1

Association of adherence to the Baltic Sea and Mediterranean diets with indices of sarcopenia in elderly women, OSPTRE-FPS study.

Masoud Isanejad ^{1,2}, Joonas Sirola ^{2,3}, Jaakko Mursu ¹, Toni Rikkonen ², Heikki Kröger ^{2,3}, Marjo Tuppurainen ⁴, Arja T Erkkilä ¹.

¹ Institute of Public Health and Clinical Nutrition, University of Eastern Finland, P.O. Box 1627 Kuopio, Finland.

² Kuopio Musculoskeletal Research Unit, University of Eastern Finland, Kuopio, Finland

³ Department of Orthopaedics and Traumatology, Kuopio University Hospital, Kuopio Finland

⁴ Department of Obstetrics and Gynaegology, Kuopio University Hospital, Kuopio, Finland

Masoud Isanejad (corresponding author): *Address*: Institute of Public Health and Clinical Nutrition, University of Eastern Finland, Yliopistonranta 1C, PO Box 1627, FI70211 Kuopio, Finland. *Phone number*: +358449753845 *Email address*: <u>masoud.isanejad@uef.fi</u>

Abbreviated title: Baltic Sea and Mediterranean diets and sarcopenia

Key words: Baltic Sea diet; Mediterranean diet; Sarcopenia; Muscle mass; Physical function

1 Abstract

Purpose: To examine whether higher adherence to Baltic Sea diet (BSD) and Mediterranean diet
 (MED) have beneficial association with sarcopenia indices in elderly women.

4 Methods: In total 554 women, aged 65–72 years belonging to OSTPRE-FPS study filled a questionnaire 5 on lifestyle factors and 3-day food record at baseline in 2002. Intervention group received calcium 1000 6 mg/d and cholecalciferol 800 IU for 3 years. Control group received neither supplementation nor placebo. 7 Body composition was measured by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry. Physical function measures 8 included walking speed 10m, chair rises, one leg stance, knee extension, handgrip strength and squat at 9 baseline and at year 3. Sarcopenia and short physical performance battery (SPPB) score were defined 10 based on the European working group on sarcopenia criteria. Lower body muscle quality (LBMQ) was 11 calculated as walking speed 10m/ leg muscle mass. BSD and MED scores were calculated.

Results: Women in the higher quartiles of BSD and MED scores lost less relative skeletal muscle index and total body lean mass (LM) over 3-year follow-up ($P_{trend} \le 0.034$). At the baseline, women in the higher BSD score quartiles had greater LM, faster walking speed 10m, greater LBMQ, higher SPPB score ($P_{trend} \le 0.034$), and higher proportion of squat test completion. Similarly, women in the higher quartiles of MED sore had significantly faster walking speed 10m, greater LBMQ ($P_{trend} \le 0.041$) and higher proportion of squat test completion.

18 Conclusions: Better diet quality as measured by higher adherence to BSD and MED might reduce the 19 risk of sarcopenia in elderly women.

20 INTRODUCTION

21 Sarcopenia, the degenerative and involuntary loss of skeletal lean mass (LM) and physical function (PF), 22 has been determined as a major cause of mobility disability, and loss of independence. Sarcopenia is 23 estimated to affect one-quarter of the elderly [1-3]. The pathogenesis of sarcopenia is multifactorial and 24 is attributed to undernutrition, oxidative stress, inflammation, endocrine changes and physical inactivity 25 [4]. Studies that assessed the role of nutrition in sarcopenia have focused on specific components of 26 foods, often single nutrients. Although these studies have consistently provided knowledge for benefits 27 of nutritional factors such as vitamin D, vitamin E, carotenoids, energy, protein, and whole grains in 28 ageing sarcopenia [5, 6], this approach has limitations [7]. The role of a single factor is often small and 29 difficult to capture in observational studies; also, people eat foods, not nutrients. Thus, dietary score 30 analysis is a sensible approach to understand the role of the whole diet on sarcopenia.

31 A dietary score represents a summary value of consumed foods or nutrients and characterizes a measure 32 of adherence to a predefined (healthy) diet [8, 9], in which higher scores indicate diet quality and a higher 33 intake of beneficial foods (such as whole grains, vegetables, fruits, and fish). In the past years, 34 Mediterranean (MED) and Baltic Sea diets (BSD) have been related to positive health outcomes and 35 received growing attention in European and particularly in Nordic settings (Denmark, Finland, Iceland, 36 Norway and Sweden) [8, 10]. The MED is a model of a healthy diet that represents the dietary pattern in 37 population from the Mediterranean area which has also been frequently applied in other populations [8]. 38 However, due to the differences in food culture, applying MED directly to the Nordic population could 39 be challenging [10]. BSD was therefore initially developed in order to present the healthier choices for 40 the diet consumed in the Nordic countries [10, 11]. Many foods cultivated in the Nordic countries, for 41 example, apples and berries, rye, rapeseed oil, salmon and dairy products, are considered to have health-42 enhancing features [12]. Higher adherence to MED has consistently been associated with lower cognitive 43 functional decline, less dementia and better PF in the elderly [8, 13, 14]. It was shown that higher 44 adherence to MED was associated with better lower body performance [15]. Higher adherence to the 45 MED was associated also with lower odds of sarcopenia among elderly men and women [14]. However, 46 to our knowledge the association of MED with sarcopenia in Nordic countries has not been studied. BSD 47 is likely to be inversely associated with abdominal obesity [11], and it was associated with better overall 48 physical performance in elderly Finnish women [16].

49 Studies examining the effect of diet quality on indices of sarcopenia in the elderly are scarce. We

50 hypothesized that higher adherence to BSD and MED provide a wide range of foods and nutrients that

51 can benefit LM and PF. We evaluated and compared the associations of BSD and MED scores with LM,

52 and PF measures in Finnish elderly women in both cross-sectional and prospective settings.

