

1 **Title of the article:** Assessing the Diet Quality of Individuals with Rheumatic Conditions: A  
2 Cross-Sectional Study

3 **Abstract**

4 Arthritis along with other rheumatic conditions is a significant cause of chronic pain and  
5 disability, affecting around 3.5 million Australians. However, little is known regarding the overall  
6 diet quality of those living with arthritis. This study aimed to assess the dietary quality of  
7 Australians living in the Australian Capital Territory region with rheumatic conditions. This  
8 cross-sectional study analysed dietary intake data of individuals living with rheumatic conditions  
9 using a validated food frequency questionnaire. Dietary quality was assessed using the Healthy  
10 Eating Index-2015 (HEI-2015) to examine associations between diet composition, age, income  
11 and arthritis impact using the short form of the Arthritis Impact Measurement Scales 2 (AIMS2-  
12 SF). Participants, predominantly female (82.6%), were grouped by age: 18-50 years (n=32), 50-  
13 64 years (n=31), and 65+ years (n=23). Significant correlations were observed between age and  
14 HEI-2015 ( $r_s=0.337$ ,  $p=0.002$ ) and income and AIMS2-SF ( $r_s=-0.353$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The mean HEI-  
15 2015 score for the 18-49 years group was *Fair* ( $72.1\pm 12.3$ ), lower than both the 50-64 years group  
16 score of *Good* ( $81.5\pm 9.72$ ) ( $p=0.004$ ), and the 65+ years group score of *Good* ( $81.8\pm 12.1$ )  
17 ( $p=0.007$ ). Dietary fibre, seafood and plant protein, fatty acids, and refined grains were identified  
18 as dietary components of concern for the 18-49 years group, and total fruit and added sugar were  
19 components of concern for people in the worst tertile for the AIMS2-SF. People aged between  
20 18-49 years were consuming a lower quality diet compare to people aged 50 years and over.  
21 Further research is needed to understand why this association is occurring in this high  
22 socioeconomic region of Australia (a high-income country).

23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30

31 **Introduction**

32

33 Arthritis, a term used to describe a variety of rheumatic conditions affecting the musculoskeletal  
34 system, is a major cause of chronic pain and disability within Australia.[1] Between 2014-2015,  
35 approximately 15.3% of the Australian population were living with any form of arthritis, equating  
36 to 3.5 million Australians.[1] The majority of cases reported were osteoarthritis (58.9%),  
37 rheumatoid arthritis (11.5%), and around 35% were unspecified.[1] Arthritis presents as a large  
38 economic burden in Australia with an estimated \$23.9 billion per year in medical care and indirect  
39 costs.[2]

40 Diet is strongly associated with health outcomes and may modulate quality of life and  
41 health status of people living with arthritis.[3] Moreover, there is a belief by some individuals  
42 living with arthritis that diet is influential in modulating their arthritis symptoms.[4] Much of the  
43 current literature assessing the diet of people with arthritis focuses on the influence of specific  
44 nutrients [5] or food groups and their relationship with arthritis symptoms [6,7], with limited  
45 evidence of the effect of overall dietary quality.[8] In 2017, a study by Berube et al. indicated that  
46 the dietary quality of people living with rheumatoid arthritis was relatively poor and that this may  
47 be associated with functional disability.[8] Assessing dietary quality allows for greater insight  
48 into the relationship between dietary intake and nutrition-related health outcomes.[9] Based on  
49 healthy choices within core food groups, diet quality itself is a measurement of food patterns and  
50 compliance with dietary guidelines. Within the literature, the relationship between diet quality  
51 and beneficial health is well documented [10,11]; and risk factors such as obesity and  
52 hypertension decrease as diet quality increases, indicating a possible inverse association.[12]  
53 Likewise, higher-quality diets are associated with reduced risk of all-cause mortality,  
54 cardiovascular disease (CVD), cancer, and type 2 diabetes.[13,14]

55 Considering that a 1.5-2-fold increased risk of developing CVD occurs in individuals  
56 with rheumatoid arthritis, and living with osteoarthritis is also associated with similar increased  
57 risk of CVD development, the relevance of assessing diet quality as a potential modifiable risk  
58 factor in the arthritic populations is apparent. [15,16]. Moreover, sustained improvements in diet

59 quality may reduce the risk of CVD in the short and long term.[17] There are several major indices  
60 available for evaluating dietary quality, including the Healthy Eating Index (HEI), Healthy Diet  
61 Indicator (HDI), Healthy Food Index (HFI), and the Diet Quality Index (DQI).[9] Of the indices  
62 above, the HEI, updated in 2015, represents an appropriate tool to measure the diet quality of  
63 people living with arthritis in western, high-income countries. Moreover, this diet quality  
64 assessment index is comprehensive and compares dietary intake to intake recommendations and  
65 subsequently identifies areas where the increasing and decreasing of dietary components is  
66 needed.[18] Therefore, considering the prevalence and gravity of arthritis within Australia, and  
67 the beneficial relationship that diet quality may have, this study aimed to assess the dietary quality  
68 of Australians living with all types of arthritis using the HEI-2015.

69

## 70 **Methods**

### 71 *Study design*

72 The present study is a cross-sectional analysis of baseline data collected as part of a ten-week  
73 randomised waiting list design study involving the daily monitoring of heart rate and heart rate  
74 variability using the smartphone application “HRV4 Training”. Participants were grouped into  
75 either the intervention or waiting list group on a 1:1 basis, with the waiting group required to wait  
76 four weeks before commencing use of the application. This project was approved by the Human  
77 Research Ethics Committee of the University of Canberra (HREC – 17-77) and was carried out  
78 in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (1989) of the World Medical Association.  
79 Participants were informed of the study aims and procedures and provided written informed  
80 consent for study participation prior to enrolment.

