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A Metcalfe-Roach, AC Yu, E Golz, K Sundvick ...+6 more authors

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1 **MIND diet associated with later onset of Parkinson's disease**

2 Metcalfe-Roach A, BSc^{1,2}, Yu AC, MSc³, Golz E, BA³, Sundvick K³, Cirstea MS, BSc^{1,2}, BSc³,
3 Kliger D, BA³, Foulger LH³, Mackenzie M, MD^{3,5}, Finlay BB, PhD^{1,2,4}, Appel-Cresswell S, MD^{*3,5}

4 * Corresponding author:

5 Dr. Silke Appel-Cresswell

6 Pacific Parkinson's Research Centre

7 University of British Columbia

8 2221 Wesbrook Mall

9 Vancouver, BC, Canada V6T 2B5

10 Tel: +1 (604) 822-7754

11 Email: silke.cresswell@ubc.ca

12 1. Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of British Columbia, Vancouver,
13 British Columbia, Canada.

14 2. Michael Smith Laboratories, UBC, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

15 3. Pacific Parkinson's Research Centre and Djavad Mowafaghian Centre for Brain Health, UBC,
16 Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada.

17 4. Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, UBC, Vancouver, British Columbia,
18 Canada.

19 5. Division of Neurology, Faculty of Medicine, UBC, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada

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30 **ABSTRACT**

31 **Background:** The MIND diet has been linked with prevention of Alzheimer's disease and
32 cognitive decline but has not been fully assessed in the context of Parkinson's disease (PD).

33 **Objective:** To determine whether MIND diet adherence is associated with the age of
34 Parkinson's disease onset in a manner superior to that of the Mediterranean diet.

35 **Methods:** Food Frequency Questionnaires from 167 participants with PD and 119 controls were
36 scored for MIND and two versions of Mediterranean diet adherence. Scores were compared
37 between sex and disease subgroups, and PD diet adherence was correlated with age of onset
38 using univariate and multivariate linear models.

39 **Results:** The female subgroup adhered more closely to the MIND diet than the males, and diet
40 scores were not modified by disease status. Later age of onset correlated most strongly with
41 MIND diet adherence in the female subgroup, corresponding to differences of up to 17.4 years
42 ($p < 0.001$) between low and high dietary tertiles. Greek Mediterranean adherence was also
43 significantly associated with later PD onset across all models ($p = 0.05-0.03$). Conversely, only
44 Greek Mediterranean adherence remained correlated with later onset across all models in men,
45 with differences of up to 8.4 years ($p = 0.002$).

46 **Conclusions:** This cross-sectional study finds a strong correlation of age of onset of PD with
47 dietary habits, suggesting that nutritional strategies may be an effective tool to delay PD onset.
48 Further studies may help to elucidate potential nutrition-related sex-specific pathophysiological
49 mechanisms and differential prevalence rates in PD.

50 INTRODUCTION

51 Numerous epidemiological studies have investigated the effects of regional dietary trends on
52 population health and longevity. The Western diet, common in North America, is notorious for its
53 high levels of processed and fried foods, sugar, and red meat; this diet has been linked to
54 increased prevalence and severity of many diseases, including cardiovascular disease (CVD),
55 diabetes, and cancer^{1,2}. Conversely, the Mediterranean diet (MeDi) has garnered significant
56 interest due to its association with reduced rates of cancer³, CVD³, and neurodegenerative
57 diseases⁴ such as Alzheimer's disease (AD) and Parkinson's disease (PD). Two principal MeDi
58 scoring methods exist: the original MeDi (OMeDi) is characterized in part by its antioxidant-rich
59 mix of vegetables, whole grains, and reduced red meat/dairy⁵ and was revised to promote fish
60 intake, while the alternative Greek MeDi (GMeDi) pattern uses similar food groups but also
61 promotes potato intake and limits poultry consumption⁶.

