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## DIETARY FACTORS MAY BE ASSOCIATED WITH MEASURES OF ULTRASOUND-DERIVED SKELETAL MUSCLE ECHO INTENSITY

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No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

### **Online supplementary material**

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

### **Data availability**

Data generated or analysed during this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

## Abstract

Skeletal muscle echo intensity (EI) is affected by ageing and physical activity; however, the effects of nutrition are less understood. The aim of this study was to explore whether habitual nutrient intake may be associated with ultrasound-derived EI. Partial least squares regression (PLSR) models were trained on an initial sample ( $n=100$ , M=45; F=55;  $38\pm 15$  years) to predict EI of two quadriceps muscles from 19 variables, using the ‘*jack-knife*’ function within the ‘*pls*’ package (RStudio), which was then tested in an additional dataset ( $n= 30$ , M=13; F=17;  $38\pm 16$  years). EI was determined using B-mode ultrasonography of the rectus femoris (RF) and vastus lateralis (VL) and nutritional intake determined via three-day weighed food diaries. Mean daily intake of specific nutrients were included as predictor variables with age, sex and self-reported physical activity. PLSR training model 1 explained ~52% and model 2 ~46% of the variance in RF and VL EI, respectively. Model 1 also explained ~35% and model 2 ~30% of the variance in RF and VL EI in the additional testing dataset. Age and biological sex were associated with EI in both models ( $P<0.025$ ). Dietary protein (RF:  $\beta=-7.617$ , VL:  $\beta=-7.480$ ), and selenium (RF:  $\beta=-7.144$ , VL:  $\beta=-4.775$ ) were associated with EI in both muscles ( $P<0.05$ ), whereas fibre intake (RF:  $\beta=-5.215$ ) was associated with RF EI only and omega-3 fatty acids (n-3/ $\omega$ -3 FAs, RF:  $\beta=3.145$ ) with VL EI only ( $P<0.05$ ). Therefore, absolute protein, selenium, fibre and n-3 FAs may be associated with skeletal muscle EI, although further mechanistic work is required before claiming causal inference.

## 1 Introduction

2 The composition of skeletal muscle is widely accepted as a contributing factor to muscle  
3 quality (Correa-de-Araujo et al., 2017), now defined as the macro- and microscopic aspects of  
4 muscle architecture and composition (Cruz-Jentoft et al., 2019). These properties are associated  
5 with skeletal muscle functional performance, particularly in older populations with some data  
6 supporting similar relationships in younger people (Garrett, 2020). Discrepancies in the rate of  
7 decline in muscle mass and strength with age have previously been reported, which could be  
8 partly attributed to variability in muscle quality (Delmonico et al., 2009, Goodpaster et al.,  
9 2001). This has led to the recent incorporation of muscle quality into clinical definitions for  
10 age-related conditions, such as sarcopenia (Cruz-Jentoft et al., 2019).

11 Accumulation of fibrous and intramuscular adipose tissue (IMAT) reduces the proportion of  
12 contractile tissue within the muscle and alters architectural parameters, such as fascicle  
13 pennation angle (Addison et al., 2014a). Subsequently, IMAT accumulation has been  
14 associated with reduced maximal strength (Goodpaster et al., 2001, Manini et al., 2007, Pinel  
15 et al., 2021) and neuromuscular activation in both young and older adults (Yoshida et al., 2012,  
16 Lanza et al., 2020) as well as measures of reduced functional capacity such as gait speed, hand  
17 grip strength (Therkelsen et al., 2016), poor balance (Addison et al., 2014b) and increased risk  
18 of falls (Vitale et al., 2021) in ageing populations. This highlights the importance of  
19 establishing non-invasive techniques for assessing IMAT accumulation, particularly in  
20 populations at greater risk of age-related musculoskeletal conditions such as sarcopenia.

21 Ultrasound-derived echo intensity (EI) has been gaining interest as an easily accessible and  
22 low-cost measure of skeletal muscle quality, with growing discussions of the potential clinical  
23 applications (Isaka et al., 2019, Nagae et al., 2021, Akazawa et al., 2023). EI is the appearance  
24 of non-contractile material, such as adipose and fibrous tissue, in muscle ultrasound images  
25 that contribute to varying levels of echogenicity, quantified as mean gray-scale pixel intensity  
26 within a defined region of interest (Stock and Thompson, 2021). It is well established that EI  
27 is impacted by age, as muscle quality deteriorates across time due to fibrous and IMAT  
28 accumulation (Pillen et al., 2009). This has been demonstrated in both older men and women  
29 across various muscle groups in the upper-limbs (Fukumoto et al., 2015, Kobayashi et al.,  
30 2023), lower-limbs (Arts et al., 2010, Fukumoto et al., 2015, Strasser et al., 2013, Palmer and  
31 Thompson, 2017, Paris et al., 2020) and the trunk (Fukumoto et al., 2015, Ota et al., 2020).  
32 Similar to IMAT accumulation, EI inversely correlates with maximal muscle strength (Kuschel

33 et al., 2022) and functional measures, such as sit-stand and gait speed tests (Rech et al., 2014,  
34 Wu et al., 2022, Paris et al., 2022). However, regular physical activity has been reported to help  
35 reduce skeletal muscle EI in both aged (Fukumoto et al., 2018) and clinical populations (Okura  
36 et al., 2022). Multiple intervention studies have found that six-months of resistance training  
37 can reduce muscle EI, thereby improving muscle quality (Radaelli et al., 2013, Radaelli et al.,  
38 2014, Wilhelm et al., 2014, Yoshiko et al., 2017). These findings have established that exercise-  
39 induced mechanical stress can positively impact EI, but little is known about the effects of  
40 nutrition.