81

### 82 *Participants and eligibility criteria*

83 Recruitment was conducted through internal newsletter and website of Arthritis Australian  
84 Capital Territory (ACT), local media, online media and using snowballing. Recruiting through  
85 snowballing was encouraged by the investigators and included participants sharing the study  
86 advertisement, and “word of mouth” advertising by current participants. In each case, contact was  
87 initiated by the potential participant. The inclusion criteria was individuals aged 18 years and over  
88 , having a diagnosis of any rheumatic condition and living in the greater ACT region including  
89 Queanbeyan (New South Wales) and rural areas which typically access Arthritis ACT services  
90 and support programs. Cognitive screening using the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)  
91 [19] was performed to ascertain suitability for participation, and individuals scoring 25 and above  
92 out of 30 were included. All participants were required to have access to a smartphone for the  
93 installation and daily use of the HRV4 Training application. Therefore, participants were  
94 excluded if they scored 24 or under on the MMSE, were not diagnosed with arthritis, were living  
95 outside the recruitment area, or did not possess a mobile phone. In addition, participants were  
96 excluded if they were already participating in another research study which incorporated a  
97 lifestyle intervention.

#### 98 *Measurements*

99 A group of trained health scientists (nutritionists, dietitians, occupational therapists, exercise  
100 physiologists) collected demographic, socioeconomic, and health-related information using  
101 standard validated questionnaires and clinical procedures. Participants also disclosed information  
102 relating to whether they thought that their income over the past three years was sufficient to cover  
103 their needs. Anthropometric measurements, including participant height, weight, and skinfold  
104 measurements were also taken and Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated according to the  
105 World Health Organisation standards.[20] The short form of the Arthritis Impact Measurement  
106 Scales 2 (AIMS2-SF) questionnaire was also used to evaluate health-related quality of life  
107 outcomes in individuals with arthritis as a tool which has been validated in individuals with  
108 arthritis and has been used other rheumatic conditions..[21,22]

109

110 *Food Frequency Questionnaire*

111 All participants completed an estimation of daily nutrient intake during an interviewer-  
112 administrated validated food frequency questionnaire (FFQ).[23,24] The use of FFQ allowed for  
113 consideration of episodic consumption of food items consumed only a few times a year on special  
114 occasions such as a religious event, seasonal variations, and the overall variability of day-to-day  
115 diets.[25] The FFQ required participants to recall from a list of food items the type and quantity  
116 of food consumed over the past year. The food analysis software FoodWorks8™ (Xyris Software,  
117 QLD, Australia) was used to provide estimates of the daily nutritional value of foods and the  
118 energy intakes reported in participants FFQ using nutrient information listed in Australian Food  
119 Composition Database (Ausfoods 2017). Furthermore, to ensure that food items selected from the  
120 database represented the food items asked within the FFQ, the list of food items were discussed  
121 between a qualified dietitian, food scientist and nutritionist until consensus was reached.

122 *Healthy Eating Index*

123 The overall diet quality of participants was assessed following the HEI-2015 guidelines and  
124 scoring standards.[18] In total there are 13 food clusters in the HEI-2015: total fruit, whole fruit,  
125 total vegetables, greens and beans, whole grains, dairy, total protein foods, seafood and plant  
126 proteins, refined grains, added sugar, fatty acids, sodium, and saturated fats. Of these 13  
127 components, 10 (total fruit, whole fruit, total vegetables, greens and beans, dairy, total protein,  
128 seafood and plant proteins, refined grains, and sodium) were scored based on their nutrient density  
129 per 4184 kilojoules (KJ). The fatty acids component was scored based on intake of total  
130 monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids divided by the amount of saturated fatty acids.  
131 Whereas both added sugar and saturated fat were scored on their contribution to the total  
132 percentage of energy. The total HEI-2015 score is based on a scale from 0 to 100 and represented  
133 as the sum of all component scores with higher values representing diet quality. An HEI score of

134 less than 51 is considered as *poor* quality diet; between 51 and 80 reflecting *fair* dietary quality;  
135 and scores greater than 81 representing *good* dietary quality.

### 136 *Statistical analysis*

137 Normality of data was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality. Normally  
138 distributed continuous variables are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation, while non-normally  
139 distributed continuous variables being presented as median (1<sup>st</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile). Tertiles were used  
140 to classify non-linear continuous variables when needed. Categorical variables are presented as  
141 frequencies and relative frequencies. Associations between categorical variables were tested with  
142 the Fisher's exact test. Mean differences among the classes of a categorical variable were tested  
143 with ANOVA, when normality was met, or with Kruskal-Wallis test otherwise. All dietary  
144 analyses which reached significance were adjusted for multiple comparisons using Bonferroni  
145 correction. Spearman's coefficient of correlation ( $r_s$ ) was used to evaluate relationships between  
146 variables. All analyses were performed in IBM SPSS version 25 (Armonk, NY: IBM Corp).  
147 Statistical significance was predefined at  $\alpha=0.05$ .

148

## 149 **Results**

### 150 *Participants*

151 The sample consisted of 86 participants who met the inclusion criteria, with most participants  
152 being female (n=71). Participant sociodemographic data are presented in Table 1. Participants  
153 were living with osteoarthritis (n=39), rheumatoid arthritis (n=20), psoriatic arthritis (n=8),  
154 ankylosing spondylitis (n=8), inflammatory arthritis (n=5), fibromyalgia (n=2), bursitis (n=1),  
155 Stihl's disease (n=1), and unsure/other (n=2). With respect to duration of arthritis, 26 participants  
156 were living with arthritis for 5 years or less, 20 for between 6-10 years, 24 for between 11-20  
157 years, and 16 for 21 years or longer. Participants were categorised into tertiles by age (18-50 years  
158 (n=32), 50-64 years (n=31), and 65+ years (n=23)) and the AIMS2-SF (T1 (n=31), T2 (n=26),  
159 and T3 (n=29). When categorising by age, there was no difference between reported income

160 (p=0.280); however, when categorised by AIMS2-SF, participants tended to have a lower income  
161 in the highest AIMS2-SF tertile (p=0.013). There was no difference in BMI between groups (both  
162 p's>0.05).