62 The Mediterranean-DASH Intervention for Neurodegenerative Delay (MIND) diet, first published
63 in 2015, attempted to refine the MeDi in order to minimize cognitive decline⁷. Though the
64 majority of food groups are similar or identical to those found in the MeDi, the MIND diet
65 uniquely rewards leafy green, berry, and poultry intake while minimizing the consumption of
66 fried food and sweets. Milk, potato, and fruit intake are also discarded. The MIND diet has been
67 associated with up to a 54% reduction in AD incidence⁷ and consistently proves to be more
68 beneficial for cognitive health than the MeDi^{8,9}. Despite this success, little research has
69 investigated the effect of the MIND diet on other neurodegenerative diseases. Agarwal et. al
70 (2018) previously showed that higher MIND dietary adherence correlated with reduced
71 incidence and progression of Parkinsonian symptoms during aging¹⁰, but to date no studies
72 have investigated the potential impact of the diet on patients formally diagnosed with PD. This
73 cross-sectional study examines the relationship between MIND diet adherence and the age of
74 PD onset in a Canadian cohort, and compares the performance of the MIND diet to both MeDi
75 scoring methods.

76 **METHODS**

77 **Study population and Participant Recruitment**

78 225 participants diagnosed with PD within the last 12 years and 156 control participants were
79 recruited through the Pacific Parkinson's Research Centre (PPRC) at the University of British
80 Columbia (UBC), Canada, using inclusion/exclusion criteria described previously¹¹. Incomplete
81 dietary surveys (n=93) were not included in the analysis, as well as PD participants with no
82 recorded age of onset (n=2), leaving a total of 167 and 119 PD and control participants,
83 respectively. 31 spousal pairs, all of which consisted of one PD and one control participant,
84 were identified from the remaining cohort and excluded from all analyses that involved the
85 control group. The study was approved by the UBC Clinical Research Ethics Board and written
86 informed consent was obtained from each participant.

87 **Data Collection**

88 All data were self-reported and collected either during a study visit or through an online data
89 collection portal. Age of onset was defined as the age at which the participant first started to
90 experience motor symptoms as recorded in the chart and supported by self-report. Dietary
91 patterns over the past year were assessed using the EPIC-Norfolk Food Frequency
92 Questionnaire (FFQ)¹², and exercise habits were assessed using the Physical Activity Scale for
93 the Elderly (PASE)¹³. Total energy intake was calculated using FETA¹⁴ and is reported in
94 kilocalories (kcal). Smoking habits were categorized as current, previous, and never, and blood
95 pressure was self-reported as low, normal, or high. History of diabetes (including gestational
96 diabetes) and cardiovascular disease (CVD) were recorded as true or false, as was family
97 history of PD (confirmed cases in first degree relatives). PASE and PD family history data were
98 only collected from a subset of the PD cohort (n=121 & 123 respectively) as it was included
99 after the study had commenced.

100 **Diet Scoring**

101 A list of all food groups and the consumption frequencies used for scoring can be found in the
102 Supplementary data (**Tables S1-3**). For all diets, food items that did not fall in any of the listed
103 food groups were discarded. MIND dietary adherence was calculated using the number of
104 servings per food group outlined by Morris et. al¹⁵, giving MIND scores out of 15 for each
105 participant.

106 For the OMeDi scoring, food groups were binned as specified by Trichopoulou et. al⁵ and the
107 ratio of monounsaturated to saturated fat intake was calculated using FETA¹⁴. Participants who
108 consumed below the sex-specific median for dairy and meat were given a score of 1 for the
109 category, or 0 for the remaining categories. Ethanol intake (g/day) was estimated by multiplying
110 the relevant FFQ items by the following ethanol contents: wine (15 g/glass), beer (14.4 g/half
111 pint), ports/liqueurs (10 g/glass), and spirits (9.2 g/shot). A score of 1 was assigned for
112 consumption between 5-25 g/day for women and 10-50 g/day for men. Food group scores were
113 then summed to give the OMeDi score out of 9.

114 For the GMeDi scoring, food groups were scored out of 5 according to Panagiotakos et. al⁶.
115 Ethanol intake (g/day) was quantified as described above and scored out of 5. Accurate
116 quantifications of olive oil intake were not available; instead, 3 points were added to the total
117 score if olive oil was the primary cooking oil used by the participant. All categorical scores were
118 then summed to give the GMeDi score out of 53.