41 The effects of dietary intake on skeletal muscle mass and strength/function are well established  
42 (Cruz-Jentoft et al., 2020). While not all studies agree, greater dietary protein intake has been  
43 associated with greater muscle mass and maximal strength, particularly in older populations  
44 (Sahni et al., 2015). Studies have shown that postmenopausal women consuming  $\geq 1.2$  g/kg/d  
45 of protein exhibited greater maximal strength and superior muscle quality, assessed via  
46 maximal quadriceps strength normalised to muscle mass, compared with individuals  
47 consuming 0.8 g/kg/d (Lemieux et al., 2014). Meta-analytical work has also shown that  
48 interventions increasing habitual fat intake may result in greater IMAT accumulation across  
49 multiple lower-limb muscles, including the vastus lateralis (VL), tibialis anterior and soleus  
50 (Ahmed et al., 2018). These studies provide an early insight into the potential influence of  
51 nutritional intake on skeletal muscle quality. It is also clear, however, that currently there is not  
52 enough existing evidence for researchers and clinicians to provide nutritional recommendations  
53 relating to preservation of muscle quality in clinical populations, such as older individuals ( $\geq$   
54 65 years of age). Identification of specific nutrients that can elicit beneficial effects on skeletal  
55 muscle quality could inform nutritional interventions to target the prevention and management  
56 of age-related skeletal muscle diseases such as sarcopenia.

57 Given that nutritional interventions are a common and feasible method for improving overall  
58 health, including skeletal muscle adaptation to exercise and ageing, it is important to determine  
59 whether parameters of, non-invasively measured, EI-derived muscle quality may be influenced  
60 by habitual dietary intake, which is yet to be investigated. Indeed, any dietary factors associated  
61 with skeletal muscle EI could provide a feasible alternative strategy to prevent declines in  
62 muscle mass, quality and function in clinical populations, particularly in cases where regular  
63 resistance exercise may be challenging. This study aspired to provide the basis for future  
64 research bridging a significant gap in the existing literature that could lead to the development  
65 of more refined and effective nutritional guidelines related to clinical populations (such as in

66 sarcopenia) and for the exploration of potential targeted nutritional interventions for  
67 preservation of skeletal muscle quality in older populations. Therefore, the aim of this study  
68 was to explore whether habitual intake of specific dietary nutrients may be associated with  
69 skeletal muscle EI as a marker of muscle quality.

## 70 **Methods**

### 71 **Participants**

72 One hundred and thirty participants ( $n = 58$  males;  $n = 72$  females; 93 % Caucasian, 3 % Asian,  
73 2 % Mixed White and Asian, 2 % Other) were randomly selected from the existing sample  
74 recruited as part of the ongoing Omnivorous and Non-meat eater Integrative Physiology and  
75 Nutrition (OMNIPLaNT) study. The data presented in the current study were collated as part  
76 of a wider cross-sectional observational study investigating the effects of dietary patterns on a  
77 number of physiological markers of skeletal muscle, bone and vascular health. Random  
78 selection bared a sample comprised of individuals following a range of dietary patterns ( $n =$   
79 130, omnivores = 48, vegetarians = 18, vegans = 49, pescatarians = 5, flexitarians = 10).  
80 Participants were eligible to take part in the study providing they had no history of chronic  
81 disease, were not using prescribed medication and had not sustained a lower-limb injury in the  
82 preceding six-months. To assess 'real-world' habitual diet, all dietary supplements were  
83 permitted and recorded during the study duration. Further, exclusion criteria included a history  
84 of smoking (including vaping), excessive alcohol/drug use, or alterations to habitual dietary  
85 pattern in the two-years prior to recruitment. All participants provided written informed consent  
86 prior to taking part in the study, which was approved by the Faculty of Science and Engineering  
87 Research Ethics Committee, Swansea University (Approval Number: JP\_24-06-21b). This  
88 study complied with the declaration of Helsinki 2013, apart from pre-registration.

### 90 **Design**

91 Following an initial screening telephone interview to establish inclusion/exclusion criteria, all  
92 participants attended the Swansea University Applied Sports, Technology, Exercise and  
93 Medicine (A-STEM) laboratory on two occasions. For their first visit, participants avoided  
94 exercise for 24 h prior, in line with previous research indicating that muscle EI values return to  
95 baseline ~24 h post-resistance exercise (Yitzchaki et al., 2020). They were asked to abstain  
96 from water consumption from waking until their arrival in the lab but were permitted to drink

97 small amounts of water once they had arrived. Muscle quality was measured as B-mode  
98 ultrasound-derived EI in the rectus femoris (RF) and VL, with physical activity levels self-  
99 reported via the Baecke physical activity questionnaire (Baecke et al., 1982). Participants were  
100 provided with a three-day food diary and a standardised set of weighing scales to record exact  
101 quantities of all food and drink consumed during this period. The diaries were returned upon  
102 their second visit to the laboratory and participants underwent an interview with a member of  
103 the research team to discuss and clarify all entries.

104

#### 105 Skeletal muscle echo intensity

106 Participants lay in the supine position with the right leg fully extended for assessment of  
107 skeletal muscle EI. B-mode ultrasound images (4-15 MHz linear array transducer, MyLab9,  
108 Esaote, Genoa, Italy) were taken of the RF with the transducer held in a transverse orientation.  
109 The image site was standardised at the mid-thigh, defined as 60% of the manually measured  
110 distance between the anterior superior iliac spine and the superior border of the patella, which  
111 were identified via palpation. For VL EI, panoramic B-mode images were taken at 50% of the  
112 muscle length, determined as the distance between the muscle origin at the greater trochanter  
113 and the insertion at the patellar tendon, identified using ultrasound imaging. Ultrasound  
114 parameters such as the gain (50%, 20 dB), dynamic range (12, 62 dB) and time-gain-  
115 compensation, were standardised between scans and participants. Probe tilt also remained  
116 constant throughout the study, whilst ensuring minimal skin pressure. Image depth and focal  
117 position were altered when required to achieve the optimal image. The same experienced  
118 sonographer, with >5 years of experience, performed all ultrasound assessments and  
119 subsequent data processing. Test-retest reliability of both RF and VL EI were determined from  
120 repeat scans of eight participants and coefficient of variation (CV) calculated as  
121  $(SD*1.96)/mean*100$  (Reeves et al., 2004). The CV for RF EI was 7.55% and for VL EI was  
122 7.27%, similar to previous studies (Caresio et al., 2015).