163

#### 164 *Outcomes*

165 A significant positive correlation was observed between age and HEI-2015 ( $r_s=0.337$ ,  $p=0.002$ ),  
166 while a negative association was observed between income and AIMS2-SF score ( $r_s=-0.353$ ,  
167  $p<0.001$ ). All correlation analyses performed are presented in Table 2. The average daily energy  
168 and macronutrient intakes are displayed by age and AIMS2-SF tertiles in Table 3. In each analysis  
169 (age and AIMS2-SF), there were no differences across tertiles for energy, protein, total fat,  
170 saturated fat, trans fat, carbohydrate, and alcohol (all p's>0.05). However, when analysis was  
171 stratified by age groups, there was a lower dietary fibre intake (p=0.022) in the 18-40 years group  
172 ( $31.1\pm 11.3g$ ) compared to the 65+ years group ( $41.5\pm 16.2g$ ).

173

174 The average HEI-2015 scores categorised by age group are presented in Table 4. A between-  
175 groups effect was observed for the overall HEI-2015 score with age (p=0.001). Overall, the 18-  
176 49 years group scored *Fair* ( $72.1 \pm 12.3$ ), the 50-64 years group scored *Good* ( $81.5 \pm 9.72$ ), and  
177 the 65+ years group scored *Good* ( $81.8 \pm 12.1$ ). The 18-49 years group scored worse than the 50-  
178 64 years group (p=0.004) and the 65+ years group (p=0.007). Between age groups, there were no  
179 observed differences between the HEI-2015 adequacy components: total fruit, whole fruit, total  
180 vegetables, greens and beans, whole grain, dairy, and total protein (all p's>0.05). Significant  
181 between-group differences were observed for seafood and plant proteins (p=0.002), and fatty  
182 acids (p=0.042). Specifically, for seafood and plant proteins, lower scores were observed for the  
183 18-49 years group (5.00 (3.67, 5.00) compared to the 50-64 years groups (5.00 (5.00, 5.00))  
184 (p=0.042) and 65+y groups (5.00 (5.00, 5.00)) (p=0.012). Fatty acids intake scores were lower  
185 for the 18-49 years group (2.35 (0.06, 6.13)) compared to the 65+ years group (6.33 (2.44, 10.0))

186 (p=0.042). There were also no significant differences observed between the HEI-2015 moderation  
187 components: added sugar, sodium, and saturated fat (all p's>0.05). However, saturated fat scores  
188 were low across all ages. A between-group effect was observed for the refined grain component  
189 (p=0.001). Lower scores were observed for the 18-49 years group (10.0 (5.94, 10.0) compared to  
190 the 50-64 years groups (p=0.009) and 65+y groups (p=0.018) who both received high scores (10.0  
191 (10.0, 10.0)).

192

193 The average HEI-2015 scores categorised by AIMS2-SF are presented in Table 5. There was no  
194 difference in the overall HEI-2015 score between groups (p=0.208). There were no differences  
195 observed between the AIMS2-SF tertiles HEI-2015 components scores for whole fruit, total  
196 vegetables, greens and beans, whole grain, dairy, total protein, seafood and plant proteins and  
197 fatty acids (all p's>0.05). However, a between-groups effect was observed for total fruit  
198 (p=0.045), with a lower score observed with the AIMS2-SF T3 (5.00 (3.64, 5.00) compared to  
199 the AIMS2-SF T2 group (5.00 (5.00, 5.00)) (p=0.039). There were also no observed significant  
200 differences between the HEI-2015 moderation component scores: refined grains, sodium, and  
201 saturated fat (all p's>0.05). However, saturated fat scores were low across all tertiles. Differences  
202 were observed between groups for added sugar (p=0.016). The AIMS2-SF T1 group (10.0 (10.0,  
203 10.0)) scored higher than the AIMS2-SF T3 group (10.0 (8.93, 10.0)) (p=0.012).

204

## 205 **Discussion**

206 This study assessed the dietary quality of individuals living with rheumatic conditions in the ACT  
207 region of Australia. In this population sample living in a high socioeconomic region, diet quality  
208 appears to be lower for individuals 18-49 years of age compared to people over 50 years of age.  
209 This appeared to be driven by lower consumption of dietary fibre, seafood, monounsaturated and  
210 polyunsaturated fatty acids, and foods from plant protein sources along with higher consumption  
211 of refined grain products. In this study, we did not observe a difference in diet quality in  
212 participants with higher AIMS2-SF scores. However, higher AIMS2-SF was associated with less



213 desirable consumption of total fruit and added sugars, which may be related to lower-income. The  
214 identification of these dietary patterns represents areas of improvement and the need for  
215 individualised dietary advice to improve diet quality of individuals living with rheumatic  
216 conditions.[11]

217

218 The relatively *poor* score in refined grain intake by the 18-49 years age group is of particular  
219 interest. Refined grain intake is associated with higher total mortality rates [26], and the  
220 preference of whole grain consumption is recommended due to their health-protective properties  
221 [27] and association with successful ageing.[28] Evidence surrounding wholegrain intake in  
222 arthritis is lacking; however, compared with refined grains, whole grains have been associated  
223 with improved body composition and potential to reduce inflammation.[29] The present study  
224 found no significant difference between the mean wholegrain component scores of the different  
225 age groups. However, the average scores could be considered suboptimal overall, suggesting that  
226 general improvements in this component are needed within the sample population.

227

228 The HEI-2015 scores for seafood and plant protein were overall adequate; however, scores for  
229 the 18-49 years age group were lower than both other groups. This is of particular importance to  
230 individuals living with arthritis due to their anti-inflammatory potential and association with  
231 reduced risk of CVD in individuals living with rheumatoid arthritis.[30,31] Additionally,  
232 supplementation of omega-3 fatty acids may also hold benefits to manage symptoms of arthritis  
233 [13], although this should be carefully considered as required therapeutic doses need to be  
234 adequately monitored in larger population samples.[5] Thus, adequate increases in seafood  
235 consumption are potentially an area in which adaptations could be made to improve the overall  
236 diet quality of the younger proportion of the arthritis population. It was also observed that each  
237 of the three age groups scored low with respect to the fatty acids profile component of the HEI-  
238 2015 in the 18-49 years group compared to both other groups. Specifically, increasing mono- and  
239 poly-unsaturated fatty acid consumption from foods such as olive, nuts, and fatty fish may reduce

240 rates of CVD and assist with pain reduction and/or functional improvements.[10,13,14,32] While  
241 saturated fat scores were relatively poor across our sample, its effects are suggested to be  
242 dependent on the overall dietary quality [26] and may be confounded by the content of saturated  
243 fat in processed and/or packaged foods.

