

Approaches used to estimate bioavailability when deriving dietary reference values for iron and zinc in adults

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1 **Abstract**

2 This review aims to describe approaches used to estimate bioavailability when deriving
3 dietary reference values (DRVs) for iron and zinc using the factorial approach. Various
4 values have been applied by different expert bodies to convert absorbed iron or zinc into
5 dietary intakes, and these are summarised in this review. The European Food Safety
6 Authority (EFSA) derived zinc requirements from a trivariate saturation response model
7 describing the relationship between zinc absorption and dietary zinc and phytate. The average
8 requirement for men and women was determined as the intercept of the total absorbed zinc
9 needed to meet physiological requirements, calculated according to body weight, with
10 phytate intake levels of 300, 600, 900 and 1200 mg/day, which are representative of
11 mean/median intakes observed in European populations. For iron, the method employed by
12 EFSA was to use whole body iron losses, determined from radioisotope dilution studies, to
13 calculate the quantity of absorbed iron required to maintain null balance. Absorption from the
14 diet was estimated from a probability model based on measures of iron intake and status and
15 physiological requirements for absorbed iron. Average dietary requirements were derived for
16 men and pre- and post-menopausal women. Taking into consideration the complexity of
17 deriving DRVs for iron and zinc, mainly due to limited knowledge on dietary bioavailability,
18 it appears that EFSA has made maximum use of the most relevant up-to-date data to develop
19 novel and transparent DRVs for these nutrients.

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30 **Dietary Reference Values (DRVs): concepts and terminology**

31 Reference values for population nutrient intakes are the basis for making dietary
32 recommendations that are consistent with good health. They are used for assessing and
33 planning diets for individuals and groups, and developing nutrition policies including food
34 fortification. In the UK and Europe they are collectively known as Dietary Reference Values
35 and in the US/Canada they are called Dietary Reference Intakes. There are four main
36 categories of values, for which different terms are used, depending on the body setting the
37 DRVs, and each category has a different application:

38 (a) Average requirement (AR)^(1,2), also called Estimated Average Requirement (EAR)^(3,4).

39 This is the daily intake of a nutrient that meets the needs of 50% of a healthy
40 population, given a normal distribution of the requirement. It is the most important
41 category for assessing the adequacy of nutrient intakes of a population group and for
42 planning intervention strategies, such as food fortification.

43 (b) Population Reference Intake (PRI)⁽¹⁾, also called the Reference Nutrient Intake
44 (RNI)⁽²⁾, Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA)⁽³⁾, and Recommended Nutrient
45 Intake (RNI)⁽⁴⁾. This is the daily intake of a nutrient that meets the needs of almost all
46 healthy individuals, namely 97.5% of the population, and is derived from the AR plus
47 two standard deviations (SD). It can be used to plan the diets of individuals but not
48 population groups. The precise SD is usually not known, and it is generally assumed
49 to be 10-15%.

50 (c) Adequate Intake (AI)^(1,3) or Safe Intake⁽²⁾. These values are derived as a last resort
51 when data for estimating an AR are not available. The AI is the observed or
52 experimentally determined average (median) intake in a group of apparently healthy
53 people who are assumed to have an adequate status of the nutrient. The AI may well
54 be higher than actual requirements. When no PRI is available, the AI can be used as a
55 guide to plan individuals' diet. The use of AI for assessing the diets of individuals or
56 population groups is limited.

57 (d) Upper level or tolerable upper intake level or upper tolerable nutrient intake
58 (UL)^(1,3,4,5). These are maximum intake values for populations that if consumed
59 chronically over time are judged unlikely to result in adverse effects; they do not
60 apply to acute effects from high doses e.g. supplements.

61 Attempts to harmonise DRVs globally were initiated over 10 years ago⁽⁶⁾ and a new umbrella
62 term, Nutrient Reference Values (NRV) was proposed. In 2017, the National Academy of
63 Science, Engineering and Medicine (NAS) organised a workshop with WHO/FAO to discuss
64 harmonisation of Nutrient Reference Values⁽⁷⁾. An ad hoc NAS committee prepared a report
65 on the harmonisation process, which includes case studies on iron and zinc⁽⁸⁾.