123 Each ultrasound image was initially processed using ImageJ software (NIH ImageJ, version  
124 1.53a, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, USA). Analysis was performed using the  
125 polygon function and a large region of interest (ROI) was drawn within the muscle belly, with  
126 no encroachment of the aponeurosis (Figure 1). Raw EI was determined using the histogram  
127 function, ranging between 0 and 255 A.U. (black = 0, white = 255) and EI was taken from the  
128 mean of three images. Subcutaneous fat thickness (cm) was calculated as the distance between



129 the lower border of the skin layer and the upper border of the aponeurosis, using the straight-  
130 line function in ImageJ (Figure 1). Mean subcutaneous fat thickness was calculated from  
131 measurements at three sites in each image (left, right and centre) and EI correction was  
132 performed using a previously published correction factor equation (Young et al., 2015):

$$\text{corrected EI} = \text{raw EI} + (\text{subcutaneous fat thickness [cm]}) \times 40.5278$$

134 *Insert Figure 1 here.*

### 135 Habitual dietary intake

136 Three-day weighed food diaries were used to determine habitual nutrient intake. All  
137 participants were shown an instructional video and verbal demonstration during visit one, in  
138 which they were asked to weigh and record all food and drink consumption across two  
139 weekdays and one weekend day (in addition to viewing in the lab, all participants were also  
140 given 24 h access to the instructional video). Participants were clearly instructed to follow their  
141 habitual diet and were specifically reminded not to deviate from their usual food choices.  
142 Details within each food diary were fully discussed with a member of the research team upon  
143 their return to ensure accuracy for later analysis.

144 Scales were accurate to 0.1 g (Superior mini-Digital Kitchen Scale, CHWARES, Guangzhou,  
145 China). Participants were further instructed to record all cooking methods and the mass of  
146 leftovers. In cases where bespoke recipes were curated, participants were asked to record the  
147 mass of each raw ingredient, along with the cooking method and then provide a final mass of  
148 the portion consumed from the recipe. All drinks and any food supplements were also recorded  
149 within the food diary.

150 Food diary analysis was conducted using an online dietary analysis software (Nutritics,  
151 Research Edition, v5.83, Dublin, Ireland). All foods were selected from one of three databases,  
152 the 'UK McCance and Widdowson 2015', 'Nutritics-sourced Foods, Supplements and  
153 Additives' or the 'GS1 Brandbank Live Feed'. A hierarchical structure was developed and  
154 systematically followed for selection of food products (Figure 2). This protocol consisted of a  
155 primary preference for the UK McCance and Widdowson database (McCance and Widdowson,  
156 2014), if food products were not retrievable from this database or nutrient data were  
157 incomplete, foods were then carefully selected from 'Nutritics-sourced Foods, Supplements  
158 and Additives' or finally from 'GS1 Brandbank Live Feed'. Records were made and the  
159 protocol was followed consistently across all participants and throughout the study period. In

160 cases where full nutrient data were not available in any database, details were requested from  
 161 the manufacturer. Any data received were then combined with the closest matching food  
 162 product (with full nutrient data available) from McCance and Widdowson and label data to  
 163 create a new food. Once a new food product had been created within the software, it could then  
 164 be re-used for consistency between participants. In cases where data were not available from  
 165 the manufacturer, nutritional information from the closest matching food item in the McCance  
 166 and Widdowson database were either combined with incomplete data from one of the  
 167 secondary databases or product label data to form a new food item.

168 *Insert Figure 2 here.*

169 To assess the accuracy of dietary intake data, the Goldberg cut-off method was used to identify  
 170 potential misreporters of total energy intake (Black, 2000). Participants were deemed to be  
 171 under-, over- or plausible reporters based on the ratio of energy intake to estimates of basal  
 172 metabolic rate (BMR). Schofield equations were used to estimate age- and biological sex-  
 173 specific BMR using individual stature and body mass data. European Food Safety Authority  
 174 (EFSA) recommended physical activity level (PAL) of 1.6 was used in the equations to  
 175 represent a moderately active sample (European Food Safety Authority, 2013). Finally,  
 176 Goldberg cut-offs were then estimated using following recommended equations:

$$177 \quad \text{Lower cut-off: } \text{Energy Intake:BMR} > \text{PAL} \times \exp \left[ SD_{\min} \times \frac{S/100}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

$$178 \quad \text{Upper cut-off: } \text{Energy Intake:BMR} < \text{PAL} \times \exp \left[ SD_{\max} \times \frac{S/100}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

179 where  $SD$  (standard deviation) is 2,  $S$  is the factor accounting for variation in energy intake,  
 180 BMR and PAL, and  $n$  is the number of participants in the sample.

181 Individuals with an energy intake:BMR ratio outside of the cut-offs were deemed to be energy  
 182 misreporters. Whilst it has been recommended that misreporters should not be removed from  
 183 statistical analyses (European Food Safety Authority, 2013), subsequent sensitivity analyses of  
 184 the statistical models were performed excluding these individuals to confirm their accuracy.

## 185 Statistical analysis

187 All statistical analyses were carried out using RStudio (version 12.0, 2022, RStudio, Inc.  
 188 software, Boston, MA). Participant characteristics and habitual nutrient intakes, including

189 model predictors, are presented as means, SDs and ranges in Table 1. Partial least squares  
190 regression (PLSR) models were performed using the ‘*pls*’ package (R script provided in  
191 Supplementary file S1). Given that most predictor variables were mean daily macro- and  
192 micronutrient intakes, which increases the likelihood of co-linearity between variables, the use  
193 of a PLSR model was deemed appropriate, as this is not an assumption of this model. In brief,  
194 the orthogonal construction of new principal components that comprise different linear  
195 combinations of predictor variables reduces the threat of co-linearity to the regression model  
196 (Wold et al., 2001). In addition to overcoming co-linearity, PLSR is also capable of maintaining  
197 statistical power with relatively small sample sizes (Hair et al., 2021). The sample size ( $n =$   
198 130) was deemed appropriate for the analysis in line with the minimum sample size determined  
199 via the inverse square root approach (Hair et al., 2021). This was performed based on a  
200 conservative estimated path coefficient of 0.3, 80 % power and a Bonferroni adjusted alpha  
201 level of 0.025 which returned an estimated minimum sample size of  $n = 106$ . Each model was  
202 utilised to explain the variance ( $R^2$ ) in the response variables (RF EI; model 1, and VL EI;  
203 model 2) from 19 predictors (Table 1). The number of components was based on minimisation  
204 of the root mean squared error of the prediction (RMSEP) and maximisation of the  $R^2$  values  
205 following  $k$ -fold cross-validation ( $k = 10$ ). This was carried out using the ‘*onesigma*’ function  
206 within the ‘*pls*’ package, which calculates the lowest number of components that minimises  
207 the cross-validation prediction error within one standard error of the overall best available  
208 model (Hair et al., 2021). The contribution of each predictor variable to the model was then  
209 assessed using the ‘*jack-knife*’ function in RStudio. The predictive performance of both models  
210 was assessed using a separate test dataset ( $n = 30$ ), not included in the original sample, that was  
211 used to train the models. This dataset was employed to predict skeletal muscle EI, with  
212 predictive accuracy determined by comparison with the actual EI values. To account for  
213 multiple comparisons made between PLSR models 1 and 2, and to thereby reduce the risk of  
214 type one errors, a Bonferroni adjustment was applied to the significance level reducing from  
215 the original 0.05 to 0.025.