53 METHODS

54 Study population

55 Data of the present study were collected from the Osteoporosis Risk Factor and Prevention - Fracture 56 Prevention Study (OSTPRE-FPS), which was a 3-year intervention to investigate the effect of calcium 57 and vitamin D supplementation on incidence of falls and fractures among elderly women. The subjects 58 were selected from the population-based OSTPRE-cohort [17]. In total 3432 women volunteered to 59 participate in the study, and 750 women were randomly invited into this subsample for participating in 60 detailed examinations including measurement of body composition, clinical, physical and laboratory 61 tests [18]. Of these, 554 returned valid food record at baseline and had valid body composition and PF 62 measurements for both at the baseline and at the 3-year follow-up. The subjects were randomized to 63 intervention group (n=272) receiving daily cholecalciferol 800 IU and calcium 1000 mg for 3 years and 64 control group receiving neither supplementation nor placebo (n=282). All clinical measurements were performed in Kuopio Musculoskeletal Research Unit of the Clinical research center of the University of 65 66 Kuopio. All participants provided written permission for participation. The study was approved in 67 October 2001 by the ethical committee of Kuopio University Hospital. The study was registered in 68 Clinical trials.gov by the identification NCT00592917.

69 Dietary intakes

70 Dietary intake was assessed by using a 3-day food record at the baseline. A questionnaire and the 71 instructions were sent to participants beforehand, and they were returned on the visiting day. 72 Questionnaire included 3 consecutive days, with 2 days during the week and one day in the weekend 73 (Saturday or Sunday). In case of uncertainties in the food record, a nutritionist called the participant for 74 additional information [19]. Assessment of underreporting has previously been described and none of 75 the participants was excluded due to low energy intake [18]. Consumption of foods and the intake of 76 nutrients were calculated using Nutrica program (version 2.5, Finnish social insurance institute, Turku, 77 Finland).

78 Baltic Sea diet score

79 We used published definitions of BSD and that have been applied in Nordic settings with slight 80 modifications due to different dietary assessment methods in earlier studies [10]. The final BSD score 81 consisted of nine components, of which five are foods or food groups and four nutrient intakes. The BSD 82 score components included 1) fruits and berries, 2) vegetables (root vegetables, legumes, nuts, 83 mushrooms and vegetable products– potatoes excluded), 3) fiber from cereal products, 4) low-fat milk 84 (skim milk and milk with fat content less than 2 %), and 5) total fish intake as positive components and 85 6) processed meat products (sausage) as a negative component. 7) Total fat intake was expressed as a 86 percentage of total energy intake (E%). 8) Quality of fat intake was represented by calculating a ratio of 87 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) to saturated fatty acid (SFA). 9) Frequency of consumption of 88 alcohol portions (1 portion=12 g) was asked in a separate questionnaire. The score construction is 89 presented in Table 1. BSD score ranged from 0–25, higher points indicating higher adherence to BSD.

90 Mediterranean diet score

91 MED score is the most widely used diet score [8]. A predefined MED score was selected based on the 92 existing literature and particularly those studies that have applied the MED score in Nordic cohorts [8, 93 20, 21], as well as on the suggested positive association of MED score with PF [13]. The score comprised 94 of six positive components, including 1) high intake of root vegetables, legumes and nuts, mushrooms 95 and vegetable products (potato excluded), 2) high intake of fruit, 3) high intake of cereals and potatoes, 96 4) high intake of fish, 5) high PUFA+ monounsaturated fatty acid (MUFA): SFA ratio (as surrogate of 97 quality of dietary fat), and 6) moderate alcohol intake. Two negative components were included 7) total 98 meat including sausage and eggs, and 8) total milk and dairy products. Construction of MED score is 99 described in Table 1. Those who met all of the MED score components received a score of 8, reflecting 100 maximum adherence.

101 Health examination and measurements

All the information related to lifestyle, income per month, chronic diseases, falls and medications was gathered by using a self-administered questionnaire [22]. Height and weight of participants were measured in light indoor clothing without shoes, and BMI was calculated kg/m². Total exercise time/week was based on self-reported amounts and types of exercise/week. To measure body composition whole body dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) scans were performed by specially trained nurses [23]. Relative skeletal muscle index (RSMI) was calculated as the sum of the nonfat,
nonbone skeletal muscle in arms and legs divided by the square of height (m²) which is an indicator of
LM in the diagnosis of sarcopenia [3].

110 Physical function measurements

111 PF measures were assessed by trained nurses at the baseline and at year 3, consisting of handgrip strength 112 (kPa), number of chair rises in 30 seconds, ability to squat, knee extension (kPa), maximal walking speed 10 m (m/s), and one leg stance performance for 30 seconds. Handgrip strength was measured in a 113 114 controlled sitting position with a pneumatic hand-held dynamometer (Martin Vigorimeter, Germany) by 115 calculating the mean of three successive measurements from the dominant hand [18]. The chair rise test 116 was conducted if participant was able to stand at least once without using arms from a straight-backed, 117 non-padded, armless chair. Maximal walking speed was calculated by the time of walking the 10 m. Any 118 measurement errors were excluded from the statistical analysis [22]. The follow-up variable of knee 119 extension was excluded from analysis due to unexpected increase in measured extension force and/or 120 possible data entry errors. Absolute changes in PF measures were calculated by subtracting the baseline 121 measures from those measured at year 3. PF assessment methodology have been described and applied earlier in this data set [18, 22]. 122

123 Short physical performance battery (SPPB) score was calculated based on European working group on 124 sarcopenia (EWGSOP) definition [24]. Three individual measures of physical performance including 125 walking speed 10 m (m/s), chair rises in 30 seconds and one leg stance performance were included [25]. 126 Individuals unable to complete the task received a score of 0, PF tests were further categorized in quartiles 127 and each quartile was scored on scale of 1-4 points. The total SPPB score ranging from 0 to 12; higher 128 scores indicate better performance. Previous studies indicated that an SPPB cut point of less than 10 129 identifies individuals at increased risk of mobility disability [26]. However, due to the different study 130 setting and that only 8 percent of women had SPPB score over 10, we defined the development of 131 "mobility disability" as an SPPB score belonging to the lowest quartile. The lower body muscle quality (LBMQ) was calculated using walking speed 10 m per leg LM, explained by association between lower 132 133 leg LM and poorer low extremity performance and walking speed in older men and women [27, 28].