66 The derivation of DRVs requires quantitative information on the dietary requirements to
67 prevent nutrient deficiency and maintain adequate body store or status. Where appropriate,
68 prevention of chronic diet-related disease may also be taken into account, in which case
69 intakes may be higher than those required to prevent deficiency. The most appropriate
70 indicator for deriving the average nutrient requirement, which is ideally a biomarker for
71 which a dose-response relationship has been shown, must be selected. When a nutrient does
72 not have a useful biomarker, other approaches must be used to establish DRVs, such as
73 factorial modelling. This involves estimating physiological requirements for the absorbed
74 nutrient and then converting this into dietary intakes using a conversion factor that takes into
75 account bioavailability from the diet.

76 The definition of nutrient bioavailability is the percentage (or fraction) of total intake that is
77 absorbed and utilised for normal body functions. Iron and zinc are two minerals that have
78 varying (and sometimes low) bioavailability, depending on a number of dietary and host-
79 related factors. Although isotopic labels can be used to directly measure iron bioavailability
80 (viz utilisation) as the percentage of intake that is incorporated into haemoglobin, this
81 technique cannot be used to determine overall bioavailability from whole diets. Furthermore,
82 there are no equivalent biomarkers of utilisation for zinc. Therefore, absorption is used as a
83 surrogate measure of bioavailability for both iron and zinc and the two terms will be used
84 interchangeably in this review.

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86 **Approaches used to derive DRVs for zinc**

87 *Estimating physiological requirements*

88 In the absence of a suitable biomarker, dietary requirements for zinc have, in the past, been
89 derived using the factorial approach. The EUROpean micronutrient RECommendations
90 Aligned (EURRECA) network undertook a series of systematic reviews, the aim of which
91 was to develop an intake-status-health relationship model to inform the setting of DRVs for

92 zinc⁽⁹⁾. However, they were unable to recommend an alternative to the factorial approach as
93 the potentially useful indicators of zinc status (plasma/serum zinc, hair zinc and urinary zinc
94 excretion)⁽¹⁰⁾ were not specific enough to characterise an intake-response relationship.

95 The factorial approach entails the estimation of the quantity of absorbed zinc required to
96 replace endogenous losses of zinc. The majority of zinc lost from the body is intestinal
97 (generally referred to as endogenous faecal zinc, EFZ) and has been measured in
98 conventional balance studies and with the use of radio- and stable isotope labels. EFZ losses
99 reflect the quantity of zinc absorbed (TAZ), which is dependent on zinc intake. Non-intestinal
100 losses include urine, dermal, menstrual (women) and semen (men). These are assumed to be
101 constant over a wide range of zinc intake⁽³⁾, with estimates ranging from 0.30 to 0.63 mg/day
102 in men and 0.30 to 0.44 mg/day in women⁽¹¹⁾. Semen losses were estimated to be 0.10
103 mg/day^(1,3) and menstrual losses about 0.01 mg/day⁽¹⁾.

104 Estimates of total endogenous zinc losses (mg/day) reported by different bodies range from
105 1.40⁽⁴⁾ to 3.84⁽³⁾ in adult men, and 1.00⁽⁴⁾ to 3.30⁽³⁾ in adult women. The low estimates from
106 WHO were derived from studies in which the diets were very low in zinc. The IOM used a
107 linear regression approach to examine the relationship between EFZ and TAZ, which was
108 then adjusted for non-intestinal losses of zinc in order to estimate total endogenous zinc
109 losses⁽³⁾. EFSA used multiple regression analysis and found that body size was the primary
110 predictor of TAZ (when zinc balance is null), with no gender effect. An equation relating zinc
111 physiological requirement to body weight was derived and zinc physiological requirements
112 were estimated to be 3.20 mg/day in men (mean body weight 68.1 kg, based on
113 measurements made in 16,500 European men aged 18-79 y) and 2.90 mg/day in women
114 (mean body weight 58.5 kg, based on measurements made in 19,969 European women aged
115 18-79 y)⁽¹²⁾.

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117 ***Converting physiological requirements into dietary intakes***

118 The AR is the quantity of dietary zinc that will supply the physiological needs (i.e. replace
119 endogenous losses) of 50% of the population. In order to convert requirements for absorbed
120 zinc into dietary intakes, a correction for absorption has to be made. Efficiency of absorption
121 depends on dietary composition, including zinc content and modifiers of absorption, and
122 physiological needs. In particular, phytate (myo-inositol hexaphosphate), a phosphorus

123 storage compound in plants, is a key determinant of zinc absorption. Values for dietary zinc
124 absorption used by several bodies are summarised in Table 1.

