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### **Higher dietary protein intake is associated with sarcopenia in older British twins**

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#### **Conflicts of Interest:**

Mary Ni Lochlainn, Ruth C. E. Bowyer, Ailsa A. Welch, Kevin Whelan, and Claire J. Steves report no relevant conflicts of interest.

### **Ethical approval**

TwinsUK main ethics was reviewed and approved by the NHS London – London Bridge Research Ethics Committee (REC reference EC/04/015), and by Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust Research and Development (R&D) in 2012. TwinsUK BioBank was approved by NHS North West - Liverpool East Research Ethics Committee (REC reference 19/NW/0187), IRAS ID 258513. All research therefore carried out in accordance with the ethical standards laid down in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and its later amendments.

### **Higher dietary protein intake is associated with sarcopenia in older British twins**

#### **Abstract**

#### Background

Sarcopenia, characterised by an accelerated loss of skeletal muscle mass and function, is associated with negative outcomes. This study aimed to evaluate factors associated with skeletal muscle strength, mass, and sarcopenia, particularly protein intake; and to assess whether shared twin characteristics are important.

#### Methods

This study utilised cross-sectional data from a study of community dwelling twins aged  $\geq 60$  years. Multivariable logistic regression and between- and within- twin pair regression modelling was used.

#### Results

Participants (n=3302) were 89% female (n=2923), were aged a mean of 72.1 ( $\pm$ 7.3) years and comprised of 858 (55%) monozygotic, 709 (45%) dizygotic twin pairs and 168 individual lone twins. Using optimal protein intake as the reference group (1.0-1.3g/kg/day), there was no significant association between protein intake (neither high nor low) and low muscle strength, or between low protein intake and sarcopenia (OR 0.7; 95% CI 0.39-1.25; p=0.229) in unadjusted models. High protein intake  $(>1,3g/kg/day)$  was associated with low muscle mass (OR 1.76; 95% CI 1.39-2.2.4; P<0.0001), while low protein intake was protective (OR 0.52; 95% CI 0.40-0.67; P<0.0001). High protein intake was associated with sarcopenia (OR 2.04; 95% CI 1.21-3.44; p=0.008), and this was robust to adjustment for demographic, anthropometric and dietary factors. The association between muscle strength and weight, BMI, healthy eating index, protein intake, and alpha diversity, was not significantly influenced by shared twin factors, indicating greater amenability to interventions.

#### **Conclusions**

High protein intake is associated with sarcopenia in a cohort of healthy older twins.

#### **Introduction**

Muscle loss with age is a growing problem, particularly as populations around the world are aging. Sarcopenia refers to a progressive and generalised skeletal muscle disorder involving the accelerated loss of skeletal muscle function, and is associated with increased adverse outcomes including falls, functional decline, frailty, reduced quality of life, higher healthcare costs, and mortality (1,2). Data on its prevalence vary widely, ranging from 1% to 31.9% (3–5).

Despite the significant burden of sarcopenia, there are limited therapeutic options available. Much of the literature investigates resistance exercise and protein supplementation as the main treatment approaches, with compelling evidence for resistance exercise and less consistent evidence for protein (6). Beyond resistance exercise and protein intake, many features have been associated with sarcopenia including smoking (7), education  $(8)$ , income  $(8)$ , sex  $(9)$ , diet  $(1)$ , appetite  $(10)$ , frailty  $(1)$ , and physical activity  $(1)$ .

Anabolic resistance refers to the phenomenon whereby older adults require a higher dose of protein to achieve the same response in muscle protein synthesis as a younger adult (11). This has led to the European Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism (ESPEN) producing guidance recommending higher daily intake of protein (1-1.3 g/kg/day) for older adults, in order to overcome this resistance (12,13).