134 Diagnosis of sarcopenia

135 We have previously defined sarcopenia based on EWGSOP criteria in this data set [18, 22]. In brief, 136 women were subdivided into quartiles according to their RSMI, handgrip strength and walking speed 137 values (the women who were not able to perform the tests allocated into the group of the lowest quartile). 138 A woman was classified as sarcopenic if she belonged to the lowest quartile of RSMI and the lowest 139 quartile of either handgrip strength or walking speed or both. A non-sarcopenic woman did not belong 140 to the lowest quartile of any measurement, whereas pre-sarcopenic women were in the lowest quartile of 141 RSMI but not in the lowest quartile of any other outcome measure. Non-classified women belonged to 142 the lowest quartile of either handgrip strength or walking speed or both, but not to that of RSMI. To 143 achieve balanced numbers of participants in the stratified analysis, women were classified as sarcopenic 144 if they belonged to pre-sarcopenia, sarcopenia and severe sarcopenia (lowest quartile of RSMI) and non-145 sarcopenic group was compiled from non-sarcopenic and non-classified groups (normal RSMI).

146 Statistical analysis

We reported MED and BSD scores in quartiles to enable comparability of their results. We analyzed BSD and MED score also as continuous variables. The agreement between the MED and BSD score was not significant (*kappa* value= 0.020 and P= 0.148). We compared the participant characteristics according to BSD and MED score quartiles using chi-square analysis or ANOVA, as appropriate. Independent sample t-test was used to compare the baseline characteristic between sarcopenic and nonsarcopenic groups as well as intervention and control groups.

153 For the cross-sectional analysis, the baseline values of LM, RSMI and PF measures were tested in total 154 population. In the follow-up analysis, we tested the interaction terms between BSD and MED with 155 vitamin D and calcium intervention. There was no significant interaction by intervention; therefore, data 156 were pooled for total population (intervention and control group) adjusted for the intervention. However, 157 to account for the possible effect of vitamin D and calcium intervention, we tested further the associations 158 only in the control group. In the prospective analysis, we used the absolute changes of PF measures, and 159 the proportional change of LM and RSMI to correct for effect of body size since bigger individuals have 160 greater LM. ANCOVA was used to test the differences among the groups, multiple linear regression 161 models were used to calculate (β) and SE introducing LM, RSMI and PF at the baseline and changes in 162 them as dependent variables with BSD or MED score as independent variable. Logistic regression was 163 used to determine the association of BSD and MED with categorical outcomes (sarcopenia, mobility 164 disability, and squat test). P-trend was based on a linear trend across BSD and MED score quartiles by 165 using the median value in each category as a continuous variable in the linear regression model as 166 exposure.

167 We used two models with hierarchical adjustments. Model 1 was adjusted for age and energy intake. 168 Model 2 was adjusted for variables in model 1 and smoking, total physical activity, hormone therapy, 169 osteoporosis, rheumatoid arthritis, income per month, and fat mass percentage. Depression, diabetes, and 170 fall were not included in the models because their associations with the diet scores and outcome measures 171 in the bivariate correlation analysis were P > 0.10. Longitudinal analyses were adjusted for the muscle 172 mass and PF baseline measures to account for differential subsequent changes depending on the initial 173 measures. All statistical analysis were executed using SPSS software version 21 for Windows (IBM 174 Corp., Armonk, NY). Result was considered significant if a P value was < 0.05.

175 **RESULTS**

176 Characteristics of the study population at baseline

177 The BSD score ranged from 1 to 25 in our population, and the mean was 13 points. In the model adjusted 178 for age and energy intake the consumption of positive BSD score components (fruits, berries, vegetables, 179 fiber from cereals, fish, milk with fact content <2%, and PUFA to SFA ratio) were substantially higher, 180 and intakes of negative BSD score components (sausage and total fat energy %) were lower in higher 181 score quartiles. At the baseline, women with higher adherence to BSD were more likely to be nonsmokers 182 and engage more in physical activity (Table 2). The mean for MED score was 4.7 and ranged from 0 to 183 8. Energy intake was significantly higher in the higher quartile of MED score (Table 3). Consumptions 184 of fruits, vegetables, potato, legumes and nuts, milk and dairy products were significantly higher in higher 185 MED score quartiles. Sarcopenic women (n = 127) had significantly lower mean weight (-13.2%), BMI 186 (-12.7%), FM (-16.0%) and LM (-12.0%) as compared to non-sarcopenic group (n = 398) (supplementary 187 table 1). Sarcopenic women had also higher protein intake (g/kg BW), higher PUFA to SAFA ratio and 188 higher MUFA+ PUFA to SAFA ratio. At the 3 year of follow-up 386 women were non-sarcopenic and 189 139 were sarcopenic, whereas in the control group 216 women were classified as non-sarcopenic and 66 190 as sarcopenic. There were no significant differences in baseline characteristics between intervention and 191 control groups (data not shown).