216 *Insert Table 1 here.*

## 217 **Results**

218 The PLSR model 1 for RF EI contained two components based on the RMSEP minimisation  
219 and  $R^2$  maximisation within the  $k$ -fold cross validation, using the ‘*onesigma*’ analysis (Table  
220 2). The RMSEP was 30.4 A.U. and the model explained ~52 % of the variance in RF EI. Model

221 2 also contained two components following the ‘*onesigma*’ analysis (Table 2), the RMSEP was  
222 31.8 A.U. and the model explained ~46 % of the variance in VL EI.

223 *Insert Table 2 here.*

224 The contribution of predictors to each model is described in Table 2. Non-diet related factors  
225 including age, self-reported physical activity and biological sex were amongst the largest  
226 contributors to EI in the RF and VL. Age was positively associated with EI in both muscles,  
227 indicating poorer muscle quality in older individuals, whereas physical activity scores were  
228 inversely associated, which indicates better muscle quality in more active individuals. Females  
229 were selected as the reference for biological sex in both models, which was positively  
230 associated with EI indicating poorer muscle quality in females compared with males. Daily  
231 absolute protein and selenium intake were inversely associated with EI in both muscles,  
232 whereas dietary fibre intake was inversely associated with the RF (but not the VL) and omega-  
233 3 fatty acids (n-3 FAs) positively with VL EI only.

234 The group mean ratio for energy intake:BMR was 1.354 which was not within the Goldberg  
235 cut-off values at group level of 1.545-1.657, suggesting that the sample in the current study  
236 may have underestimated dietary intake. Individually, 27 % of participants were deemed to be  
237 energy misreporters (25 under- and 2 over-reporters) with energy intake:BMR ratios outside of  
238 the individual Goldberg cut-offs of 1.129-2.268. The sensitivity analysis excluding these  
239 participants ( $n = 73$ ) revealed similar results to the original analysis. Most of the significant  
240 predictors from the original analysis were maintained following removal of energy  
241 misreporters. Age (RF:  $\beta = 10.451$ ,  $P = 0.03$ , VL:  $\beta = 9.661$ ,  $P = 0.03$ ) and biological sex (RF:  
242  $\beta = 14.949$ ,  $P = 0.01$ , VL:  $\beta = 13.688$ ,  $P = 0.03$ ) remained significant predictors in both muscles.  
243 Dietary protein ( $\beta = -7.599$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , VL:  $\beta = -7.321$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ), fibre (RF:  $\beta = -4.502$ ,  $P =$   
244  $0.01$ , VL:  $\beta = -5.414$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ) and selenium ( $\beta = -7.429$ ,  $P = 0.01$ , VL:  $\beta = -5.556$ ,  $P = 0.05$ )  
245 were also significant for both muscles, with n-3 FAs no longer a significant predictor of EI in  
246 the VL but did reach statistical significance in the RF (RF:  $\beta = 3.013$ ,  $P = 0.04$ ; VL:  $P = 0.11$ ).

247 The proportion of the variance in EI that was explained in the additional testing dataset was  
248 35.4 % and 30.3 % in model 1 (RMSEP = 38.12 A.U, mean absolute error = 26.83 A.U) and  
249 model 2 (RMSEP = 36.04 A.U, mean absolute error = 27.90 A.U), respectively.

250

251

## 252 Discussion

253 The aim of the current study was to explore the potential effects of habitual daily nutrient intake  
254 on EI of two quadriceps muscles. PLSR models were able to explain ~52% and ~46% of the  
255 variance in RF and VL EI, respectively. In addition, the predictive capacity of both models was  
256 assessed on an additional testing dataset ( $n = 30$ ) which demonstrated that model 1 explained  
257 ~35 % and model 2 ~30 % of the variance in EI in the RF and VL, respectively. These  
258 preliminary findings are the first to show that diet-related factors (absolute protein, selenium,  
259 fibre and n-3 FAs) could be associated with skeletal muscle EI, as a measure of overall muscle  
260 quality. It is important to note, however, that the current study is the first exploratory analysis  
261 and further work is required before any inference of causality and to fully elucidate any  
262 potential mechanisms. Nevertheless, four dietary predictors were revealed as being  
263 significantly associated across both models, irrespective of the concurrent inclusion of non-diet  
264 related factors, which are previously established contributors to skeletal muscle EI. It is  
265 noteworthy that, on average, individuals in this sample generally consumed adequate quantities  
266 of these nutrients within the context of reference nutrient intakes (RNI). For example, the  
267 reference intakes for dietary protein, 0.75 g/kg/BM/d (SACN, 2012), fibre, 30 g/d (SACN,  
268 2014), and n-3 FAs, 1.1 – 1.6 g/d (Trumbo et al., 2002), were all achieved or surpassed on  
269 average in the current study, whereas dietary selenium (60 – 75 µg/d) intake was slightly low  
270 (Department of Health, 1991).