125 The UK Department of Health assumed a value of 30% for zinc absorption⁽²⁾, and the Health
126 Council of the Netherlands used 25%⁽¹³⁾. The US IOM⁽³⁾ values were 41% for men and 48%
127 for women, derived from a regression analysis using data from multiple studies on zinc
128 absorption. However, many of the diets used in these studies were semi-purified and low in
129 phytate, and it is likely that the inhibitory effect of phytate was underestimated.

130 FAO/WHO⁽²¹⁾ estimated that 50% of dietary zinc would be absorbed from highly refined
131 diets. These were described as low in cereal fibre, low in phytic acid content, and with
132 phytate–zinc molar ratio <5; adequate protein content principally from non-vegetable
133 sources, such as meats and fish (high bioavailability). Absorption from moderate
134 bioavailability diets was estimated to be 30%; these diets contain animal or fish protein, and
135 this category includes lacto-ovo, ovo-vegetarian, or vegan diets not based primarily on
136 unrefined cereal grains or high-extraction-rate flours. The phytate–zinc molar ratio of the diet
137 should be within the range 5–15, or not exceeding 10 if more than 50% of the energy intake
138 is accounted for by unfermented, unrefined cereal grains and flours and the diet is fortified
139 with inorganic calcium salts (>1g Ca²⁺/day). Absorption from low bioavailability diets was
140 estimated to be 15%. Such diets were described as high in unrefined, unfermented, and
141 ungerminated cereal grain, especially when fortified with inorganic calcium salts and when
142 the intake of animal protein is negligible. Low bioavailability was associated with diets where
143 the phytate–zinc molar ratio of total diet exceeds 15, and high-phytate, soya-protein products
144 constitute the primary protein source.

145 The Nordic Council of Ministers assumed an absorption of 40% from a mixed animal and
146 vegetable protein diet; this was the same as their previous report because they considered
147 there were no new scientific data to justify changes⁽¹⁴⁾.

148 There are several models for estimating zinc absorption at different levels of phytate intake.
149 The International Zinc Nutrition Consultative Group (IZiNCG) model⁽¹⁵⁾ predicts that at
150 phytate:zinc molar ratios of between 4 and 18, zinc absorption is 26% and 34% in men and
151 women respectively, whereas at ratios >18, absorption falls to 18% and 25% in men and
152 women respectively. EFSA⁽¹²⁾ calculated values for dietary zinc absorption at different levels
153 of phytate (and zinc) intake using a refined trivariate model⁽¹⁶⁾ (Figure 1). This model was
154 based on the original one developed by Miller et al (2007)⁽¹⁷⁾, and involved a careful and

155 critical selection of individual values for zinc absorption from meals that were considered
156 more representative of Western diets. The modifying effects of calcium, protein and iron
157 were found to be insignificant and therefore were discounted in the final model⁽¹⁶⁾. Using this
158 model, EFSA derived DRVs for levels of phytate of 300, 600, 900 and 1200 mg/day (Figure
159 1) which covers the usual mean/median intakes in different European countries although
160 higher values may be found in certain countries.

161 ANSES⁽¹⁸⁾ endorsed the approach proposed by EFSA, whereas D-A-CH cited references to
162 support their selected value of 30% from a mixed diet⁽¹⁹⁾.

163

164 **Approaches used to derive DRVs for iron**

165 *Estimating physiological requirements*

166 There are no data on the relationship between iron intake and biomarkers of physiological
167 requirement that can be used to derive DRVs, therefore the factorial approach has been used.
168 Obligatory (sometimes referred to as basal or endogenous) losses of iron (e.g. dermal,
169 epithelial, intestinal, and urinary) were measured in three small groups of men in the 1960's
170 using radio-isotopes, with reported mean values ranging from 0.90-1.02 mg/d⁽²⁰⁾. Based on
171 these data, basal iron losses of 0.014 mg/kg body weight per day have been used by several
172 bodies^{(3) (14) (21)}, to which estimates of menstrual iron losses had to be added in order to
173 estimate the requirement for women of childbearing age. Using the same technique, a more
174 recent study measured basal iron losses of 1.07 mg/d in men and 1.69-1.89 mg/d for pre-
175 menopausal women⁽²²⁾. The results are summarised in Table 2. EFSA developed a
176 regression model equation from the individual data on iron turnover and daily losses from the
177 Hunt et al study⁽²²⁾ in order to derive distributions for iron losses in men and women, from
178 which percentiles could be estimated as the basis for determining AR and PRI values⁽²³⁾. For
179 men the 50th centile was 0.95 mg/d and for pre-menopausal women it was 1.34 mg/d.