192 Association of BSD score and sarcopenia indices at the baseline and over 3-year follow-up

193 At the baseline, in model 2 women in the higher quartiles of BSD score had significantly greater LM (P 194 trend = 0.044), faster walking speed 10m (P trend = 0.006), and longer one leg stance performance (P trend = 0.044)) 195 0.050). Those women had higher SPPB score ($P_{trend} = 0.034$) and better LBMQ ($P_{trend} = 0.017$) (Table 196 4). BSD score was non-significantly associated also with lower mobility disability ($P_{trend} = 0.051$). In 197 prospective analysis, women in the highest quartile of BSD score lost less RSMI ($P_{trend} = 0.022$) and 198 total body LM ($P_{trend} = 0.015$) as compared to those in lower quartiles (Figure 1). Further, in the analyses 199 using BSD score as continuous variable, a positive cross-sectional association with total body LM, 200 walking speed, LBMQ and SPPB was observed, whereas BSD score as a continuous variable was 201 positively associated with proportional changes of RSMI and total body LM over the 3-year follow-up 202 (supplementary table 2). The interaction of BSD with interventional vitamin D and calcium 203 supplementation was not significant ($P \ge 0.180$). In the stratified prospective analysis in the control 204 group, women in lowest quartile of BSD score lost more RSMI ($P_{trend} = 0.018$), and total body LM (P205 trend = 0.004). Women in the highest BSD score quartile, showed the highest SPPB improvement (P trend 206 = 0.041), had a 55% higher squat test completion (OR: 0.45; 95% CI: 0.11-0.98) and 67% lower risk of 207 sarcopenia (OR: 0.33; 95% CI: 0.13, 0.79) as compared to the lowest quartile, over 3 year of follow-up 208 (supplementary table 3). Similar results were observed using the BSD score as continuous variable (data 209 not shown).

210 Association of MED score and sarcopenia indices at the baseline and over 3-year follow-up

Women in the higher quartiles of MED score had significantly faster walking speed 10m ($P_{trend} = 0.041$), greater LBMQ ($P_{trend} = 0.017$) at the baseline (Table 4). In prospective analysis, women in the lowest quartile of MED score lost more RSMI ($P_{trend} = 0.001$) and total body LM ($P_{trend} = 0.008$) as compared to those in higher quartiles (Figure 2). When using MED score as a continuous variable, a significant positive association was observed with walking speed and knee extension at the baseline and with proportional changes of RSMI and total body LM over the 3-year follow-up (supplementary table 2).

The interaction of MED score with vitamin D and calcium supplementation was not significant ($P \ge 0.730$). In the stratified analysis using only the control group, women in the lowest quartile of MED score

had higher loss of RSMI ($P_{trend} = 0.007$) and total body LM ($P_{trend} = 0.001$) over the 3-year follow-up

(supplementary table 3). We observed the similar results using the MED score as continuous variable(data not shown).

222 Association of BSD and MED score components with sarcopenia indices

We assessed further the associations of the BSD and MED score components with total body LM and PF at the baseline and over the 3-year follow-up with same adjustment as in model 2 (age, energy intake, smoking, total physical activity, hormone therapy, osteoporosis, rheumatoid arthritis, income per month, and fat mass percentage). Results showed no significant associations except that higher total fruit and vegetable (excluding potato) consumptions were positively associated ($\beta \ge 0.08$ and $P \le 0.049$) with walking speed 10 m, while higher alcohol consumption was negatively associated with walking speed 10 m at the baseline ($\beta = -0.30$ and P = 0.034) (data not shown).

230 DISCUSSION

231 This cross-sectional and prospective study addressed the associations of BSD and MED with sarcopenia 232 indices in elderly women. Findings of our study indicated that women with the lower adherence to BSD 233 and MED lost more RSMI and total body LM as compared to those with higher adherence over the 3-234 year follow-up. The cross-sectional results showed that better adherence to BSD was associated with 235 greater total body LM, faster walking speed 10 m, longer one leg stance performance, higher SPPB score, 236 and greater LBMQ at the baseline. Those with higher adherence to BSD tended to have lower risk of 237 mobility disability. Further, women with higher adherence to MED had faster walking speed 10 m and 238 greater LBMQ at the baseline. One explanation to the attenuation observed in the prospective analysis 239 could be the small changes in PF measures over of the 3-year follow-up. The associations of the 240 components of BSD and MED with muscle and PF measures were not significant; except for the 241 association of fruits and vegetables with walking speed 10 m. Therefore, consistent with previous studies, 242 the overall quality of diet might have more importance than only one food item [11, 29], and it might 243 not be sufficient to measure only one food item.

Vitamin D supplementation can potentially affect muscle mass and PF in the elderly [30-32]. Given that about half of the subject in this study received calcium and vitamin D supplementation over the 3-year follow-up, we performed stratified analysis to evaluate the association of BSD and MED with sarcopenia indices only in the control group. Among women in the control group, lower adherence to BSD was associated with greater loss of RSMI and total body LM. Those women with higher adherence to BSD 249 had better SPPB, better results in squat test and lower risk of sarcopenia over the 3-year follow-up. Lower 250 adherence to MED was associated also with greater loss of RSMI and total body LM. Further analysis in 251 the present data showed no significant effect of vitamin D and calcium supplementation on muscle mass 252 and PF measures (M.I, A.E and J.S, unpublished results), which was also explained elsewhere [18, 33]. 253 Therefore, the possibility of vitamin D and calcium supplementation modification on the muscle mass 254 and PF measures is not likely in this study. However, previous findings regarding the effect of vitamin 255 D supplementation on sarcopenia are inconclusive [34, 35]. A recent meta-analysis suggested that 256 vitamin D has no significant effect on muscle mass [34]. However, in a cross-sectional study that included 257 2258 men and 3005 women aged \geq 50 years, sarcopenia (defined as appendicular skeletal muscle 258 mass/body weight <2 standard deviations below gender-specific means for young adults) was inversely 259 associated with serum vitamin D levels in women, but not in men [36]. In another cohort study vitamin 260 D status was associated with functional limitations cross-sectionally and longitudinally in individuals 261 aged 55 to 65 years and those 65 years and older [37].

