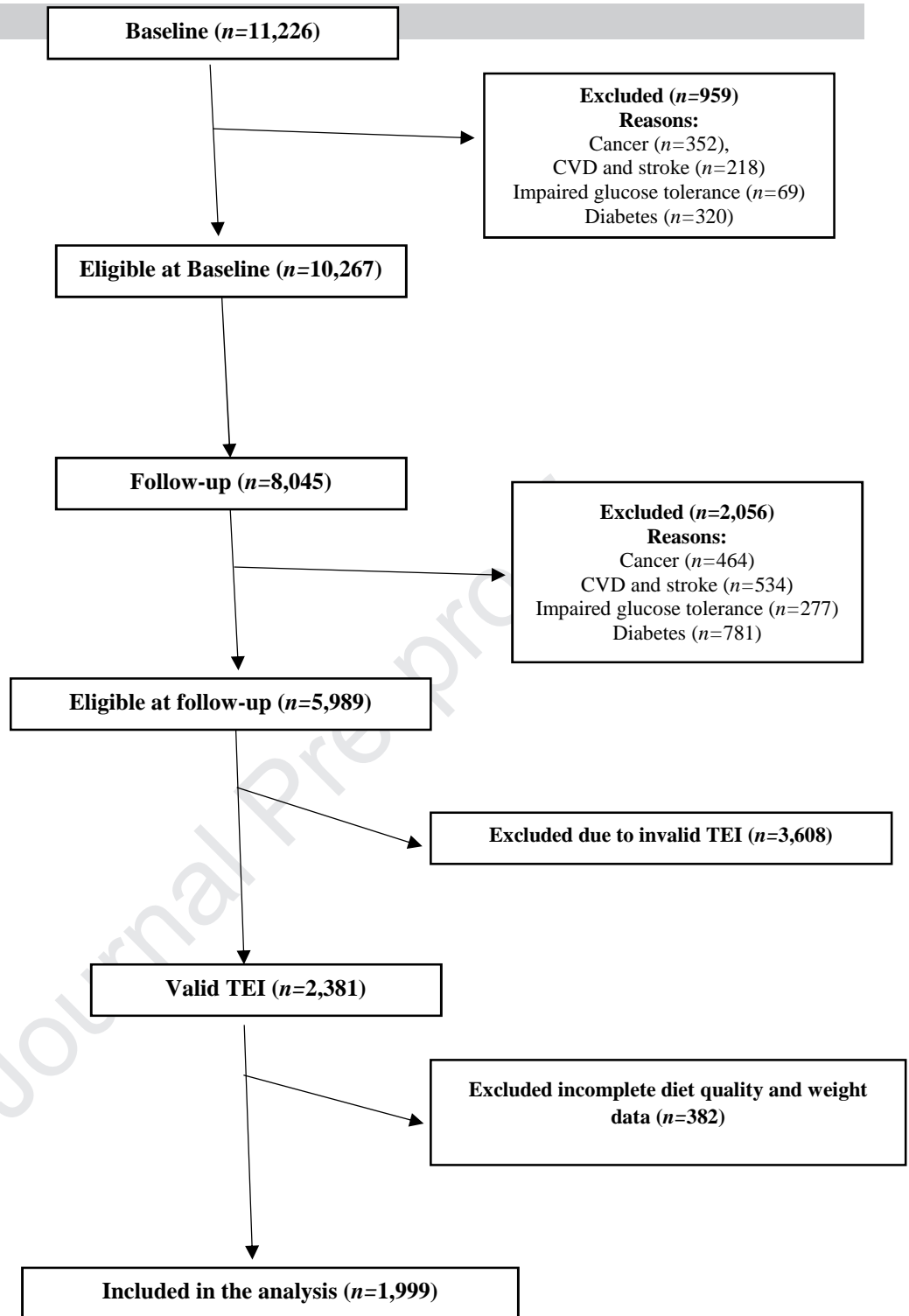


Figure 1. Flow of participants in the Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (ALSWH).
 CVD, cardiovascular disease TEI, total energy intake.

Highlights

- In western countries mid-age (45-54 years) women are at a higher risk of weight gain
- Factors that may contribute to weight gain in mid-age women include hormonal changes associated with menopause transition and changes in eating and exercising behaviours
- Improvements in diet quality are associated with less weight gain in mid-age Australian women over a nine year period
- Interventions that improve diet quality may be an effective strategy for preventing weight gain in mid-age women

Journal Pre-proof