180

181 *Converting physiological requirements into dietary intakes*

182 The efficiency of iron absorption is determined by body iron requirements, which is related to
183 body iron stores⁽²⁴⁾ and the properties of the diet, i.e. iron content and the presence and
184 quantity of enhancers and inhibitors of absorption^(25,26). When deriving DRVs, physiological

185 iron requirements need to be converted into dietary intakes by applying a bioavailability
186 factor.

187 DRV setting bodies have used different values for the bioavailability factor, but they are not
188 based on primary data for iron absorption from the whole diet over an extended period of
189 time because this is very difficult to measure. EURRECA's systematic review of iron
190 absorption from whole diets⁽²⁷⁾ identified 19 pertinent studies from the US, Europe and
191 Mexico. Large variations in mean non-haem iron absorption, ranging from 0.7 to 22.9%,
192 were found between the studies, which were related to the iron status of the individuals.

193 Various algorithms have been developed to estimate iron absorption from the whole diet by
194 taking into account the quantity of enhancers and inhibitors of iron absorption. The early
195 algorithms used data from single meal studies in which iron absorption was measured by
196 labelling the dietary iron with radio- or stable isotopes⁽²⁸⁾, but single meal studies tend to
197 exaggerate the effect of enhancers and inhibitors⁽²⁹⁾. More recently, a diet-based algorithm
198 was developed using iron absorption data from whole diets or several meals⁽³⁰⁾. This
199 algorithm was used to estimate absorption from the US diet, taking into account the mean
200 intake of inhibitors (phytate and polyphenols) and enhancers (ascorbic acid), and the
201 proportion of haem (10%) and non-haem (90%) iron⁽³¹⁾ in the diet. Total dietary iron
202 absorption was calculated to be 15.5%.

203 Various values for dietary iron absorption (bioavailability) that are based on results from
204 isotope absorption studies are used by different expert bodies charged with setting DRVs
205 (Table 3). Values range between 10% and 18% for Western-type diets^(2, 3, 13, 14, 19, 21, 23, 32).

206 The US IOM (2001)⁽³⁾ considered that the maximum bioavailability of iron was 18% in (non-
207 pregnant, non-lactating) adults. This value was based on the assumption that 10% of dietary
208 iron intake was haem iron⁽³³⁾, with haem iron absorption being 25%⁽³⁴⁾, and non-haem iron
209 absorption being 16.8% in individuals with a serum ferritin concentration of 15 µg/L⁽²⁹⁾. With
210 regard to iron losses, special consideration was given to the use of oral contraceptives and
211 hormone replacement therapy, and also to vegetarianism, intestinal parasitic infection, blood
212 donation, and increased iron losses in exercise and intense endurance training. The decrease
213 in menstrual blood losses in women using oral contraceptives⁽³⁵⁾ was taken into
214 consideration, which gave an estimated reduction in losses of about 60%. The iron
215 bioavailability of a vegetarian diet was estimated to be about 10% instead of 18% for a
216 mixed Western diet.

217 FAO/WHO⁽²¹⁾ based their Recommended Nutrient Intakes for women aged ≥ 19 years on the
218 95th percentile of the total requirements for absorbed iron (the average physiological
219 requirement was assumed to be 1.46 mg/day). They proposed four different bioavailability
220 figures: 15% and 12% for Western-type diets, depending mainly on meat intake, and 10%
221 and 5% for developing countries.

222 EFSA employed values for dietary iron absorption that were derived using a novel approach
223 developed by Dainty et al (2014)⁽³⁶⁾. Total iron (haem and non-haem) absorption was
224 predicted from a probability model, based on measures of iron intake and status in a
225 representative group of men and women from the UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey.
226 The model can provide estimates of total iron absorption from a mixed Western-style diet at
227 any level of iron status. The EFSA Panel selected a target value of 30 $\mu\text{g/L}$ for serum ferritin
228 concentration for men and premenopausal women, and at this level, the predicted iron
229 absorption values were 16% and 18%, respectively⁽²³⁾. Additional data from a nationally
230 representative survey in Ireland and data collected in older people in the UK have
231 subsequently been included in the model⁽³⁷⁾, and an interactive tool developed for estimating
232 total dietary iron absorption in adult populations with a selected target serum ferritin
233 concentration (available from on-line supporting material).