262 Our results are consistent with the existing, although limited, literature that supports an association 263 between diet quality and PF in the elderly. In the recent prospective study among ageing women and 264 men, a higher adherence to a healthy Nordic diet (similar to BSD) was associated with better physical 265 performance 10 years later, including the 6-min walk, arm curl and chair stand tests, reflecting better 266 aerobic endurance and upper- and lower-body strength [16]. Results of the InCHIANTI study [15], 267 indicated that higher adherence to MED was associated with better lower body performance. Participants 268 with higher adherence experienced less decline in SPPB score, at the 3, 6 and 9 year follow-up, compared 269 to those with lower adherence. Higher adherence to MED at baseline was also associated with a lower 270 risk of low physical activity and low walking speed but not with feelings of exhaustion and poor muscle 271 strength. In the study by Shahar et al.[13] among 2225 well-functioning men and women aged ≥ 70 272 years, over 8 years of follow-up, both usual and rapid 20 m walking speed declined in the three MED 273 adherence groups; however, the group with the highest adherence to the MED performed better at all 274 time points.

Multiple mechanisms can explain the effects of BSD and MED on LM and PF in the elderly. Oxidative stress is a major mechanism implicated in the pathogenesis of sarcopenia, and aging muscle shows increased oxidative damage to DNA, protein, and lipids [38, 39]. High intake of fruits and vegetables in MED and BSD could provide antioxidants such as vitamin C, vitamin E and carotenoids. Carotenoids 279 and antioxidants quench free radicals, reduce damage from reactive oxygen species, and appear to 280 modulate redox-sensitive transcription factors (such as NF- κ B, IL-6 and other proinflammatory 281 cytokines) [6, 40, 41]. Recent epidemiological studies in community-dwelling older adults show that low 282 serum/plasma carotenoids and vitamin E are independently associated with low skeletal muscle strength 283 and the development of walking disability [42-44]. There were significantly higher intakes of 284 carotenoids, vitamin E and vitamin C in the highest quartiles of BSD and MED score (Table 2 and 3). In 285 contrast, intakes of fat and processed meat are related to increased oxidation and inflammation [45]. 286 Those in the lowest BSD score quartile had significantly higher fat and sausage intakes. However, fat, 287 total meat and sausage intakes were not significantly different by MED score quartiles. This can be 288 explained by that total fat intake was not included in MED score construction. In addition, dietary fat 289 quality might have more importance than the total fat intake. Both MED and BSD are characterized by 290 high PUFA and MUFA intake to SFA ratio [8, 11]. Intake of n-3 PUFA (EPA, DHA and ALA) which 291 are known for their anti-inflammatory properties were related to leg strength and chair-rise capacity [46], 292 and similarly consumption of fatty fish (as enriched source of PUFAs) to grip strength [47]. In addition, 293 n-3 PUFAs have potential to stimulate the muscle protein synthesis and subsequently muscle mass 294 production [48]. In the InCHIANTI study, serum levels of n-3 PUFA were related to physical 295 performance [49]. This suggests that the anti-inflammatory actions of n-3 PUFA may play a role in the 296 prevention of sarcopenia.

297 Compared to younger adults, older adults have lower rates of protein synthesis and propensity to eat less, 298 leading to lower protein intake [50]. We have previously shown that dietary protein intake was positively 299 associated with LM, appendicular LM and trunk LM [33]. Moreover, in this data those women with 300 protein intake higher than 0.8 g/kg body weight/day had less decline in handgrip strength/ body weight, 301 one leg stance and walking 6 m over 3 years (significances were attenuated after controlling for FM) 302 [18]. The overall dietary protein intake was higher in the highest BSD score quartile (1.10 g/kg BW) than 303 in the lowest (0.87 g/kg BW); as well as in the highest MED score quartile (1.05 g/kg BW) than in the 304 lowest quartile (0.93 g/kg BW) (Tables 2 and 3). Difference in protein intake can partially explain the 305 mechanism by which women with lower adherence to BSD and MED had greater decline in total body 306 LM and RSMI.

In our study, associations of MED and BSD with muscle strength measures (handgrip strength and chair
 rises) were not significant. Thus, it might be that higher adherence to MED and BSD can be more related

to preserving lower extremity muscle strength (walking speed and one leg stance) rather than upper extremity muscle strength [16]. Women with higher adherence to BSD tended to have lower mobility disability as compared to those with lower adherence. It has been shown that intake of dietary long-chain n-3 PUFAs was associated with decreased risk of developing rheumatoid arthritis as chronic inflammatory disease of joints that can affect the walking speed in the elderly [51], which may partially explain the MED and mobility disability association [52].

There were general similarities between the components of BSD and MED in our study as they are rich in fruits, vegetables, and fiber. Findings of our study in a non-Mediterranean country (Finland) suggested that either BSD or MED (adapted to Nordic foods consumption) could be beneficial to prevent sarcopenia in Finnish elderly women. However, we observed stronger associations in the analysis using BSD as compared to MED. Thus, due to the diversity in construction of MED and difficulty of its application in Nordic countries alongside with food culture differences; BSD could facilitate recommending a healthy diet for elderly Nordic populations.

Current study has important strengths including the use of dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry to obtain total and regional body composition measures, use of extensive indices of sarcopenia, including LM, RSMI and PF measures as well as reporting both cross-sectional and prospective results. The PF measures and their changes have been applied and explained in this data set previously [18]. We have used categories based on distribution for BSD and MED rather than cut-off points based on recommendation.