244

245 Sugar consumption, particularly added sugar, is a considerable health concern, and has been  
246 independently associated with development of obesity, metabolic disease [33] and type 2 diabetes  
247 [34,35]. In the present study, those with the highest AIMS2-SF scores scored lower in the added  
248 sugar component compared to the group with the lowest AIMS2-SF score. This is supported by  
249 the survey results from a rheumatoid arthritis registry [4], where intake of sweetened beverages  
250 and desserts were reported to increase the negative symptoms in individuals living with  
251 rheumatoid arthritis. As sugar consumption has been shown to have a pro-inflammatory effect  
252 [36] and taking into consideration that in all forms of arthritis inflammation is an underlining  
253 mechanism for onset of negative symptoms [37], sugar reduction strategies should be considered  
254 as priorities in the management of arthritis.

255

256 Typically, the food components discussed are considered immunomodulatory and are intrinsic in  
257 diets that are linked with positive CVD and health outcomes, including the adoption of a  
258 Mediterranean style dietary pattern.[38] The Mediterranean diet is characterised by the relatively  
259 high consumption of olive oil, legumes, whole grains, vegetables, and fruits, and moderate  
260 consumption of fish, dairy, wine and low to moderate consumption of red meat products. In  
261 conjunction with providing potential protective effects against diseases associated with low-grade  
262 inflammation [12], the adherence to the Mediterranean diet may prove useful in improving the  
263 dietary quality of the sampled population, especially the individuals in the younger age category.  
264 Previous studies have suggested lower adherence to a Mediterranean style diet is present in people  
265 with arthritis [38], and although we did not assess the adherence to the Mediterranean diet, lower

266 scores have been observed with the HEI-2015 in people with arthritis in the United States  
267 compared to those without.[39]

268 The findings also imply that people with arthritis over 50 years of age had *good* HEI-2015 diet  
269 quality scores overall. This finding is further supported in a study by Kant (2004) [40], who  
270 reported that age, income, and education level are main contributors associated with healthier  
271 dietary patterns. In addition, the people over 50 years in our study scored higher on perception of  
272 income in relation to meeting their overall needs, which could represent older people in this  
273 sample also having greater health awareness. This is further supported by Thieli et al. (2004) [41],  
274 who postulated that higher diet quality with increasing age can also be due to change in health  
275 consciousness. However, the causal relationship between age and diet quality is unknown, and  
276 further research in this area may help with the development of age-tailored arthritis health  
277 interventions. The youngest participants in this study perceived their income as *low* (28.1%) or  
278 *moderate* (31.3%) in meeting their needs. Conversely, around half of the 50-64 years group and  
279 the 65+ years group perceived their income as being *good* or *excellent* (58.1% & 47.8%,  
280 respectively). Thus, the relationship between perceived income adequacy and dietary quality is  
281 unclear in this population, and the results are further confounded by the ACT region being a  
282 relatively high socioeconomic area compared to the rest of Australia. However, despite these  
283 findings, past studies assessing socioeconomic status (SES) [42] have indicated that income is  
284 also a considerable factor contributing to overall dietary quality. Therefore, further investigation  
285 into the influence of SES on dietary quality is required before any causal relationship between  
286 income and dietary quality can be confirmed. Therefore, future research in this area must also  
287 consider use of different economic measures that can reflect the overall quality of life in  
288 conjunction with participants own income when attempting to understand the relationship  
289 between income and diet quality. Such evaluative measures should include equalised final  
290 household income, and determiners of wealth status.

291 Although we utilised a comprehensive approach to analyse the dietary intake of individuals living  
292 with arthritis (all forms), the dietary measurements were performed cross sectionally only on a  
293 single occasion and may be prone to the measurement errors and underreporting.[43] However,  
294 this methodological approach is commonly used and observed results are also comparable to other  
295 studies of similar design and trained professionals were used to collect the adequate dietary intake.  
296 It is also important to note that this study includes participants living with different forms of  
297 arthritis that can affect individuals differently representing a limitation to the present analyses.  
298 Nevertheless, the relative consistency in the dietary patterns in this population sample indicates  
299 potential for more concrete investigations of the dietary intake in individuals living with all forms  
300 of arthritis. Moreover, as many non-government organisations, such as Arthritis ACT, where the  
301 majority of participants were recruited, provide support for people with all forms of arthritis and  
302 have limited capacity to provide condition-specific dietary advice. Therefore, our results represent  
303 a step towards improved nutrition in the arthritis community as a whole, which may develop  
304 towards more specific, individualised advice in the future.

305

## 306 **Conclusion**

307 In conclusion, the present study assessed the overall dietary quality of individuals living with  
308 rheumatic conditions in the ACT and identified that individuals between 18-49 years of age were  
309 consuming a lower quality diet. Key dietary areas that require improvements and development of  
310 dietary strategies include increased consumption of seafood and protein-containing foods and  
311 reductions in refined grain and added sugar. Healthy dietary patterns such as the Mediterranean  
312 diet may prove useful in improving the dietary quality of the studied sample population and  
313 consequently improve arthritis-related symptoms and the reduction of associated CVD risk. A  
314 more comprehensive assessment of the relationship between dietary quality and income within  
315 this population is required before any conclusions around causal relationships can be drawn.

316

317 **References**

318

319 1. Australian Bureau of Statistics (2017) Arthritis and osteoporosis.

320 <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/by%20Subject/4364.0.55.001~2014->

321 [15~Main%20Features~Arthritis%20and%20osteoporosis~8](#). Accessed 7th December 2017

322 2. Access Economics Pty Limited (2007) Painful Realities: The economic impact of arthritis in

323 Australia in 2007. Forest Lodge, NSW

324 3. Carson TL, Hidalgo B, Ard JD, Affuso O (2014) Dietary interventions and quality of life: a

325 systematic review of the literature. *J Nutr Educ Behav* 46 (2):90-101.