271 Total absolute daily protein intake was inversely associated with EI and was highlighted as a  
272 potential predictor across both muscles within the context of the current analysis. It is well  
273 established that dietary protein has a key role in net muscle protein balance via its role as a  
274 potent stimulus for myofibrillar protein synthesis (MPS) (Witard et al., 2014). Postprandial  
275 hyperaminoacidaemia, and subsequent delivery and uptake into skeletal muscle, increases MPS  
276 rates (Pennings et al., 2012). It is plausible, therefore, that those consuming greater quantities  
277 of dietary protein in the current study were better able to maintain a positive net protein balance  
278 (Pennings et al., 2012) via chronic, transient mammalian target of rapamycin complex one  
279 (mTORC1) pathway-mediated stimulation of MPS (Cuthbertson et al., 2005). It is well  
280 established that stimulation of MPS to exceed the levels of myofibrillar protein breakdown  
281 (MPB), typically induced via resistance exercise in conjunction with dietary protein ingestion,  
282 initiates the positive net protein balance that results in skeletal muscle hypertrophy (or mass  
283 maintenance) over time (Phillips et al., 2005). Given the relationship between skeletal muscle  
284 EI and muscle thickness, as a measure of muscle contractile area (Akima et al., 2017), it seems

285 logical that a shift towards greater contractile material over time could partially explain the  
286 potential relationship between dietary protein intake and the echogenicity of the quadriceps  
287 skeletal muscles observed in the current study. However, due to the exploratory and  
288 observational nature of the current study it is not possible to claim causal inference from these  
289 findings and any potential mechanistic explanations are, at this moment, speculative. Whilst  
290 this is, to the authors' knowledge, the first study to directly investigate, and report upon, the  
291 potential relationship between EI and dietary protein intake, these findings are supported by  
292 previous research. Analysis of supplementary data files from a previous study assessing the  
293 relationship between muscle mass and ultrasound-derived quality also revealed an inverse  
294 linear relationship between daily protein intake, assessed via three-day weighed food diaries,  
295 and ultrasound-derived RF EI, albeit not reported directly in the manuscript (see  
296 Supplementary File S2) (Johnson et al., 2021).

297 In a similar manner to the inverse relationship reported with dietary protein intake, dietary  
298 selenium was also negatively associated with EI across both the RF and VL muscles in the  
299 current study and with similarly large estimates. This is important as the mean selenium intake  
300 across this sample (51  $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ ) was slightly lower than the UK RNI (Department of Health, 1991).  
301 This was confirmed via a post hoc Z-test ( $P < 0.05$ , data not shown) and could have occurred  
302 due to variable availability of selenium data in food composition tables. To the authors  
303 knowledge, no study has assessed the effects of dietary selenium intake on measures of muscle  
304 quality. However, the potential 'myoprotective' effects of selenium against conditions such as  
305 sarcopenia have been tentatively alluded to. For example, case-control studies have shown that  
306 individuals with low dietary selenium intake and serum selenium concentrations exhibit lower  
307 skeletal muscle mass and a greater risk of sarcopenia diagnosis (Verlaan et al., 2017, Chen et  
308 al., 2014). The mechanistic underpinnings of these findings are poorly understood; however,  
309 previous research has considered that selenium may have an indirect effect on skeletal muscle  
310 mass, as it can facilitate the secretion of anabolic hormones such as insulin-like growth factor  
311 1 (IGF-1) (Karl et al., 2009, Maggio et al., 2010). Whilst high consumption of dietary selenium  
312 can cause toxicity and has been shown to have an inhibitory effect on IGF-1 concentrations in  
313 rats (Grønbaek et al., 1995), the group mean intake of selenium in the current study was notably  
314 lower than both the tolerable upper intake limit of 400  $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$  reported for humans (Risher, 2011)  
315 and current UK RNI values (Department of Health, 1991). Given the role of IGF-1 in the  
316 mTORC1 pathway for MPS (Barclay et al., 2019), it is possible that habitual dietary selenium  
317 may have a similar effect to protein on EI, by facilitating maintenance of contractile material

318 over time. However, circulating concentrations of IGF-1 were not assessed in the current study  
319 and therefore this theory can only be speculative. Indeed, the mean age of the current sample  
320 was 38 years and any potential effects of IGF-1 on skeletal muscle properties would be more  
321 likely to occur in older populations (Van Nieuwpoort et al., 2018). Further research should  
322 therefore be considered to investigate the potential association between dietary selenium and  
323 skeletal muscle EI, as well as any potential underlying mechanisms via effects on IGF-1  
324 concentrations. Despite this, selenium and protein intake were the strongest dietary predictors  
325 of EI in the current study, and it is possible that their effects are, at least in part, synergistic.  
326 For example, dietary sources rich in selenium such as meat and fish are also high quality protein  
327 sources, and dietary protein intake is also positively associated with circulating IGF-1  
328 concentrations (Bihuniak and Insogna, 2015).

329 Other dietary factors that were associated with muscle EI in the current study, albeit to a lesser  
330 extent, were n-3 FA ( $\beta = 2.223$ ) and there was a trend towards dietary fibre ( $\beta = -5.215$ ,  $P =$   
331  $0.034$ ) intake, although this did not reach statistical significance following the Bonferroni  
332 adjustment. This was not consistent across both muscles, with the direction of the associations  
333 and the effect sizes differing between the potential predictors. The trend towards fibre intake  
334 as a potential contributor to the model highlighted an inverse association with RF EI (as well  
335 as the VL following the sensitivity analysis), which is congruent with previous cross-sectional  
336 research, potentially suggesting a beneficial effect on skeletal muscle mass in older adults.  
337 Higher amounts of dietary fibre intake had greater skeletal muscle mass index (appendicular  
338 lean mass relative to body mass), independent of physical activity and protein consumption  
339 (Montiel-Rojas et al., 2020). Further, relative total body lean mass and relative appendicular  
340 lean mass are positively associated with dietary fibre intake among individuals aged 40 years  
341 and above (Frampton et al., 2021). Whilst exact mechanisms are yet to be elucidated, it has  
342 been speculated that there are beneficial effects on the gut microbiome, resulting in reduced  
343 circulating myodegenerative inflammation, which may lead to greater MPS rates in those  
344 consuming fibre in greater quantities (Jiao et al., 2015). Notably, however, dietary fibre did not  
345 reach statistical significance following the Bonferroni adjustment suggesting the potential for  
346 a type one error owing to the multiple comparisons drawn in the current statistical analysis.  
347 Alternatively, this could also be explained by the inclusion of dietary fibre with numerous  
348 heavily weighted predictor variables (such as age, biological sex and dietary protein),  
349 indicating that it may have been overpowered by other variables included in the model. Further

350 research should therefore be conducted in order to investigate the potential relationship  
351 between dietary fibre and skeletal muscle EI.