328 There are some potential limitations that need to be considered while interpreting the results. First, the 329 dietary intake assessment was obtained only at the baseline, which may be insufficient to capture long-330 term dietary exposures. The imprecision of the dietary data may have reduced the ability to detect more 331 robust associations between dietary scores and changes in PF. Second, lower adherence to BSD and MED 332 might be linked to the inferior health of a participant and since we do not have information on the 333 participants' earlier health status and eating patterns, reverse causality is possible. For instance, those 334 with higher BSD score were more physically active than those with lower BSD score. Third, even though 335 we were able to adjust for a wide range of potential confounders, the possibility of other residual 336 confounding cannot be excluded. The study included relatively healthy elderly women from a rather 337 homogenous Finnish population, so caution should be taken in generalization of the results to the entire 338 elderly population. Fourth, we used income per month as a proxy of socioeconomic status. However, association of income and dietary scores were not significant. Finally, the observational nature of our
 study did not allow us to evaluate a causal association between dietary scores and changes in RSMI and
 LM.

This study have encouraging public health message that adherence to healthy BSD and MED could prevent sarcopenia with preserving LM. It is well documented that the loss of LM is associated with critical illnesses and sarcopenia. Further, although only at cross-sectional setting, a healthy diet was associated with better PF measures in elderly women. Previous studies have shown positive relation of BSD and MED with better physical performance, lower abdominal obesity, cognitive function and lower risk of metabolic syndrome [8, 10, 11, 16]. Thus, healthy MED or BSD seem to enhance overall health, physical performance as well as preventing sarcopenia in the elderly.

In conclusion, a higher adherence to BSD and MED might be beneficial in prevention of sarcopenia, since women with lower adherence to BSD and MED lost more RSMI and total body LM compared to others. However, associations of BSD and MED with PF measures were more pronounced in crosssectional setting. This highlights the importance of a whole diet, not only single foods or nutrients. Further longitudinal studies are warranted to substantiate these recommendations.

354 Acknowledgment

The OSTPRE-FPS study was supported by the Finnish Cultural Foundation (Hulda Tossavainen Foundation; Matti Kärkkäinen), Sigrid Juselius Foundation (H. K and T. R), Academy of Finland (M. T) and Kuopio University Hospital EVO grant. This study was financially supported by grant from Päivikki and Sakari Sohlberg Foundation, and Finnish Cultural Foundation, North Savo Regional fund (M. I).

Author contributions are as follows, H. K and M. T designed the original OSTPRE-FPS study. M. I, A. E, planned the present analysis together and collaborated on drafting the manuscript. M. I carried out the statistical analysis, and summarized the results in tables and figures. J.S, J. M, T. R, H. K, M. T critically revised the manuscript for important intellectual content.

363 **Conflict of interest**

364 On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest

References

1. Prado CMM, Wells JCK, Smith SR, Stephan BCM, Siervo M. (2012) Sarcopenic obesity: A Critical appraisal of the current evidence. Clinical Nutrition 31: 583-601.

2. Denison HJ, Cooper C, Sayer AA, Robinson SM. (2015) Prevention and optimal management of sarcopenia: a review of combined exercise and nutrition interventions to improve muscle outcomes in older people. Clin.Interv.Aging 10: 859-869.

3. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Landi F, Schneider SM, Zuniga C, Arai H, Boirie Y, Chen LK, Fielding RA, Martin FC, Michel JP, Sieber C, Stout JR, Studenski SA, Vellas B, Woo J, Zamboni M, Cederholm T. (2014) Prevalence of and interventions for sarcopenia in ageing adults: a systematic review. Report of the International Sarcopenia Initiative (EWGSOP and IWGS). Age Ageing 43: 748-759.

4. Cesari M, Landi F, Vellas B, Bernabei R, Marzetti E. (2014) Sarcopenia and physical frailty: two sides of the same coin. Front.Aging Neurosci. 6: 192.

5. Mathers JC. (2015) Impact of nutrition on the ageing process. Br.J.Nutr. 113 Suppl: S18-22.

6. Rondanelli M, Faliva M, Monteferrario F, Peroni G, Repaci E, Allieri F, Perna S. (2015) Novel Insights on Nutrient Management of Sarcopenia in Elderly. BioMed research international 2015.

7. Mursu J, Steffen LM, Meyer KA, Duprez D, Jacobs DR, Jr. (2013) Diet quality indexes and mortality in postmenopausal women: the Iowa Women's Health Study. Am.J.Clin.Nutr. 98: 444-453.

8. Sofi F, Macchi C, Abbate R, Gensini GF, Casini A. (2014) Mediterranean diet and health status: an updated meta-analysis and a proposal for a literature-based adherence score. Public Health Nutr. 17: 2769-2782.

9. Ruusunen A, Lehto SM, Tolmunen T, Voutilainen S, Tuomainen T-. (2013) 735 – Adherence to the baltic sea diet is associated with lower prevalence of elevated depressive symptoms. European Psychiatry 28, Supplement 1: 1.

10. Kanerva N, Kaartinen NE, Schwab U, Lahti-Koski M, Mannisto S. (2014) The Baltic Sea Diet Score: a tool for assessing healthy eating in Nordic countries. Public Health Nutr. 17: 1697-1705.

11. Kanerva N, Kaartinen NE, Schwab U, Lahti-Koski M, Männistö S. (2013) Adherence to the Baltic Sea diet consumed in the Nordic countries is associated with lower abdominal obesity. Br.J.Nutr. 109: 520-528.

12. Bere E, Brug J. (2009) Towards health-promoting and environmentally friendly regional diets–a Nordic example. Public Health Nutr. 12: 91-96.