326 <https://doi:10.1016/j.jneb.2013.09.005>

327 4. Tedeschi SK, Frits M, Cui J, Zhang ZZ, Mahmoud T, Iannaccone C, Lin TC et al. (2017)

328 Diet and Rheumatoid Arthritis Symptoms: Survey Results From a Rheumatoid Arthritis

329 Registry. *Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken)* 69 (12):1920-1925. <https://doi:10.1002/acr.23225>

330 5. Kosari S, Naunton M, Yee K, Naumovski N, Thomas J (2018) Fish Oil for Rheumatoid

331 Arthritis: A Home Medicine Review Initiative. *American Journal of Therapeutics Publish*

332 Ahead of Print. <https://doi:10.1097/mjt.0000000000000730>

333 6. O'Connor Á (2014) An overview of the role of diet in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis.

334 *Nutr Bull* 39 (1):74-88. <https://doi:10.1111/nbu.12041>

335 7. Stamp LK, James MJ, Cleland LG (2005) Diet and Rheumatoid Arthritis: A Review of the

336 Literature. *Semin Arthritis and Rheu* 35 (2):77-94.

337 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.semarthrit.2005.05.001>

338 8. Berube LT, Kiely M, Yazici Y, Woolf K (2017) Diet quality of individuals with rheumatoid

339 arthritis using the Healthy Eating Index (HEI)-2010. *Nutr Health* 23 (1):17-24.

340 <https://doi:10.1177/0260106016688223>

341 9. Wirt A, Collins CE (2009) Diet quality – what is it and does it matter? *Public Health Nutr* 12

342 (12):2473-2492. <https://doi:10.1017/S136898000900531X>

343 10. Foscolou A, Critselis E, Tyrovolas S, Chrysohoou C, Sidossis SL, Naumovski N, Matalas  
344 A-L et al. (2019) The Effect of Exclusive Olive Oil Consumption on Successful Aging: A  
345 Combined Analysis of the ATTICA and MEDIS Epidemiological Studies. *Foods* 8 (1).  
346 <https://doi:10.3390/foods8010025>

347 11. Karatay S, Erdem T, Kiziltunc A, Melikoglu MA, Yildirim K, Cakir E, Ugur M et al. (2006)  
348 General or personal diet: the individualized model for diet challenges in patients with  
349 rheumatoid arthritis. *Rheumatol Int* 26 (6):556-560. <https://doi:10.1007/s00296-005-0018-y>

350 12. Casas R, Sacanella E, Estruch R (2014) The immune protective effect of the Mediterranean  
351 diet against chronic low-grade inflammatory diseases. *Endocr Metab Immune Disord Drug*  
352 *Targets* 14 (4):245-254

353 13. Senftleber NK, Nielsen SM, Andersen JR, Bliddal H, Tarp S, Lauritzen L, Furst DE et al.  
354 (2017) Marine Oil Supplements for Arthritis Pain: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of  
355 Randomized Trials. *Nutrients* 9 (1). <https://doi:10.3390/nu9010042>

356 14. Abdulrazaq M, Innes JK, Calder PC (2017) Effect of omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids  
357 on arthritic pain: A systematic review. *Nutrition* 39-40:57-66.  
358 <https://doi:10.1016/j.nut.2016.12.003>

359 15. Liao KP (2017) Cardiovascular disease in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *Trends*  
360 *Cardiovas Med* 27 (2):136-140. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tcm.2016.07.006>

361 16. Rahman MM, Kopec JA, Anis AH, Cibere J, Goldsmith CH (2013) Risk of cardiovascular  
362 disease in patients with osteoarthritis: a prospective longitudinal study. *Arthritis Care Res*  
363 *(Hoboken)* 65 (12):1951-1958. <http://doi:10.1002/acr.22092>

364 17. Rosato V, Temple NJ, La Vecchia C, Castellan G, Tavani A, Guercio V (2019)  
365 Mediterranean diet and cardiovascular disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis of  
366 observational studies. *Eur J Nutr* 58 (1):173-191. <https://doi:10.1007/s00394-017-1582-0>

367 18. National Cancer Institute (2017) Comparing the HEI-2015, HEI-2010 & HEI-2005. US  
368 Department of Health & Human Services. <https://epi.grants.cancer.gov/hei/comparing.html>.  
369 Accessed 4th December 2017

370 19. Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR (1975) "Mini-mental state". A practical method for  
371 grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. *J Psychiatr Res* 12 (3):189-198

372 20. World Health Organization BMI classification.  
373 [http://apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp?introPage=intro\\_3.html](http://apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp?introPage=intro_3.html). Accessed 14th December 2017

374 21. Guillemin F, Coste J, Pouchot J, Ghezail M, Bregeon C, Sany J (1997) The AIMS2-SF: a  
375 short form of the Arthritis Impact Measurement Scales 2. French Quality of Life in  
376 Rheumatology Group. *Arthritis Rheum* 40 (7):1267-1274. [https://doi:10.1002/1529-](https://doi:10.1002/1529-0131(199707)40:7<1267::Aid-art11>3.0.Co;2-l)  
377 [0131\(199707\)40:7<1267::Aid-art11>3.0.Co;2-l](https://doi:10.1002/1529-0131(199707)40:7<1267::Aid-art11>3.0.Co;2-l)

378 22. American College of Rheumatology (2015) Arthritis Impact Measurement Scales (AIMS/  
379 AIMS2). [https://www.rheumatology.org/I-Am-A/Rheumatologist/Research/Clinician-](https://www.rheumatology.org/I-Am-A/Rheumatologist/Research/Clinician-Researchers/Arthritis-Impact-Measurement-Scales-AIMS)  
380 [Researchers/Arthritis-Impact-Measurement-Scales-AIMS](https://www.rheumatology.org/I-Am-A/Rheumatologist/Research/Clinician-Researchers/Arthritis-Impact-Measurement-Scales-AIMS). Accessed 21 Jan 2020

381 23. Naumovski N, Veysey M, Ng X, Boyd L, Dufficy L, Blades B, Travers C et al. (2010) The  
382 folic acid endophenotype and depression in an elderly population. *J Nutr Health Aging* 14  
383 (10):829-833

384 24. Dufficy L, Naumovski N, Ng X, Blades B, Yates Z, Travers C, Lewis P et al. (2006) G80A  
385 reduced folate carrier SNP influences the absorption and cellular translocation of dietary folate  
386 and its association with blood pressure in an elderly population. *Life sciences* 79 (10):957-966.  
387 <https://doi:10.1016/j.lfs.2006.05.009>