352 n-3 FAs were positively associated with VL EI in the current study, which perhaps diverges  
353 from conventional thought that supplementing with n-3 FAs may have beneficial effects on  
354 muscle health (Smith, 2016). Supplementation with long-chain n-3 FAs has been shown to  
355 ameliorate postprandial MPS rates, via enhanced mTORC1 pathway signalling, in response to  
356 amino acid ingestion (Smith et al., 2011). This could explain gains in thigh muscle volume  
357 observed in a follow-up study, which occurred concomitantly with a reduction in IMAT  
358 infiltration, reported in both older men and women following six months of supplementation  
359 (Smith et al., 2015). This considered, it might be expected that habitual n-3 FA intake would  
360 have had an inverse relationship with muscle EI; however, this was not the case in the current  
361 exploratory analysis. There appears to be a lack of evidence to support or explain this positive  
362 relationship between n-3 FAs and muscle EI. However, it is possible that a combination of  
363 short- and long-chain n-3 FAs co-ingested as part of the habitual diet does not have the same  
364 beneficial effect that has been observed in previous studies supplementing with long-chain  
365 FAs, only. Indeed, mean habitual intake of long chain n-3 FAs such as eicosapentaenoic ( $0.02$   
366  $\pm 0.08$  g/d) and docosahexaenoic acid ( $0.05 \pm 0.14$  g/d) estimated via the three-day weighed  
367 food diaries in the current study provide an indication of co-ingestion with short-chain n-3 FAs  
368 such as alpha linoleic acid ( $0.32 \pm 0.41$  g/d), as would be expected from the habitual diet. In  
369 addition, in the sensitivity analysis, that excluded energy misreporters, n-3 FAs were no longer  
370 a significant predictor of EI in the VL, but were for the RF. This highlights the need for further  
371 research to investigate this potential relationship, perhaps using alternative research design to  
372 accurately demonstrate a cause-effect relationship.

373 Considering the breadth of existing evidence, it is unsurprising that age, self-reported physical  
374 activity and biological sex were revealed to be associated with skeletal muscle EI. Whilst there  
375 have been some inconsistencies in certain muscle groups (Paris et al., 2021), lower-limb  
376 muscles have been consistently reported to have greater skeletal muscle EI in older individuals  
377 across studies, including in the current exploratory analysis (Fukumoto et al., 2015, Strasser et  
378 al., 2013, Palmer and Thompson, 2017). Previous research also supports the findings that  
379 physical activity predicts EI, with inverse relationships between variables, as reported in the  
380 current study (Osawa et al., 2017). In a four-year longitudinal study, a reduction in quadriceps  
381 EI was reported among older individuals categorised into high self-reported physical activity  
382 levels ( $\geq$  twice per week) compared to a low physical activity control group ( $\leq$  once per week)



383 (Fukumoto et al., 2018). Likewise, biological sex was also associated with EI, with females  
384 exhibiting higher values compared with males in the current study. This is congruent with  
385 previous research, demonstrating higher EI, across a range of muscles, in both younger (Arts  
386 et al., 2010, Mangine et al., 2014, Akagi et al., 2018) and older (Arts et al., 2010, Akagi et al.,  
387 2018, Kawai et al., 2018) females compared to males.

388 The findings of the current study are restricted to the variables included in each model. Four  
389 nutrients were associated with EI in the RF, VL or both, notwithstanding their inclusion with  
390 variables that are well-established to influence EI. If the dietary predictors contributed less to  
391 EI than revealed in the present results, this would have resulted in them being overpowered by  
392 age, physical activity and biological sex. This may explain, at least in part, the discrepancies  
393 observed between quadriceps muscles in nutritional factors associated with EI, with dietary  
394 fibre and n-3 FAs offering only a smaller contribution to each model it is possible that they  
395 were overpowered by the stronger predictors. It is, however, accepted that there are other  
396 variables that could potentially influence muscle EI, such as genetic factors, that were not  
397 incorporated within the models. The inclusion of a strength measurement in the current study,  
398 for example, could have explained a greater proportion of the variance in skeletal muscle EI  
399 than observed in the current analysis and should therefore be investigated in any potential  
400 future studies (Bali et al., 2020).

401 Inherent limitations associated with dietary assessment tools may have influenced the  
402 nutritional intake values observed in the current analysis. The accuracy of three-day weighed  
403 food records has specifically been questioned as they may not be totally representative of an  
404 individual's habitual diet and are subject to a potential Hawthorne effect (Thompson and Subar,  
405 2017). However, prospective recording of dietary intake is typically regarded as a more  
406 accurate method of assessment compared to alternative techniques such as food frequency  
407 questionnaires and diet recall, owing to the reduced reliance on memory recall (Yang et al.,  
408 2010, Crawford et al., 1994). Weighed food records are therefore often employed as a reference  
409 tool when validating alternative dietary assessment techniques (Mueller-Stierlin et al., 2021).  
410 Furthermore, whilst it was traditionally thought that seven day weighed food records should be  
411 considered the 'gold standard', more recent recommendations allude to recording periods less  
412 than four days to reduce the risk of participant fatigue and subsequent reductions in recorded  
413 dietary intake that may occur as a result (Thompson and Subar, 2017). Previous research has  
414 shown that assessments across two weekdays and one weekend day can provide appropriate  
415 representation of habitual diet (Fyfe et al., 2010).

416 In addition, the findings of the current analysis should be interpreted with appropriate levels of  
 417 caution owing to the observational and cross-sectional nature. The present data should be  
 418 interpreted within the context of the sample and analysis conducted to identify potential  
 419 relationships between nutritional factors and skeletal muscle EI, that require subsequent  
 420 follow-up investigation to discern any potential mechanistic underpinning. Despite this, the  
 421 findings of this preliminary, exploratory study highlight potential associations between specific  
 422 nutrients and EI for future consideration by clinicians and researchers alike.

423 In conclusion, the findings from this exploratory study suggest, for the first time, that diet-  
 424 related factors such as daily intake of dietary protein, selenium, fibre and n-3 FAs *may* be  
 425 associated with skeletal muscle EI. Whole food products such as meat, fish and poultry as well  
 426 as fresh fruits and vegetables are good dietary sources of these nutrients, and habitual  
 427 consumption of a well-balanced combination of these products are typically recommended in  
 428 dietary guidelines. Due to the exploratory nature of the current study, the exact mechanisms  
 429 underpinning these findings are currently speculative, therefore future work should seek to  
 430 elucidate the potential role of the specific nutrients and further develop understanding of the  
 431 potential effects of nutritional predictors on ultrasound-derived measures of skeletal muscle  
 432 quality.