The gut microbiota and their role in human physiology is a growing field of enquiry, with microbiota diversity typically considered as a marker of overall health. There is an expanding body of evidence linking the gut microbiota to skeletal muscle function, which we have described in full previously (14). The gut microbiota play a key role in many of the postulated mechanisms and aetiologies for anabolic resistance, for example, gut permeability, and inflammation, leading to the suggestion that the microbiota may mediate anabolic resistance to some degree (14). To our knowledge, there have been no previous studies that have investigated the association between the broad range of characteristics investigated in our study, such as healthy eating index, frailty, appetite, indicators of renal function, gut microbiota diversity, and the relevance of shared twin factors with sarcopenia. Therefore, the goals of this study, established a priori, were to: (i) ascertain the prevalence of low muscle strength and sarcopenia, in a large cohort of British twins aged ≥60 years (ii) explore factors associated with low muscle strength and sarcopenia, in particular dietary protein intake; and (iii) use specialised regression methods to explore whether shared twin factors (e.g., genetics, early environment, etc.) drive the identified associations with muscle strength and/or sarcopenia. While aim (i) and (ii) have been explored in other populations to some degree, aim (iii) has not been done before to our knowledge, and this study represents the first piece of research using twin modelling in this field of enquiry.

#### **Methods**

#### **Study population**

The current study utilises a cross-sectional sample of community dwelling participants in the TwinsUK cohort who had detailed data available on skeletal muscle mass, muscle strength, physical performance, diet, and anthropometry ( $n = 3302$ ). The TwinsUK cohort has been described in detail elsewhere (15). Eligibility for the analysis was defined by aged  $\geq 60$  years and attendance for a visit to the department since 2010 which included detailed physical measures, DXA scans and questionnaire completion. There were no exclusion criteria.

A logistic regression approach was used for the main analyses. For the twin modelling analysis, linear regression was used. A Wald test was used to test the difference between the between-pair and within-pair coefficients. Variable measurement and statistical analysis are described in full in the appendices.

#### **Results**

A total of 3302 individual twins were included, with a mean age of 72.1. The overall prevalence of sarcopenia in this cohort was 129 (4.3%) including 21 (6.2%) males and 108 (4.1%) females (Figure 1) (1,33).



#### **Factors associated with Muscle Strength and Sarcopenia**

When comparing those with low muscle strength to those without, there was no difference between the two groups in protein intake, using both UK RNI, and ESPEN recommended intakes (Table 1). BMI was significantly lower in the participants with sarcopenia, compared to those without sarcopenia. In terms of protein intake, both measures of protein intake (UK RNI, and ESPEN) were significantly different, with those with sarcopenia more likely to have *high* protein intake. Figure 2 presents the logistic regression analysis for the relation between each variable and muscle strength, defined as low or not, and sarcopenia (See also: Supplementary Table 3).



**Figure 2: Logistic regression results for covariates of low muscle strength and sarcopenia. All models adjusted for age and sex. All variables standardised therefore each unit of difference refers to one standard deviation of difference for that variable. The prevalence of low muscle strength is 12.1%. The prevalence of sarcopenia is low (4.3% of this cohort) which will impact power in these analyses.** 

#### **Sarcopenia, but not muscle strength, is associated with protein intake**

The results of multivariable logistic regression analyses used to determine adjusted ORs for the relation between protein intake and low muscle strength, low muscle mass, and sarcopenia are presented in Table 2. There was no significant association between protein intake and muscle strength, in any of the models. There was a significant association between protein intake (high and low; when compared to the reference category) and muscle mass, robust to adjustment in all models. Low protein intake was protective of low muscle mass (OR 0.52; 95% CI 0.40-0.67; p<0.0001), while high protein intake was associated with an increased odds of having low muscle mass (OR 1.76; 95% CI 1.39-2.24; p<0.0001). In terms of sarcopenia, no significant association was noted for low protein intake, however high protein intake was significantly associated with sarcopenia, and this was robust to adjustment in all models (OR 2.04; 95% CI 1.21-3.44; p=0.008).

To examine whether the results were consistent when protein was expressed as a proportion of total lean mass  $(g/kg FFM/d)$  instead of as a proportion of body weight  $(g/kg/d)$ , the models were repeated for both low muscle strength and sarcopenia, with no notable differences found (Supplementary Table 4). The missingness of data is shown in Supplementary table 5. To ascertain whether missingness of data had any effect on this result, an analysis was carried out to assess whether variables of interest predicted missingness of protein intake (Supplementary Table 6). Only sex predicted missingness of the protein intake variable. As protein supplementation may have influenced our results, we noted those taking supplements. Four individuals reported taking protein supplements. Two of the four reported a low protein intake from diet, one reported a high intake, and the final one had missing data for protein intake. No subcategory analysis of this group was undertaken due to very low numbers.