13. Shahar DR, Houston DK, Hue TF, Lee J, Sahyoun NR, Tylavsky FA, Geva D, Vardi H, Harris TB. (2012) Adherence to Mediterranean Diet and Decline in Walking Speed over 8 Years in Community-Dwelling Older Adults. J.Am.Geriatr.Soc. 60: 1881-1888.

14. Hashemi R, Motlagh AD, Heshmat R, Esmaillzadeh A, Payab M, Yousefinia M, Siassi F, Pasalar P, Baygi F. (2015) Diet and its relationship to sarcopenia in community dwelling Iranian elderly: A cross sectional study. Nutrition 31: 97-104.

15. Milaneschi Y, Bandinelli S, Corsi AM, Lauretani F, Paolisso G, Dominguez LJ, Semba RD, Tanaka T, Abbatecola AM, Talegawkar SA, Guralnik JM, Ferrucci L. (2011) Mediterranean diet and mobility decline in older persons. Exp.Gerontol. 46: 303-308.

16. Perala MM, von Bonsdorff M, Mannisto S, Salonen MK, Simonen M, Kanerva N, Pohjolainen P, Kajantie E, Rantanen T, Eriksson JG. (2016) A healthy Nordic diet and physical performance in old age: findings from the longitudinal Helsinki Birth Cohort Study. Br.J.Nutr. 115: 878-886.

17. Karkkainen M, Tuppurainen M, Salovaara K, Sandini L, Rikkonen T, Sirola J, Honkanen R, Jurvelin J, Alhava E, Kroger H. (2010) Effect of calcium and vitamin D supplementation on bone mineral density in women aged 65-71 years: a 3-year randomized population-based trial (OSTPRE-FPS). Osteoporos.Int. 21: 2047-2055.

18. Isanejad M, Mursu J, Sirola J, Kroger H, Rikkonen T, Tuppurainen M, Erkkila AT. (2016) Dietary protein intake is associated with better physical function and muscle strength among elderly women. Br.J.Nutr. 115: 1281-1291.

19. Erkkila AT, Jarvinen R, Karvonen H, Keronen L, Tuppurainen MT. (2012) Validation of a semiquantitative FFQ using food records as a reference in older women in the Kuopio Fracture Prevention Study (OSTPRE-FPS). Public Health Nutr. 15: 635-639.

20. Tognon G, Rothenberg E, Eiben G, Sundh V, Winkvist A, Lissner L. (2011) Does the Mediterranean diet predict longevity in the elderly? A Swedish perspective. Age 33: 439-450.

21. Bamia C, Lagiou P, Buckland G, Grioni S, Agnoli C, Taylor AJ, Dahm CC, Overvad K, Olsen A, Tjønneland A. (2013) Mediterranean diet and colorectal cancer risk: results from a European cohort. Eur.J.Epidemiol. 28: 317-328.

22. Sjoblom S, Suuronen J, Rikkonen T, Honkanen R, Kroger H, Sirola J. (2013) Relationship between postmenopausal osteoporosis and the components of clinical sarcopenia. Maturitas 75: 175-180.

23. Lohman M, Tallroth K, Kettunen JA, Marttinen MT. (2009) Reproducibility of dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry total and regional body composition measurements using different scanning positions and definitions of regions. Metabolism 58: 1663-1668.

24. Cruz-Jentoft AJ, Baeyens JP, Bauer JM, Boirie Y, Cederholm T, Landi F, Martin FC, Michel JP, Rolland Y, Schneider SM, Topinkova E, Vandewoude M, Zamboni M, European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People. (2010) Sarcopenia: European consensus on definition and diagnosis: Report of the European Working Group on Sarcopenia in Older People. Age Ageing 39: 412-423.

25. Kwon S, Perera S, Pahor M, Katula JA, King AC, Groessl EJ, Studenski SA. (2009) What is a meaningful change in physical performance? Findings from a clinical trial in older adults (the LIFE-P study). J.Nutr.Health Aging 13: 538-544.

26. Vasunilashorn S, Coppin AK, Patel KV, Lauretani F, Ferrucci L, Bandinelli S, Guralnik JM. (2009) Use of the Short Physical Performance Battery Score to predict loss of ability to walk 400 meters: analysis from the InCHIANTI study. J.Gerontol.A Biol.Sci.Med.Sci. 64: 223-229.

27. Visser M, Kritchevsky SB, Goodpaster BH, Newman AB, Nevitt M, Stamm E, Harris TB. (2002) Leg muscle mass and composition in relation to lower extremity performance in men and women aged 70 to 79: the health, aging and body composition study. J.Am.Geriatr.Soc. 50: 897-904.

28. Shin S, Valentine RJ, Evans EM, Sosnoff JJ. (2012) Lower extremity muscle quality and gait variability in older adults. Age Ageing 41: 595-599.

29. Mozaffarian D, Hao T, Rimm EB, Willett WC, Hu FB. (2011) Changes in diet and lifestyle and long-term weight gain in women and men. N.Engl.J.Med. 364: 2392-2404.

30. Rizzoli R, Stevenson JC, Bauer JM, van Loon LJ, Walrand S, Kanis JA, Cooper C, Brandi ML, Diez-Perez A, Reginster JY, ESCEO Task Force. (2014) The role of dietary protein and vitamin D in maintaining musculoskeletal health in postmenopausal women: a consensus statement from the European Society for Clinical and Economic Aspects of Osteoporosis and Osteoarthritis (ESCEO). Maturitas 79: 122-132.

31. Salles J, Chanet A, Giraudet C, Patrac V, Pierre P, Jourdan M, Luiking YC, Verlaan S, Migne C, Boirie Y, Walrand S. (2013) 1,25(OH)2-vitamin D3 enhances the stimulating effect of leucine and insulin on protein synthesis rate through Akt/PKB and mTOR mediated pathways in murine C2C12 skeletal myotubes. Mol.Nutr.Food Res. 57: 2137-2146.