#### 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 440 441 442 443 444 445 446 447 448 449 450 451

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700 **Figure 1.** Example from a participants' B-mode ultrasound image of the rectus femoris in the  
701 transverse plane (top left) and panoramic image of the vastus lateralis (top right) for assessment  
702 of skeletal muscle echo intensity together with the corresponding gray-scale pixel intensity  
703 histograms (below each image). Yellow dashed lines represent the region of interest used to  
704 determine echo intensity within the muscle belly. Red dashed lines indicate the borders of the  
705 dermal layer (top line) and the muscle aponeurosis (bottom line), and the red arrows represent  
706 the subcutaneous fat layer. Rectus Femoris, RF; Vastus Lateralis, VL; Vastus Intermedius VI.

707

708 **Figure 2.** Hierarchical structure for food diary analysis conducted in the online dietary analysis  
709 software Nutritics (nutritics.com). Food items listed in the three-day weighed food diaries are  
710 primarily selected from the UK McCance and Widdowson database. In cases where a food item  
711 is not present in this database foods were carefully selected from either the ‘Nutritics-sourced  
712 Foods, Supplements and Additives’ or the ‘GS1 Brandbank Live Feed’ databases. If a food  
713 item was not present in any of the selected databases, with full nutritional information  
714 available, details were either requested from the manufacturer or information was combined  
715 between two sources to produce a new food item. Once a new food item had been created,  
716 records were kept for re-use across participants.

717

**Table 1.** Participant characteristics and predictor variables in the training ( $n = 100$ ) and testing ( $n = 30$ ) datasets for predicting rectus femoris and vastus lateralis echo intensity using partial least squares regression. All data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD and the range.

Participant Characteristics	Training Sample ( $n = 100$ )		Testing Sample ( $n = 30$ )	
	Mean $\pm$ SD	Range	Mean $\pm$ SD	Range
Stature (m)	1.72 $\pm$ 0.08	1.52 – 1.91	1.69 $\pm$ 0.08	1.56 – 1.85
Body mass (kg)	73.2 $\pm$ 16.1	48.4 – 130.6	72.1 $\pm$ 14.5	53.8 – 122.7
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	24.4 $\pm$ 4.1	17.3 – 40.0	25.0 $\pm$ 4.4	19.0 – 40.0
Subcutaneous fat thickness (cm)	1.07 $\pm$ 0.58	0.19 – 2.53	0.94 $\pm$ 0.64	0.17 – 3.36
RF Echo Intensity (A.U)	125.15 $\pm$ 37.55	55.87 – 222.97	127.80 $\pm$ 46.83	67.96 – 258.02
VL Vpan Echo Intensity (A.U)	126.28 $\pm$ 38.60	35.53 – 225.67	120.21 $\pm$ 43.54	56.71 – 247.37
<b>Predictors (<math>n = 19</math>)</b>				
Age (years)	38 $\pm$ 15	18 – 79	38 $\pm$ 16	18 – 69
Biological Sex (M/F)	45/55	–	13/17	–
Physical activity score	8.65 $\pm$ 1.41	5.13 – 12.38	8.41 $\pm$ 1.48	5.75 – 10.75
Total Energy Intake (kcal/d)	2124 $\pm$ 674	587 – 4937	2336 $\pm$ 648	1485 – 3658
Total Protein (g/d)	87.1 $\pm$ 37.6	22.6 – 203.8	106.7 $\pm$ 56.9	34.7 – 273.2
Total Fats (g/d)	84.6 $\pm$ 36.0	15.2 – 183.1	90.1 $\pm$ 35.1	30.9 -191.8
Total CHO (g/d)	240.2 $\pm$ 84.5	84.8 – 624.4	265.7 $\pm$ 81.9	135.5 – 449.1
Saturated Fats (g/d)	25.3 $\pm$ 13.8	3.8 – 71.7	30.9 $\pm$ 14.7	8.7 – 73.2
n-3 FAs (g/d)	1.9 $\pm$ 2.6	0.2 – 21.3	1.5 $\pm$ 1.0	0.4 – 4.2
n-6 FAs (g/d)	10.3 $\pm$ 6.6	0.1 – 30.3	9.8 $\pm$ 6.6	0.9 – 34.6
Fibre (g/d)	32.5 $\pm$ 15.1	6.2 – 83.3	33.4 $\pm$ 16.7	9.1 – 80.4
Calcium (mg/d)	1011 $\pm$ 704	151 – 6021	1129 $\pm$ 707	357 – 4190
Iron (mg/d)	17.2 $\pm$ 7.4	5.5 – 37.0	20.4 $\pm$ 15.1	7.5 – 76.4
Magnesium (mg/d)	553 $\pm$ 1274	123 – 13011	465 $\pm$ 195	181 – 907
Potassium (mg/d)	5293 $\pm$ 13987	788 – 141186	4059 $\pm$ 2163	1499 – 11300
Selenium ( $\mu$ g/d)	51.5 $\pm$ 29.3	7.7 – 148.6	77.2 $\pm$ 49.1	16.0 – 226.4
Iodine ( $\mu$ g/d)	107 $\pm$ 89	6 – 376	155 $\pm$ 155	9 – 800
Vitamin D ( $\mu$ g/d)	17.9 $\pm$ 92.7	0.0 – 910.8	7.8 $\pm$ 9.4	0.4 – 68.9
Vitamin A ( $\mu$ g/d)	977.7 $\pm$ 806.1	39.9 – 4487.3	1073 $\pm$ 1012	344 - 5086

RF, rectus femoris; VL, vastus lateralis, Vpan, panoramic image; A.U., arbitrary units; n-3 FAs, omega-3 fatty acids; n-6 FAs, omega-6 fatty acids. There were no differences in participant characteristics between training and testing samples, assessed via an independent samples *t*-test ( $P > 0.05$ ).

**Table 2.** Two-component partial least squares regression predicting rectus femoris and vastus lateralis echo intensity from habitual nutrient intake (and non-diet related factors) and the contribution of each predictor variable.

