O10 (continued)

Results: Overall, 9.1% of adults reported asthma, 28.5% had obesity, 26.1% reported no SSB intake and 14.2% reported SSB intake ≥ 2 times/day. Of the adults who consumed SSB zero to <2 times/day, 8.5%-8.7% had asthma compared to 12.1% of adults who consumed SSB ≥ 2 times/day ($p < 0.001$). SSB consumption was associated with asthma only among non-obese adults (p -for-interaction=0.01). Odds of having asthma were significantly higher among those who consumed SSB ≥ 2 times/day (adjusted odd ration (aOR)=1.92 for underweight/normal weight; aOR=1.45 for overweight) than non-ssb consumers, whereas no association was found among adults with obesity (aOR=1.13).

Conclusions and Implications: Strategies to reduce SSB intake to prevent obesity may have health benefits for asthma. However, more research is needed to understand biological mechanisms that explain the relationship between SSB and asthma and why weight status might modify it.

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O11 Total Sugar-Sweetened Beverage Intake Among US Adults Underreported When Using One Question Instead of Four Questions to Assess Intake

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Objective: Although surveys commonly use one question to assess total sugar-sweetened beverage (SSB) intake for brevity, the performance of a single question is unknown. We compared the performance of one question measuring total SSB intake to four questions measuring SSB types separately.

Design, Setting, and Participants: We used the 2014 SummerStyles online survey with 4,167 U.S. adults (≥ 18 years).

Outcome Measures and Analysis: We compared frequency of SSB intake using one question measuring total SSB consumption to frequency using a composite of four questions (regular soda, fruit drinks, sports/energy drinks, sweetened coffee/tea). We calculated mean difference between the two and used multiple linear regression to examine demographic predictors of differences. SSB intake categories were: 0, >0 - <1 , and ≥ 1 time/day. We evaluated agreement using Kappa, ranging from 0 (no agreement) to +1 (perfect agreement), and sensitivity of 1 question to identify SSB consumption ≥ 1 time/day compared to 4 questions.

Results: Mean (median) SSB intake was 0.6 (0.1) times/day using 1 question and 1.7 (1.0) times/day using 4 questions. Intake frequency based on 1 vs. 4

questions, respectively, was 38.5% vs. 16.0% for no intake, 42.5% vs. 15.6% for >0 - <1 time/day, and 18.9% vs. 68.4% for ≥ 1 time/day ($p < 0.0001$). sensitivity of 1 question was 26.3%. Kappa was 0.20 ($p < 0.0001$). mean difference in SSB consumption using 1 vs. 4 questions was -1.1 times/day. Sex, age, education, and race/ethnicity were significant predictors of this difference.

Conclusions and Implications: Estimates of daily SSB intake were lower when one question was used compared to four. Researchers should consider assessing SSB types separately when measuring total SSB intake.

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O12 Racial Differences in Household Food Purchasing Expenditures Among US Adults: Findings From NHANES

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Objective: Food purchasing has been previously linked to food access and dietary behaviors. Information about racial differences in household food purchasing dynamics is limited. The aim of this research is to examine racial differences in household food purchasing expenditures among a representative sample of US adults (≥ 19 years old).

Design, Setting, and Participants: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) data collected from 12,095 US adults (mean age: 46.6 51.1% female) between years 2009 and 2012 were analyzed. Information on race/ethnicity was self-reported by NHANES participants and categorized as Non-Hispanic White (42.1%), Non-Hispanic Black (22.2%), Hispanic (24.7%), and other race (11.0%).

Outcome Measures and Analysis: Participants were asked to report the amount of money (\$) their household spent while shopping at a grocery store, shopping at a store other than a grocery store, dining out, and purchasing carryout/delivered food items in the past 30 days. Linear regression models adjusted for age, sex, education level, household size, Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) participation, and the NHANES study design were used for analyses.

Results: After adjusting for covariates, regression models indicated that Non-Hispanic Blacks reported spending less \$ on food at grocery stores compared to Non-Hispanic Whites ($p < 0.0001$). every race/ethnic group spent significantly less than Non-Hispanic whites on dining out ($p < 0.05$ for all). only Hispanics ($p = 0.02$) and other race participants ($p < 0.0001$) spent less \$ than Non-Hispanic whites on carry out food items.

Conclusions and Implications: Racial differences in household food purchasing expenditures were observed. More research is needed to better understand the health and nutrition implications of household food purchasing dynamics.

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