388 25. Fowke JH, Schlundt D, Gong Y, Jin F, Shu X-o, Wen W, Liu D-k et al. (2004) Impact of  
389 season of food frequency questionnaire administration on dietary reporting. *Ann Epidemiol* 14  
390 (10):778-785. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annepidem.2004.02.002>

391 26. Dehghan M, Mente A, Zhang X, Swaminathan S, Li W, Mohan V, Iqbal R et al. (2017)  
392 Associations of fats and carbohydrate intake with cardiovascular disease and mortality in 18  
393 countries from five continents (PURE): a prospective cohort study. *Lancet* 390 (10107):2050-  
394 2062. [https://doi:10.1016/S0140-6736\(17\)32252-3](https://doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(17)32252-3)

395 27. Williams PG (2012) Evaluation of the evidence between consumption of refined grains and  
396 health outcomes. *Nutr Rev* 70 (2):80-99. <http://doi:10.1111/j.1753-4887.2011.00452.x>

397 28. Foscolou A, D'Cunha NM, Naumovski N, Tyrovolas S, Chrysohoou C, Rallidis L, Matalas  
398 A-L et al. (2019) The Association between Whole Grain Products Consumption and Successful  
399 Aging: A Combined Analysis of MEDIS and ATTICA Epidemiological Studies. *Nutrients* 11  
400 (6):1221. <https://doi:10.3390/nu11061221>

401 29. Roager HM, Vogt JK, Kristensen M, Hansen LBS, Ibrügger S, Mærkedahl RB, Bahl MI et  
402 al. (2019) Whole grain-rich diet reduces body weight and systemic low-grade inflammation  
403 without inducing major changes of the gut microbiome: a randomised cross-over trial. *Gut* 68  
404 (1):83. <https://doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2017-314786>

405 30. Tedeschi SK, Bathon JM, Giles JT, Lin TC, Yoshida K, Solomon DH (2018) Relationship  
406 Between Fish Consumption and Disease Activity in Rheumatoid Arthritis. *Arthritis Care Res*  
407 (Hoboken) 70 (3):327-332. <https://doi:10.1002/acr.23295>

408 31. Zampelas A, Panagiotakos DB, Pitsavos C, Das UN, Chrysohoou C, Skoumas Y, Stefanadis  
409 C (2005) Fish Consumption Among Healthy Adults Is Associated With Decreased Levels of  
410 Inflammatory Markers Related to Cardiovascular Disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 46 (1):120.  
411 <https://doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2005.03.048>

412 32. Mozaffarian D, Micha R, Wallace S (2010) Effects on coronary heart disease of increasing  
413 polyunsaturated fat in place of saturated fat: a systematic review and meta-analysis of  
414 randomized controlled trials. *PLoS Med* 7 (3):e1000252.  
415 <https://doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1000252>

416 33. Stanhope KL (2016) Sugar consumption, metabolic disease and obesity: The state of the  
417 controversy. *Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci* 53 (1):52-67. <https://doi:10.3109/10408363.2015.1084990>

418 34. Stern D, Mazariegos M, Ortiz-Panozo E, Campos H, Malik VS, Lajous M, Lopez-Ridaura R  
419 (2019) Sugar-Sweetened Soda Consumption Increases Diabetes Risk Among Mexican Women.  
420 *J Nutr* 149 (5):795-803. <https://doi:10.1093/jn/nxy298>

421 35. Imamura F, O'Connor L, Ye Z, Mursu J, Hayashino Y, Bhupathiraju SN, Forouhi NG  
422 (2015) Consumption of sugar sweetened beverages, artificially sweetened beverages, and fruit



423 juice and incidence of type 2 diabetes: systematic review, meta-analysis, and estimation of  
424 population attributable fraction. *Bmj* 351:h3576. <https://doi:10.1136/bmj.h3576>

425 36. Aeberli I, Gerber PA, Hochuli M, Kohler S, Haile SR, Gouni-Berthold I, Berthold HK et al.  
426 (2011) Low to moderate sugar-sweetened beverage consumption impairs glucose and lipid  
427 metabolism and promotes inflammation in healthy young men: a randomized controlled trial.  
428 *Am J Clin Nutr* 94 (2):479-485. <https://doi:10.3945/ajcn.111.013540>

429 37. Skeoch S, Bruce IN (2015) Atherosclerosis in rheumatoid arthritis: is it all about  
430 inflammation? *Nat Rev Rheumatol* 11 (7):390-400. <https://doi:10.1038/nrrheum.2015.40>

431 38. Forsyth C, Kouvari M, D'Cunha NM, Georgousopoulou EN, Panagiotakos DB, Mellor DD,  
432 Kellett J et al. (2018) The effects of the Mediterranean diet on rheumatoid arthritis prevention  
433 and treatment: a systematic review of human prospective studies. *Rheumatol Int* 38 (5):737-747.  
434 <https://doi:10.1007/s00296-017-3912-1>

435 39. Comee L, Taylor CA, Nahikian-Nelms M, Ganesan LP, Krok-Schoen JL (2019) Dietary  
436 patterns and nutrient intake of individuals with rheumatoid arthritis and osteoarthritis in the  
437 United States. *Nutrition* 67-68:110533. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2019.06.014>

438 40. Kant AK (2004) Dietary patterns and health outcomes. *J Am Diet Ass* 104 (4):615-635.  
439 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jada.2004.01.010>

440 41. Thiele S, Mensink GB, Beitz R (2004) Determinants of diet quality. *Public Health Nutr* 7  
441 (1):29-37

442 42. Leung CW, Epel ES, Ritchie LD, Crawford PB, Laraia BA (2014) Food Insecurity Is  
443 Inversely Associated with Diet Quality of Lower-Income Adults. *J Acad Nutr Diet* 114  
444 (12):1943-1953.e1942. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jand.2014.06.353>

445 43. Willett W (2012) *Nutritional epidemiology*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

446  
447  
448

449 **Table 1 .** Sociodemographic information of adults living with arthritis (n=86).