<b>Model 1</b>				<b>RF EI</b>		
Components				2		
Adjusted RMSEP				30.37		
Adjusted $R^2$				0.52		
<b>Model 2</b>				<b>VL EI</b>		
Components				2		
Adjusted RMSEP				31.75		
Adjusted $R^2$				0.46		
<b>Model 1</b>				<b>Model 2</b>		
<b>Predictor variables</b>	<b><math>\beta</math>-Estimate</b>	<b><math>t</math></b>	<b><math>P</math></b>	<b><math>\beta</math>-Estimate</b>	<b><math>t</math></b>	<b><math>P</math></b>
Age (years)	8.927	3.522	0.006*	9.742	4.937	0.001*
Biological Sex (ref = f)	13.501	6.582	<0.001*	13.182	5.900	<0.001*
Physical activity score	-4.534	-2.874	0.018*	-6.245	-2.310	0.046
Total Energy Intake (kcal/d)	0.107	0.072	0.944	-0.368	-0.426	0.680
Total Protein (g/d)	-7.617	-4.119	0.003*	-7.480	-6.214	<0.001*
Total Fats (g/d)	1.727	1.271	0.236	0.633	0.481	0.642
Total CHO (g/d)	0.348	0.257	0.803	0.361	0.225	0.827
n-3 FAs (g/d)	2.223	1.744	0.115	3.145	3.775	0.004*

n-6 FAs (g/d)	1.635	1.071	0.312	0.810	0.335	0.745
Fibre (g/d)	-5.215	-2.498	0.034	-3.887	-2.059	0.070
Calcium (mg/d)	0.858	0.300	0.771	1.635	0.618	0.552
Iron (mg/d)	-2.938	-1.074	0.311	-2.491	-2.136	0.061
Magnesium (mg/d)	-2.107	-1.198	0.262	-2.392	-0.737	0.480
Potassium (mg/d)	-2.130	-1.050	0.321	-2.878	-2.077	0.068
Selenium ( $\mu\text{g/d}$ )	-7.144	-3.234	0.010*	-4.775	-2.698	0.024*
Iodine ( $\mu\text{g/d}$ )	1.500	0.730	0.484	2.565	0.717	0.492
Vitamin D ( $\mu\text{g/d}$ )	1.201	1.888	0.092	0.726	0.100	0.344
Vitamin A ( $\mu\text{g/d}$ )	1.881	1.212	0.256	1.300	0.755	0.469

*RMSEP*, root mean square error of prediction; *CV*, cross-validation; *RF*, rectus femoris, *VL*, vastus lateralis; *CHO*, carbohydrates; *n-3 FAs*, omega-3 fatty acids; *n-6 FAs*, omega-6 fatty acids. \* denotes statistical significance following Bonferroni adjustment ( $P < 0.025$ ).

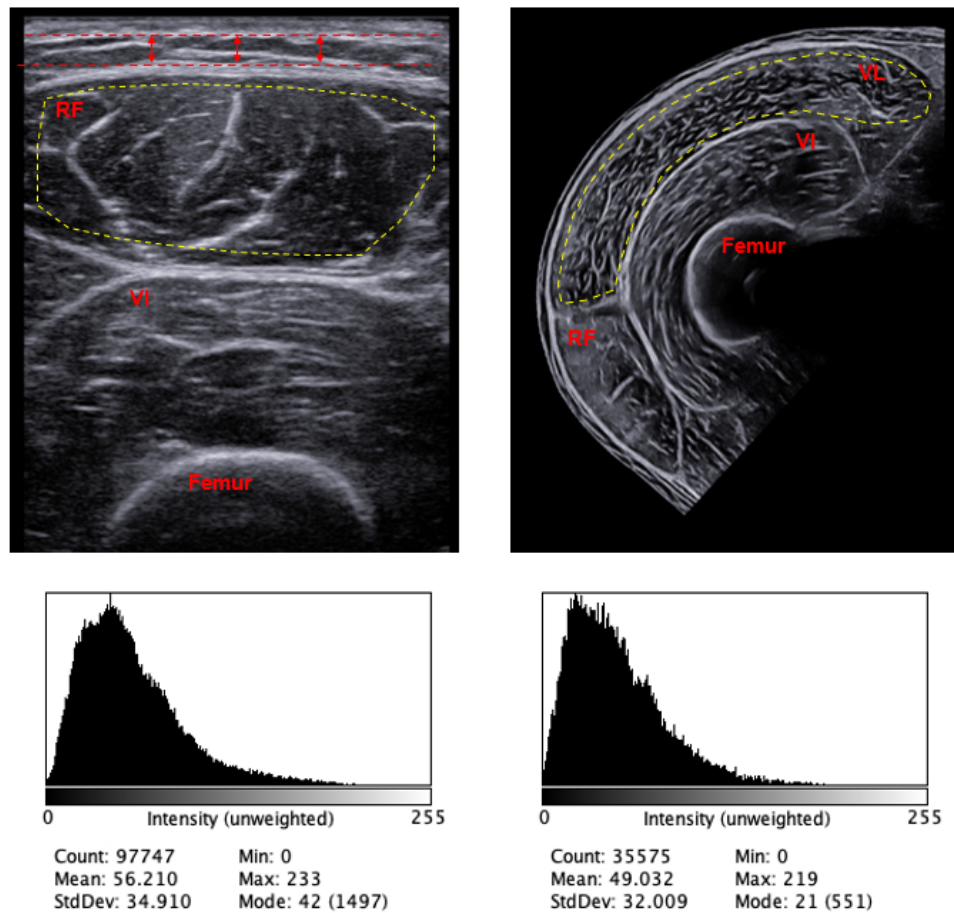


Figure 1. Example B-mode ultrasound image of the rectus femoris in the transverse plane (top left) and panoramic image of the vastus lateralis (top right) for assessment of skeletal muscle echo intensity together with the corresponding gray-scale pixel intensity histograms (below each image). Yellow dashed lines represent the region of interest used to determine echo intensity within the muscle belly. Red dashed lines indicate the borders of the dermal layer (top line) and the muscle aponeurosis (bottom line), and the red arrows represent the subcutaneous fat layer. Rectus Femoris, RF; Vastus Lateralis, VL; Vastus Intermedius VI.

75x71mm (236 x 236 DPI)

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