#### **Twin Modelling**

For income, education, frailty, and gait speed the between-pair coefficients were larger, significantly different from zero, and significantly different from the within-pair coefficients (Wald test  $p\leq 0.05$ ),

supporting the inference that the association of these variables with muscle strength (chair-rise time) was confounded by factors that are shared by twins, such as common genes, and early life factors (Table 3).

For weight, BMI, healthy eating index, protein intake and alpha diversity there was minimal difference between the within- and between-pair coefficients, suggesting that shared twin factors were not driving any association between these variables and muscle strength.

#### **Discussion**

Older twins with low muscle strength had no difference in protein intake *versus* those without low muscle strength. In contrast, twins with sarcopenia had significantly higher protein intakes than those without. High protein intake (>1.3g/kg/day) was associated with sarcopenia, even after adjustment for a range of relevant potentially confounding variables including biological, socioeconomic, and environmental exposures, muscle, and diet-related variables. These analyses were carried out using protein intake as a proportion of total body weight and were consistent when protein was considered as a proportion of total lean mass.

Considering the definition of sarcopenia is the combination of low skeletal muscle strength and reduced muscle mass, one might expect that the driving force of the association between high protein intake and sarcopenia is the association of protein intake and muscle mass. Indeed, we found protein intake (high and low, versus optimal as the reference category) was associated with low muscle mass (as defined by the EWGSOP2 cut offs for men and women), and this was robust to adjustment in all models. High protein intake was associated with an increased odds of low muscle mass, and low protein intake was associated with a reduced odds (i.e., protective) of having low muscle mass. However, for sarcopenia, the association was only found for *high* protein intake. This suggests that the established relationship between protein intake and muscle mass does not explain all of the relationship seen, and there is a unique relationship between the sarcopenic phenotype, the combination of reduced mass and strength, that is associated with an excessive dietary protein intake, which warrants further exploration.

A recent longitudinal study also reported a negative effect of high protein intake, with higher protein intake from animal sources associated with a deterioration in health-related quality of life scores over 12 years (34). In terms of muscle strength in particular, data from the Hertfordshire Cohort Study found higher grip strength was associated with *lower* meat consumption in men, while those with diets characterised by high consumption of fruit, vegetables, and fatty fish, had higher grip strength, in both men and women (35). Similarly, in the Newcastle 85+ study, dietary patterns high in characteristic British foods, including red meat, and with protein intakes >1g/kg/day were associated with an increased risk of sarcopenia (36). of the available literature focuses on inadequate protein intake (14), as this is more common. Many studies treat protein intake as a binary variable, either below, or meeting the RNI, and thus do not consider those with high intakes. It is plausible that this association is due to those individuals with sarcopenia deliberately consuming more protein, to ameliorate their muscle loss. Considering sarcopenia is not routinely diagnosed in clinical practice (37), one might consider this unlikely, however these individuals may have had another event that led to a dietician referral and so it cannot be ruled out. It is worth highlighting that our cohort have a healthy volunteer bias, with a healthier diet and higher protein intake than average, and therefore are distinct from a clinical inpatient or multi-morbid and/or frail population. Thus, our results indicate that for older adults who are relatively 'healthy', exceeding recommended protein intake may possibly be more detrimental for muscle health, than insufficient protein intake.

While not specific to older adults, there is existing evidence of detrimental effects of high protein intake, including coronary artery disease, cancer, disorders of liver and renal function and disorders of bone and calcium metabolism (38). Furthermore, a growing body of evidence has emerged, linking energy restriction to longevity and healthy aging, as well as a reduced risk of diseases including type 2 diabetes and ischemic heart disease (39). There is evidence that diets with restricted protein and/or specific amino acids are associated with improved health-span, and that protein may be the driving factor behind the benefits of energy restriction, via its effects on the IGF-1/mTOR network (40). This should also be considered in clinical recommendations on protein intake.

Not all sources of protein contain the full range of essential amino acids, and the quantity of leucine varies by protein source (41). The environmental impact of animal sources of protein, particularly red meat, in the context of the global climate crisis, must also be considered. There is an ongoing debate about the ideal protein source for older adults, and a recent review suggests a mix of sources is likely to be the best approach (42). Using the same method used to calculate the healthy eating index, we estimated a proxy marker of protein from plant-sources, including tofu, meat substitutes, nuts, and beans. None of our participants consumed all their protein from plant sources alone, indeed 98.8% of our participants consumed ≤20% of their protein intake from plant sources (See: Supplementary Figure 1and Table 1). Thus, the results of this study should be considered in the context of a majority animal-source protein intake. This proxy measure does not include protein from other non-animal sources such as bread, though the contributions from these sources tend to be small. Indeed, the proportional contribution in our study compares with another UK study (43). More detailed future work is needed evaluating the impact of animal versus plant sourced protein on muscle health in older adults.