234

235 **Conclusions**

236 Accounting for the bioavailability of iron and zinc remains one of the most challenging
237 aspects of setting DRVs. It has been established that the dietary levels of phytate and zinc are
238 the key determinants of zinc absorption in adults, but further studies are required to examine
239 the relationship in other population groups, especially infants, children and pregnant women.
240 Similarly, for iron, the model used to predict dietary absorption was derived from adult data,
241 and further work is required to develop models for other population groups. The existing
242 model for adults needs to be adapted for lower and middle-income countries, in which intakes
243 of iron absorption inhibitors may be higher than Western diets and haem iron intakes may be
244 lower. Good quality representative data for iron intake and status (serum ferritin, taking due
245 account of the presence of infection/inflammation) could be used to evaluate the validity of
246 the existing model. Alternative interactive tools for predicting dietary iron absorption could
247 be based on the mathematical relationship between iron intake, iron status and iron
248 requirements (all of which can be estimated with a reasonable degree of accuracy), since iron

249 status is determined from the difference between physiological requirements and the quantity
250 of dietary iron that is absorbed.

251

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254 commercial or not-for-profit sectors.

255

256 **Conflict of interest**

257 At the time of writing this review SFT was an appointed expert for the European Food Safety
258 Authority Panel on Dietetic Products, Nutrition and Allergies (2009-2018) and the Working
259 Group on Dietary Reference Values Minerals (2009-2015, vice-chair 2015-2018). She was
260 also a member of an ad hoc Committee of the US National Academies of Sciences,
261 Engineering and Medicine on the application of methodological approaches to global
262 harmonization of nutrient intake recommendations for young children and women of
263 reproductive age (2017-2018). Agnès de Sesmaisons is employed with EFSA in the Nutrition
264 Unit that provides scientific and administrative support to the Panel on Dietetics Products,
265 Nutrition and Allergies in the area of Dietary Reference Values for minerals. However, the
266 present article is published under the sole responsibility of the authors and may not be
267 considered as an EFSA scientific output. The positions and opinions presented in this article
268 are those of the authors alone and do not necessarily represent the views or scientific work of
269 EFSA.

270

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Legend for figure

Figure 1. Refined trivariate model of dietary zinc absorption at different levels of phytate and zinc to derive DRVs for zinc at phytate levels of 300, 600, 900 and 1200 mg/day.

Table 1. Absorption values used for zinc

Report	Absorption (with supporting evidence if provided)															
DH 1991 ⁽²⁾	30%															
NL 1992 ⁽¹³⁾	25%															
IOM 2001 ⁽²⁵⁾	41% in men 48% in women Asymptotic regression of absorbed zinc on ingested zinc															
FAO/WHO 2004 ⁽²¹⁾	High bioavailability 50% Moderate bioavailability 30% Low bioavailability 15% Algorithms for high, moderate and low bioavailability diets, and zinc content of the diet															
NCM 2012 ⁽¹⁴⁾	40%															
EFSA 2014 ⁽¹²⁾	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Phytate level (mg/day)</th> <th>Men</th> <th>Women</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>300</td> <td>42%</td> <td>46%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>600</td> <td>33%</td> <td>38%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>900</td> <td>28%</td> <td>32%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1200</td> <td>24%</td> <td>28%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> Trivariate saturation response model (zinc absorption, zinc intake and phytate level)	Phytate level (mg/day)	Men	Women	300	42%	46%	600	33%	38%	900	28%	32%	1200	24%	28%
Phytate level (mg/day)	Men	Women														
300	42%	46%														
600	33%	38%														
900	28%	32%														
1200	24%	28%														
ANSES 2016 ⁽¹⁸⁾	Based on EFSA 2014, assuming phytate levels of 300-900 mg/day for the French diet															
D-A-CH 2016 ⁽¹⁹⁾	30% from a mixed diet ^(38,39)															

ANSES: French Agency for Food, Environmental and Occupational Health and Safety; D–A–CH: Deutschland–Austria–Confoederatio Helvetica; DH: UK Department of Health; EFSA: European Food Safety Authority; FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization; IOM: US Institute of Medicine of the National Academy of Sciences; NCM: Nordic Council of Ministers; NL: Health Council of the Netherlands; WHO: World Health Organization.

TABLE 2. Total obligatory iron losses measured using radioisotopes in adult men and women^(20,22).