32. Mason C, Xiao L, Imayama I, Duggan CR, Foster-Schubert KE, Kong A, Campbell KL, Wang CY, Villasenor A, Neuhouser ML, Alfano CM, Blackburn GL, McTiernan A. (2013) Influence of diet, exercise, and serum vitamin d on sarcopenia in postmenopausal women. Med.Sci.Sports Exerc. 45: 607-614.

33. Isanejad M, Mursu J, Sirola J, Kröger H, Rikkonen T, Tuppurainen M, Erkkilä AT. (2015) Association of protein intake with the change of lean mass among elderly women: The Osteoporosis Risk Factor and Prevention–Fracture Prevention Study (OSTPRE-FPS). Journal of Nutritional Science 4: e41.

34. Beaudart C, Buckinx F, Rabenda V, Gillain S, Cavalier E, Slomian J, Petermans J, Reginster JY, Bruyere O. (2014) The effects of vitamin D on skeletal muscle strength, muscle mass, and muscle power: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. J.Clin.Endocrinol.Metab. 99: 4336-4345.

35. Mithal A, Bonjour JP, Boonen S, Burckhardt P, Degens H, El Hajj Fuleihan G, Josse R, Lips P, Morales Torres J, Rizzoli R, Yoshimura N, Wahl DA, Cooper C, Dawson-Hughes B, IOF CSA

Nutrition Working Group. (2013) Impact of nutrition on muscle mass, strength, and performance in older adults. Osteoporos.Int. 24: 1555-1566.

36. Park S, Ham J, Lee B. (2014) A positive association of vitamin D deficiency and sarcopenia in 50 year old women, but not men. Clinical Nutrition 33: 900-905.

37. Sohl E, Van Schoor N, De Jongh R, Visser M, Deeg D, Lips P. (2013) Vitamin D status is associated with functional limitations and functional decline in older individuals. The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism 98: E1483-E1490.

38. Robinson S, Cooper C, Aihie Sayer A. (2012) Nutrition and sarcopenia: a review of the evidence and implications for preventive strategies. J.Aging Res. 2012: 510801.

39. Sims-Robinson C, Hur J, Hayes JM, Dauch JR, Keller PJ, Brooks SV, Feldman EL. (2013) The role of oxidative stress in nervous system aging. PloS one 8: e68011.

40. Lauretani F, Semba RD, Bandinelli S, Dayhoff-Brannigan M, Lauretani F, Corsi AM, Guralnik JM, Ferrucci L. (2008) Carotenoids as protection against disability in older persons. Rejuvenation Res. 11: 557-563.

41. Alipanah N, Varadhan R, Sun K, Ferrucci L, Fried LP, Semba RD. (2009) Low serum carotenoids are associated with a decline in walking speed in older women. J.Nutr.Health Aging 13: 170-175.

42. Semba RD, Lauretani F, Ferrucci L. (2007) Carotenoids as protection against sarcopenia in older adults. Arch.Biochem.Biophys. 458: 141-145.

43. Bartali B, Frongillo EA, Bandinelli S, Lauretani F, Semba RD, Fried LP, Ferrucci L. (2006) Low nutrient intake is an essential component of frailty in older persons. J.Gerontol.A Biol.Sci.Med.Sci. 61: 589-593.

44. Ble A, Cherubini A, Volpato S, Bartali B, Walston JD, Windham BG, Bandinelli S, Lauretani F, Guralnik JM, Ferrucci L. (2006) Lower plasma vitamin E levels are associated with the frailty syndrome: the InCHIANTI study. J.Gerontol.A Biol.Sci.Med.Sci. 61: 278-283.

45. Calder PC, Ahluwalia N, Brouns F, Buetler T, Clement K, Cunningham K, Esposito K, Jönsson LS, Kolb H, Lansink M. (2011) Dietary factors and low-grade inflammation in relation to overweight and obesity. Br.J.Nutr. 106: S1-S78.

46. Rousseau JH, Kleppinger A, Kenny AM. (2009) Self-Reported Dietary Intake of Omega-3 Fatty Acids and Association with Bone and Lower Extremity Function. J.Am.Geriatr.Soc. 57: 1781-1788.

47. Robinson SM, Jameson KA, Batelaan SF, Martin HJ, Syddall HE, Dennison EM, Cooper C, Sayer AA. (2008) Diet and its relationship with grip strength in community-dwelling older men and women: The Hertfordshire Cohort Study. J.Am.Geriatr.Soc. 56: 84-90.

48. Smith GI, Atherton P, Reeds DN, Mohammed BS, Rankin D, Rennie MJ, Mittendorfer B. (2011) Dietary omega-3 fatty acid supplementation increases the rate of muscle protein synthesis in older adults: a randomized controlled trial. Am.J.Clin.Nutr. 93: 402-412.

49. Abbatecola AM, Cherubini A, Guralnik JM, Lacueva CA, Ruggiero C, Maggio M, Bandinelli S, Paolisso G, Ferrucci L. (2009) Plasma Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids and Age-Related Physical Performance Decline. Rejuvenation Res. 12: 25-32.

50. Nowson C, O'Connell S. (2015) Protein Requirements and Recommendations for Older People: A Review. Nutrients 7: 6874-6899.

51. Calder PC. (2015) Marine omega-3 fatty acids and inflammatory processes: Effects, mechanisms and clinical relevance. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-Molecular and Cell Biology of Lipids 1851: 469-484.

52. Talegawkar SA, Bandinelli S, Bandeen-Roche K, Chen P, Milaneschi Y, Tanaka T, Semba RD, Guralnik JM, Ferrucci L. (2012) A higher adherence to a Mediterranean-style diet is inversely associated with the development of frailty in community-dwelling elderly men and women. J.Nutr. 142: 2161-2166.