Only sex predicted missingness of the protein intake variable. The literature examining sex differences in selfreported dietary intakes is mixed, with some reporting no sex differences (44,45), and others noting differences by sex (46), however much of the published work in this area is focused on energy intake specifically, rather than protein intake. In our study, men had a higher proportion of missing data for protein intake than women. There is some evidence that women are more likely than men to complete questionnaires (47). This is in keeping with our experiences within the TwinsUK cohort, particularly questionnaires which are longer and/or more laborious, such as the FFQ, and may explain some of this difference.

Renal function should be considered when advising increased protein in diet for older adults, as diets high in protein are more likely to be acidogenic in the context of age-related decline in renal function. Acidogenic diets can lead to mild metabolic acidosis, with detrimental effects on muscle mass (48), unless well balanced by plant-based alkalinogenic foods. In addition, there is some evidence that blood pH does become slightly more acidic with age (49). The association between sarcopenia and high protein intake was robust to adjustment for both HEI, considered a proxy marker of alkalinity of diet (p<0.001), and creatinine clearance (p=0.034), an indicator of renal function, suggesting that diet alkalinity and renal function do not explain the association reported here. Serum creatinine and muscle mass are known to be correlated. We have used calculated creatinine clearance here, which considers weight and age, and is considered a more accurate

measure of renal function, but this will still be influenced by the participant's muscle mass. Future work examining renal function in the context of sarcopenia and dietary protein should consider other measures of renal function such as Cystatin C (50), which are less associated with lean mass, to explore this relationship further.

In terms of BMI, those with low muscle strength had a higher BMI than those without, however those with sarcopenia had lower BMI than those without. The higher BMI found in the low muscle strength group may be influenced by the presence of sarcopenic obesity. This relatively new concept refers to those with muscle loss typical of sarcopenia, but with a large body mass, although a consensus definition is lacking, which makes diagnosis difficult (51). Perhaps those with low muscle strength represent an earlier point on the pathophysiological pathway of sarcopenia development, and by the time they have reached the criteria for sarcopenia, they have lost body mass, in keeping with the typical image of a person with sarcopenia, with a thin body habitus. Further high quality, longitudinal research is required to explore this further.

Due to a growing body of evidence linking the gut microbiota to skeletal muscle health (14) alpha diversity of the gut microbiota was included as an exposure variable, with a notably less diverse gut microbiota in those with low muscle strength; however, this was not sustained for sarcopenia, perhaps due to our small number of sarcopenia cases lacking power to detect an association. When it comes to muscle health, it may well be that the function of the gut microbiota is likely more important than the diversity, and that diversity alone insufficiently encompasses microbiota composition and function. Ongoing trials are investigating targeting the gut microbiota to improve muscle strength (52) that will provide insights into whether the gut microbiota may represent a future therapeutic target for age-associated muscle loss and muscle strength.

Previous research in this cohort examined the heritability of muscle health, and found a moderate genetic component, with heritability estimates of 0.46 for leg extensor strength, 0.3 for handgrip strength and 0.52 for lean body mass (all p<0.05) (53), notably higher for mass than for strength measures. Other research investigating twins discordant for muscle strength found the stronger twins had higher physical activity (54), in keeping with the inference that muscle strength is modifiable by environment and lifestyle, rather than heavily influenced by genetics. However, the evidence linking early birth weight to later sarcopenia

development (55), indicates that sarcopenia's origins are developmental (56), highlighting the importance of twin studies in this field.

The association between muscle strength and each of the variables: weight, BMI, healthy eating index, protein intake, and alpha diversity, does not appear to be significantly influenced by shared twin factors. This tentatively suggests that those variables may be more modifiable in preventing the development of sarcopenia. This is perhaps intuitive when it comes to weight, and diet, however it is promising to see gut microbiota diversity also appears to be modifiable in this way. To our knowledge, this finding has not been shown elsewhere and can guide researchers in this field going forward, where sarcopenia research has struggled to find modifiable treatment targets.