Age-groups	18-50y (n=32)	50-64y (n=31)	65+y (n=23)	<i>p</i> value
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	29.2 ± 6.72	30.4 ± 10.2	29.0 ± 5.0	0.846
Female sex <i>n</i> (%)	22 (68.8)	29 (93.5)	20 (87.0)	0.029
Reported Income				0.280
Low, <i>n</i> (%)	9 (28.1)	5 (16.1)	5 (21.7)	
Moderate, <i>n</i> (%)	10 (31.3)	8 (25.8)	7 (30.4)	
Good, <i>n</i> (%)	8 (25.0)	14 (45.2)	11 (47.8)	
Very good, <i>n</i> (%)	5 (15.6)	4 (12.9)	0 (0.00)	
AIMS2-SF	4.46 ± 1.06	4.57 ± 0.88	4.31 ± 0.85	0.609
Tertiles (AIMS2-SF)	T1 (n=31)	T2 (n=26)	T3 (n=29)	
Age (years) <sup>a</sup>	50.0 (44.0, 65.0)	62.0 (55.0, 69.3)	52.0 (38.0, 59.5)	0.044
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>a</sup>	27.8 ± 4.94	30.4 ± 6.17	30.8 ± 10.8	0.283
Female sex <i>n</i> (%)	22 (71.0)	23 (88.5)	26 (89.7)	0.106
Reported Income				0.013
Low, <i>n</i> (%)	1 (3.23)	6 (23.1)	12 (41.4)	
Moderate, <i>n</i> (%)	10 (32.3)	9 (34.6)	6 (20.7)	
Good, <i>n</i> (%)	15 (48.4)	8 (30.7)	10 (34.5)	
Very good, <i>n</i> (%)	5 (16.1)	3 (11.5)	1 (3.45)	

450 BMI = Body Mass Index. Data expressed as mean ± standard deviation or mean (1<sup>st</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> interquartile range)

451  
452  
453  
454  
455  
456  
457  
458  
459  
460  
461  
462  
463

464 **Table 2.** Spearman's coefficient of correlation ( $r_s$ ) for the relation of key variables associated with arthritis and diet (n=86)

465

	Age	BMI	Income	AIMS2-SF	HEI-2015 (Total)
Age	1				
BMI	0.023	1			
Income	0.061	-0.157	1		
AIMS2-SF	-0.075	0.099	-0.353 <sup>b</sup>	1	
HEI-2015 (Total)	0.337 <sup>a</sup>	-0.199	0.198	-0.140	1

466 <sup>a</sup> : p=0.002, <sup>b</sup> : p=0.001

467  
468

**Table 3.** Daily dietary macronutrient, fibre, and total energy intake in adults with arthritis (n=86)

Age-groups	18-49y (n=32)	50-64y (n=31)	65+y (n=23)	<i>p</i> value
Energy (kJ)	8351 (7054, 11319)	9313 (7382, 11995)	9958 (7721, 10911)	0.696
Protein (g)	95.1 (79.6, 119)	111 (86.7, 134)	95.3 (79.8, 127)	0.287
Total fat (g)	87.7 (66.9, 130)	99.8 (71.0, 120)	91.9 (74.3, 120)	0.206
Saturated fat (g)	33.4 ± 12.6	31.2 ± 11.5	30.0 ± 9.50	0.519
Trans fat (g)	1.37 ± 0.622	1.32 ± 0.664	1.16 ± 0.404	0.411
Carbohydrates (g)	198 (151, 253)	211 (163, 246)	211 (163, 257)	0.249
Dietary fibre (g)	31.1 ± 11.3 <sup>a</sup>	39.4 ± 14.0	41.5 ± 16.2 <sup>a</sup>	0.013
Alcohol (g)	1.41 (0.08, 6.52)	1.86 (0.21, 5.95)	2.05 (0.04, 7.29)	0.882
Tertiles (AIMS2-SF)	T1 (n=31)	T2 (n=26)	T3 (n=29)	
Energy (kJ)	9430 (7129, 11914)	9117 (7635, 10709)	9220 (6974, 11369)	0.862
Protein (g)	108 (80.2, 139)	102 (82.2, 123)	93.1 (79.9, 121)	0.164
Total fat (g)	96.4 (72.6, 137)	94.1 (70.8, 108)	91.7 (69.7, 131)	0.927
Saturated fat (g)	31.6 ± 11.7	30.1 ± 8.23	33.2 ± 13.5	0.611
Trans Fat (g)	1.35 ± 0.559	1.25 ± 0.528	1.28 ± 0.678	0.783
Carbohydrates (g)	213 (173, 239)	185 (161, 235)	220 (150, 279)	0.608
Dietary fibre (g)	36.1 ± 12.1	38.8 ± 16.5	36.0 ± 14.7	0.727
Alcohol (g)	2.27 (0.07, 5.95)	1.37 (0.21, 7.29)	1.82 (0.05, 5.71)	0.690

Data expressed as mean ± standard deviation or median (1<sup>st</sup>,3<sup>rd</sup>). <sup>a</sup> *p* = 0.022.

469

470 **Table 4.** Healthy Eating Index-2015: components, criterion, and scores based on age-groups.