Country	Participant Characteristics	Daily Iron Losses (mg/day) (\pm SD)	Reference
USA	Men 21-61 years (n=12), mean body weight 78.6 kg	Mean = 0.95 (\pm 0.30)	Green et al., 1968 ⁽²⁰⁾
Venezuela	Men 22-55 years (n=12), mean body weight 67.6 kg	Mean = 0.90 (\pm 0.31)	
South Africa	Men 21-65 years (n=17), mean body weight 62.3 kg	Mean = 1.02 (\pm 0.22)	
USA	Men 30-58 years (n=29), mean body weight 92 kg	Mean = 1.07 (\pm 0.47);	Hunt et al., 2009 ⁽²²⁾
USA	*Women 32-47 years (n=15), mean body weight 73 kg	**Mean = 1.89 [1.07, 3.33]	
USA	Women 32-47 years (n=19), mean body weight 74 kg	**Mean = 1.69 [0.98- 2.92]	

*Pre-menopausal women, no hormonal contraceptives users

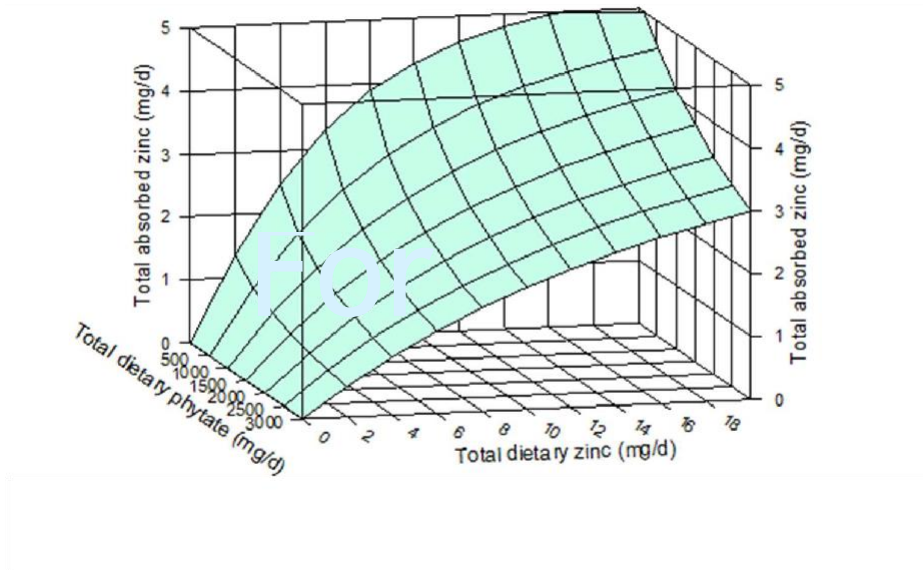
**Geometric mean with -SD and +SD in brackets

Table 3. Bioavailability factors used to convert total absorbed iron into dietary intake

Report	Bioavailability factor (with supporting evidence if provided)
DH 1991 ⁽²⁾	15%
NL 1992 ⁽¹³⁾	12%
IOM 2001 ⁽³⁾	18% - mixed diet (assuming 10% dietary iron is haem, with absorption of 25%, and 90% is non-haem with absorption of 10%, overall iron absorption = 17.6%) 10% - vegetarian diet
FAO/WHO 2004 ⁽²¹⁾	5% - developing countries (high phytate, high tannin, negligible meat/fish, low ascorbic acid intake) 10% - developing countries 12% - Western diets 15% - Western diet (high meat intake)
NHMRC/NZ MoH 2006 ⁽³²⁾	18% - mixed western diet including animal food 10% - vegetarian diet Based on IOM 2001 ⁽³⁾
NCM 2012 ⁽¹⁴⁾	15%
EFSA 2015 ⁽²³⁾	18% in pre-menopausal women 16% in men (target serum ferritin 30 ug/L, Dainty et al 2014)
D-A-CH 2016 ⁽¹⁹⁾	10-15%

D–A–CH: Deutschland–Austria–Confoederatio Helvetica; DH: UK Department of Health; EFSA : European Food Safety Authority; FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization; IOM: US Institute of Medicine of the National Academy of Sciences; NCM: Nordic Council of Ministers; NHMRC: Australian National Health and Medical Research Council; NL: Health Council of the Netherlands; NZ MoH: New Zealand Ministry of Health; WHO: World Health Organization.

Figure 1.



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Phytate (mg/d)		300	600	900	1200
% Zinc absorption	Men	42	33	28	24
	Women	46	38	32	28