#### **Strengths and Limitations**

Due to historical reasons, the TwinsUK cohort is majority female and white (15), as is the case in this study. Despite this, the cohort is largely representative of the UK population (15), however it does have a healthy volunteer bias. This study is cross sectional in nature and therefore definitive conclusions about the direct of associations cannot be made. In addition, while the vast majority of variables were contemporaneously measured at the same visit, occasionally when no data was available for that variable, the most recent previous value was imputed. While DXA scans are a recommended and satisfactory measure of muscle mass, it is worth noting that CT or MRI are the gold standard (1), although whole body measurement can be limited and costly using these methods. The low prevalence of sarcopenia, while not out of keeping with existing literature, means that the number of the individuals with sarcopenia in this study is low, reducing power, and while every effort was made to ensure the conclusions of our analyses are robust, further research with larger number of people living with sarcopenia is warranted to investigate this further. Lastly, while chair-rise time and gait speed are also recognised and accepted by EWGSOP2 as measures of muscle strength, they are not isolated isometric muscle measures and require neurological function, adequate vision etc. which may influence the results of these tests in some participants. Major strengths of our study are our investigation of potential factors that influence sarcopenia, and exploration of shared twin influences on the factors associated with sarcopenia.

#### **Conclusions**

We report a sarcopenia prevalence of 4.3% in a cohort of community dwelling volunteer twins, aged  $\geq 60$ years. Key factors that influence muscle strength include age, education, income, BMI, healthy diet, physical activity, frailty, appetite, protein intake and gut microbiota diversity. The association between muscle strength and each of the variables: weight, BMI, healthy eating index, protein intake, and alpha diversity, was not significantly influenced by shared twin factors. These potentially modifiable factors may therefore be more amenable to interventions aiming to prevent and/or treat sarcopenia.

High protein intake is associated with sarcopenia, even after adjustment for a range of covariates. This finding should be considered when advising increased protein intake for older adults without assessing baseline consumption. Further analysis is warranted, including longitudinal data, in cohorts with a larger number of individuals living with sarcopenia, to assess this association further.

#### **Appendices**

#### **Methods**

#### **Variable measurement**

Muscle mass was measured using DXA (Hologic Bone Densitometer QDR Horizon W, Serial Number 200884), and appendicular lean mass/height squared was calculated. Two measures of muscle strength were recorded; handgrip strength using Jamar Hydraulic Hand Dynamometer, with the best of 3 attempts recorded, using dominant hand, and chair-rise time (the time taken to rise from a chair 5 times without using hands). Gait speed (metres/second) was estimated from the time it took to walk 4 metres: with the mean of two attempts taken.

Low muscle strength (also known as probable sarcopenia) and sarcopenia were defined based on EWGSOP2 cut-off values, as was low muscle mass (1) . Thus, if a participant met the cut-off for reduced handgrip strength  $\langle 27 \text{ kg}$  for males;  $\langle 16 \text{ kg}$  for females) and/or chair-rise time ( $>15$  s for 5 chair rises), they were considered to have low muscle strength. The cut offs for muscle mass (appendicular lean mass/height squared) were  $\langle 7kg/m^2$  for men and  $\langle 5.5kg/m^2$  for women (1,16). Muscle strength and mass were then used as binary categorical variables, defined as low or not low. Sarcopenia was also a binary variable, defined as sarcopenia or no sarcopenia. Activity was measured using the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ) (17), which computes a score of 1-2-3 representing low-moderate-high physical activity, based on MET minutes and the volume and frequency of physical activity per week (18). MET stands for metabolic equivalent of task, one MET minute is the energy expended at rest in a minute (19). To determine whether appetite was associated with sarcopenia, this was measured using the Simplified Nutritional Appetite Questionnaire (SNAQ) (20).