Dietary Component (Score Range)	Standard for maximum score	Standard for minimum score	18-49y	50-64y	65+y	p value
<i>n</i>			<i>n</i> =32	<i>n</i> =31	<i>n</i> =23	
<i>Adequacy (higher score indicates higher consumption)</i>						
Total fruit (0-5)	≥0.8 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No whole fruit or juice	5.00 (3.59, 5.00)	5.00 (4.35, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	0.160
Whole fruit (0-5)	≥0.4 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No whole fruit	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	0.343
Total vegetables (0-5)	≥1.1 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No vegetables	5.00 (4.13, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	0.333
Greens and beans (0-5)	≥0.2 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No dark green vegetables or beans	5.00 (2.96, 5.00)	4.83 (3.12, 5.00)	5.00 (3.99, 5.00)	0.660
Whole grain (0-10)	≥1.5 oz eq. per 4184kJ	No whole grains	5.86 (3.09, 10.0)	8.22 (4.00, 10.0)	7.85 (3.84, 10.00)	0.409
Dairy (0-10)	≥1.3 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No dairy	6.98 (2.53, 8.73)	7.17 (5.19, 10.0)	7.03 (4.45, 9.14)	0.233
Total protein (0-5)	≥2.5 oz eq. per 4184kJ	No protein foods	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	0.600
Seafood and plant proteins (0-5)	≥0.8 oz eq. per 4184kJ	No seafood or plant proteins	5.00 (3.67, 5.00) <sup>ab</sup>	5.00 (5.00, 5.00) <sup>a</sup>	5.00 (5.00, 5.00) <sup>b</sup>	0.002
Fatty acids (0-10)	(MUFAs+PUFAs)/SFAs = ≥2.5	(MUFAs+PUFAs)/SFAs = ≤1.2	2.35 (0.06, 6.13) <sup>c</sup>	4.92 (1.14, 9.35)	6.33 (2.44, 10.0) <sup>c</sup>	0.042
<i>Moderation (higher score indicates lower consumption)</i>						
Refined grains (0-10)	≤1.8 oz eq. per 4184kJ	≥4.3 oz eq. per 4184kJ	10.0 (5.94, 10.0) <sup>de</sup>	10.0 (10.0, 10.0) <sup>d</sup>	10.0 (10.0, 10.0) <sup>e</sup>	0.001
Added sugar (0-10)	≤6.5% of energy	≥26% of energy	10.0 (9.85, 10.0)	10.0 (9.56, 10.0)	10.0 (9.73, 10.0)	0.885
Sodium (0-10)	≤1.1 oz eq. per 4184kJ	≥2.0 oz eq. per 4184kJ	10.0 (10.0, 10.0)	10.0 (10.0, 10.0)	10.0 (10.0, 10.0)	0.954
Saturated fat (0-10)	≤8% of energy	≥16% of energy	1.99 (0.23, 6.32)	4.79 (0.43, 8.61)	4.68 (2.77, 7.66)	0.069
Total Score			72.1 ± 12.3 <sup>fg</sup>	81.5 ± 9.72 <sup>f</sup>	81.8 ± 12.1 <sup>g</sup>	0.001

HEI: Healthy Eating Index; PUFAs: Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids; MUFA: Monounsaturated Fatty Acids; SFAs: Saturated Fatty Acids. Total healthy eating score (> 80 = good, 51-80 = fair, < 51 = poor). <sup>a</sup> p = 0.042, <sup>b</sup> p = 0.012, <sup>c</sup> p = 0.042, <sup>d</sup> p = 0.009, <sup>e</sup> p = 0.018, <sup>f</sup> p = 0.004, <sup>g</sup> p = 0.007.

471  
472  
473  
474  
475  
476  
477  
478  
479  
480

481 **Table 5.** Healthy Eating Index-2015: components, criterion, and scores based on AIMS2-SF Tertiles.

Dietary Component (Score Range)	Standard for maximum score	Standard for minimum score	T1	T2	T3	<i>p</i> value
<i>n</i>			<i>n</i> =31	<i>n</i> =26	<i>n</i> =29	
<i>Adequacy (high score indicates higher consumption)</i>						
Total fruit (0-5)	≥0.8 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No whole fruit or juice	5.00 (4.03, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00) <sup>a</sup>	5.00 (3.64, 5.00) <sup>a</sup>	0.045
Whole fruit (0-5)	≥0.4 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No whole fruit	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	0.400
Total vegetables (0-5)	≥1.1 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No vegetables	5.00 (4.94, 5.00)	5.00 (4.76, 5.00)	5.00 (4.71, 5.00)	0.945
Greens and beans (0-5)	≥0.2 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No dark green vegetables or	5.00 (3.27, 5.00)	4.96 (3.71, 5.00)	5.00 (2.40, 5.00)	0.828
Whole grain (0-10)	≥1.5 oz eq. per 4184kJ	No whole grains	7.92 (3.84, 10.0)	8.30 (3.23, 10.0)	5.36 (2.66, 9.99)	0.342
Dairy (0-10)	≥1.3 cup eq. per 4184kJ	No dairy	6.70 (2.98, 9.41)	7.09 (5.73, 9.04)	7.09 (3.90, 9.36)	0.799
Total protein (0-5)	≥2.5 oz eq. per 4184kJ	No protein foods	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	0.738
Seafood and plant proteins (0-5)	≥0.8 oz eq. per 4184kJ	No seafood or plant proteins	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	5.00 (5.00, 5.00)	0.762
Fatty acids (0-10)	(MUFAs+PUFAs)/SFAs = ≥2.5	(MUFAs+PUFAs)/SFAs = ≤1.2	4.82 (1.42, 9.32)	3.94 (1.35, 9.09)	4.12 (0.77, 9.12)	0.934
<i>Moderation (higher score indicates lower consumption)</i>						
Refined grains (0-10)	≤1.8 oz eq. per 4184kJ	≥4.3 oz eq. per 4184kJ	10.0 (8.65, 10.0)	10.0 (10.0, 10.0)	10.0 (8.43, 10.0)	0.222
Added sugar (0-10)	≤6.5% of energy	≥26% of energy	10.0 (10.0, 10.0) <sup>b</sup>	10.0 (9.53, 10.0)	10.0 (8.93, 10.0) <sup>b</sup>	0.016
Sodium (0-10)	≤1.1 oz eq. per 4184kJ	≥2.0 oz eq. per 4184kJ	10.0 (10.0, 10.0)	10.0 (10.0, 10.0)	10.0 (10.0, 10.0)	0.762
Saturated fat (0-10)	≤8% of energy	≥16% of energy	3.55 (1.79, 7.93)	4.24 (1.06, 7.44)	2.92 (0.86, 7.44)	0.686
Total score			79.0 ± 12.0	80.5 ± 11.3	74.9 ± 12.8	0.208

HEI: Healthy Eating Index; SD: Standard Deviation; PUFAs: Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids; MUFA: Monounsaturated Fatty Acids; SFAs: Saturated Fatty Acids. Total healthy eating score (> 80 = good, 51-80 = fair, < 51 = poor). <sup>a</sup> *p* = 0.039, <sup>b</sup> *p* = 0.012.