Dietary intake was measured using self-administered food frequency questionnaires (EPIC-FFQ) which was developed and validated for a UK population (21), from which daily protein intake and energy intake were calculated using the validated FETA (FFQ EPIC Tool for Analysis) tool (22). The FFQ is a valid tool for estimating protein intake (23,24). To Understand whether diet quality impacted on associations between protein intake and sarcopenia, data from the FFQ was used to calculate the Healthy Eating Index (HEI), as described previously (25). FFQ entries were removed based on the following three criteria: (1) >10 incomplete items from the 130 food items on the FFQ as per recommendations (22) to reduce missing data error; (2) outside of 2 standard deviations (SD) (per batch, of 3) for the ratio of energy intake / basal metabolic rate (calculated using Harris-Benedict equations); (3) >2 SD of mean for macronutrients (protein, fat, and carbohydrate), both of which aim to reduce under-reporting and over-reporting. Protein was presented both as a binary variable, using the UK Reference Nutrient Intake (RNI) for adults which is  $\geq 0.75g/kg$  body weight/day (26), and as per the ESPEN recommended intakes for older adults, which recommends 1- 1.3g/kg/day as optimal intake (12), thus creating a categorical variable of low (<1g/kg body weight/day), optimal (1-1.3g/kg body weight/day) and high (>1.3g/kg body weight/day) intake. Participants were also asked to report use of any dietary supplements.

In all analyses protein intake was expressed and analysed as a factor as grams per kilogram of body weight per day, because it is most easily translated for clinicians and patients alike (who often know their body weight or can easily measure it) and also importantly because the ESPEN guidance for older adults uses this format (12) . In addition, in a supplementary analysis, protein intake was also expressed as grams per kilogram of total fat-free mass (FFM), as it has been suggested that this provides a more accurate representation of individual protein requirements (27).

The gut microbiota was measured from one stool sample and sequenced using Illumina MiSeq as described previously (28). Alpha diversity of the gut microbiota was quantified as observed Shannon diversity index, as described previously (29). Weight (kg) was measured using Marsden MPPS-250 scale, height (cm) was measured using a Leicester Height Measurer and body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight/height squared. Frailty was quantified through the Rockwood Frailty Index (30), using self-reported data across 36 domains of age-related health deficits (see Supplementary Table 2). Serum creatinine was measured using a standard enzymatic rate (creatinine amidohydrolase) followed by colorimetric assay (Kodak Ektachem dry chemistry analysers, Johnson and Johnson Vitros Ektachem). Creatinine clearance (ml/min) was calculated

using the Cockcroft Gault formula: 1.2 x (140 - age) x body weight[kg]/creatinine[µmol/L], with the answer multiplied by 0.85 if female (31). This was included in the analysis to determine whether renal function may influence the relationship between sarcopenia and protein.

Demographic characteristics were recorded by questionnaires including smoking status, income, and education. Income referred to annual household earnings and was categorised as low (<£30,000), middle (£30,000-50,000) and high (>£50,000 Education level was categorized as low (up to GCSE or equivalent), middle (A levels, diploma) or high (university degree or higher). Available case analysis approach was used to handle missing data. For all data, the most recent collection was used and only data recorded since 2010 was included.

#### **Statistical analysis**

Statistical analysis was performed using Stata (Version 15.1). Data distributions were found to be normal, which allowed the use of parametric tests. To characterise the differences between those with low/normal muscle strength, and with/without sarcopenia, continuous variables were compared with two sample t-tests and categorical variables with Pearson's chi-squared tests. To assess for multicollinearity, correlation coefficients were checked for all variables of interest and were found to be <0.7 in all cases.

Univariable logistic regression analysis was used to determine odds ratios (ORs) for the relation between each variable and categories of low muscle strength, low muscle mass, and sarcopenia. All variables were standardised. All univariable analyses were adjusted for age and sex. Multivariable logistic regression analysis was used to determine the adjusted ORs of low muscle strength for dietary protein intake, using optimal intake (1-1.3g/kg/day) as the reference category (12). Variables were selected for the multivariable model based on significance in the univariable model and/or existing evidence for an association with sarcopenia. Values of *P*<0.05 were considered statistically significant. A supplementary analysis was carried out to test whether any exposure variables of interest predicted missingness of the protein intake data, to examine whether missingness influenced the results of the logistic regression analyses.

Twins are naturally matched pairs, with shared genetics, depending on zygosity, and shared early-life experiences. This means that the data has an inherently paired structure, which induces correlation between the pairs. To adjust for this, the data in the regression models were clustered by twin pair. However, a more detailed form of analysis to investigate the relative importance of shared *versus* non-shared factors is the between-pair and within-pair model approach (32). For this twin modelling analysis, the continuous variable of chair-rise time was used as a marker of muscle strength. Linear modelling was used in this analysis, considering the linear relationship between protein intake and muscle strength. The within-pair (variable\_within) coefficient predicts the difference in outcome per unit difference within the pair and is free of confounding of shared twin factors. The between-pair (variable\_between) coefficient predicts the difference in outcome per unit of the pair average of each predictor variable. A Wald test was used to test the difference between the between-pair and within-pair coefficients. Lone twins were excluded from this analysis.

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## **Tables**



## **Table 1: Population characteristics and factors associated with low muscle strength, low muscle mass, and sarcopenia**











*Italics* = statistically significant; BMI: Body Mass Index; RNI: Reference Nutrient Intake; ESPEN: European Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism;

IPAQ: International Physical Activity Questionnaire; SNAQ: Simplified Nutritional Appetite Questionnaire

**Table 2: ORs and 95% CIs for low muscle strength, low muscle mass, and sarcopenia according to protein intake comparing low and high protein intakes to optimal protein intakes (reference)**





*Italics* = statistically significant; IPAQ: International Physical Activity Questionnaire; SNAQ: Simplified Nutritional Appetite Questionnaire

# **Table 3: Univariable linear regression results for muscle strength: Between-Within**

**Model**



gaitspeed_between	$-8.72; [-9.80, -7.64]$	P<0.001	$-1.64$
			$P=0.050$
gaitspeed_within	$-7.07$ ; $[-8.87, -5.28]$	P < 0.001	
<b>Physical activity (IPAQ)</b>	$-0.55$ ; $[-0.84, -0.26]$	P<0.001	
ipaq_between	$-0.67; [-1.07, -0.28]$	$P=0.001$	$-0.40$
			$P=0.116$
ipaq_within	$-0.28$ ; [ $-0.60, 0.04$ ]	$P=0.090$	
<b>Health eating index</b>	$-0.31; [-0.05, -0.01]$	$P=0.006$	
hei_between	$-0.04; [-0.07, -0.01]$	$P=0.009$	$-0.03$
hei_within	$-0.01; [-0.04, 0.03]$	$P=0.679$	$P=0.229$
Protein Intake (g/kg)	$-1.46$ ; $[-2.26, -0.67]$	P<0.001	
protein_between	$-1.38$ ; $[-2.31, -0.44]$	$P=0.004$	0.36
protein_within	$-1.74$ ; $[-2.71, -0.76]$	P<0.001	$P=0.557$
<b>Appetite (SNAQ)</b>	$-0.19$ ; $[-0.33, -0.10]$	$P=0.006$	
	$-0.72; [-1.55, 0.10]$	$P=0.087$	$-0.59$
snaq_between			
			$P=0.210$
snaq_within	$-0.13$ ; $[-0.31, 0.04]$	$P=0.129$	
<b>Alpha diversity</b>	$-0.46$ ; $[-0.81, -0.12]$	$P=0.011$	
shannon_between	$-0.41; [-0.89, 0.08]$	$P=0.104$	0.18
			$P=0.630$
shannon_within	$-0.58$ ; $[-1.05, -0.11]$	$P=0.016$	

BMI: Body Mass Index; IPAQ: International Physical Activity Questionnaire; SNAQ:

Simplified Nutritional Appetite Questionnaire

#### **Online supplementary materials**



**Supplementary Figure 1: Proportion of protein intake that comes from plant sources**

\*Please note this proxy measure of plant-sourced protein includes tofu, meat substitutes, nuts, and beans, and does not include all non-animal sourced protein – for example the protein in bread.

**Supplementary Table 1: Conversion factors used to ascertain proportion of dietary protein from plant sources**





# **Supplementary Table 2: Domains included to quantify the Frailty Index**











**Supplementary Table 3: Univariable logistic regression results for covariates of low muscle strength and sarcopenia**





BMI: Body Mass Index; IPAQ: International Physical Activity Questionnaire; SNAQ:

Simplified Nutritional Appetite Questionnaire. All results are adjusted for age and sex.

**Supplementary Table 4: ORs and 95% CIs for low muscle strength according to protein intake (measured as g/total lean mass). Reference category is middle tertile**







## **Supplementary Table 5: Missingness of data**



**SNAQ: Simplified Nutritional Assessment Questionnaire. IPAQ: International Physical Activity Questionnaire.** 

**Supplementary Table 6: Multivariable logistic regression analysis for missingness of protein intake**





BMI: Body Mass Index; IPAQ: International Physical Activity Questionnaire; SNAQ:

Simplified Nutritional Appetite Questionnaire