119 All dietary tertiles were assigned in a manner that optimized PD participant distribution (**Table**
120 **S4**).

121 **Statistical Analysis**

122 All analyses were conducted in R. Univariate associations were queried using Kruskal-Wallis
123 tests for binary variables and linear regression for continuous variables. All multivariate
124 associations between age of onset (response variable) and dietary score (explanatory variable)
125 were queried using linear regression, whereas associations between sex and dietary score used

126 logistical regression. Dietary score was treated as a continuous variable or with tertiles
127 represented as ordinal factors. Nonparametric differences in the distribution of metadata across
128 tertiles were assessed using Kruskal-Wallis tests for continuous variables and chi-square
129 analysis for categorical variables.

130 **RESULTS**

131 **Cohort Statistics**

132 **Tables 1 and 2** summarize the overall and tertile-based descriptive statistics of the PD and
133 control cohorts respectively. Tables for sex-specific subgroups can be found in the
134 Supplementary (**Tables S5-8**), along with interaction plots of dietary tertiles with each variable
135 (**Figure S1**). Dietary score ranges can be found in **Table S9**.

136 PD participants were primarily male (68.3%), were an average of 64.9 years old (SD=8.0), and
137 had begun to experience motor symptoms (referred to as age of onset) an average of 6.5 years
138 previously (SD=3.1). Control participants were only 39.3% male and were slightly younger
139 (M=61.8 years, SD=9.9). PD participants who were older and had later ages of onset had higher
140 adherence to all diets; these correlations remained significant only in the MeDi variants for men
141 and the MIND diet for women. In contrast, age was not significantly associated with any dietary
142 score in the corresponding control groups with the exception of the GMeDi, which was
143 nonlinearly associated, driven by women and likely spurious (Wilcox, $p=0.003$). High OMeDi
144 adherence correlated with lower CVD incidence and higher exercise scores in the sex-combined
145 PD cohort, while high adherence to both the MIND diet and the OMeDi correlated with higher
146 exercise scores in PD women. High MIND diet adherence also corresponded to higher exercise
147 scores in female controls. PD male adherence to all diets correlated with lower BMIs, though
148 OMeDi and MIND diets were also associated with higher kcal consumption in PD men. High
149 GMeDi adherence corresponded to lower smoking rates in the controls overall and lower CVD
150 rates in male controls.

151 Women scored 1.1 points higher on the MIND diet than men on average (Wilcox, $p < 0.001$),
152 even after controlling for disease status, kcal, age, and disease duration (logistic regression,
153 $p < 0.001$). Female PD participants appeared to have slightly lower median MIND scores than
154 their control counterparts and vice versa in the male cohort (**Figure S2**); however, these
155 differences were not significant. No other significant associations were observed between other
156 diet scores and sex/disease status.

157 **MIND Diet Adherence Correlates with Later Disease Onset, Especially Among Women**

158 To facilitate the comparison of model estimates, all dietary scoring systems were adjusted to a
159 0-10 scale (see **Table S9** for score ranges). Three linear regression models were used to query
160 the relationship between dietary adherence and age of onset: Basic ($n=167$: disease duration,
161 kcal, sex), Lifestyle ($n=121$: Basic + smoking, years of education, exercise), and Health ($n=123$:
162 Basic + high/low blood pressure, diabetes and CVD history, BMI, family PD history). Diet scores
163 were regressed as both continuous adjusted scores and tertiles and the score estimates (β)
164 compared using effect plots (**Figure 2**). Statistics on all models and corresponding regression
165 plots are included in the Supplementary (**Table S10 & Figure S3**).

166 All results discussed compare the estimated difference in age of onset between the lowest and
167 highest dietary tertiles unless otherwise specified ($E=2*\beta$, presented as the range of model
168 estimates). While MIND diet adherence correlated most strongly with age of onset in the overall
169 cohort, striking sex-specific effects were revealed upon stratification. Higher MIND diet
170 adherence correlated far more robustly with later onset in women ($E=15.6-17.4$, $p \leq 0.003$) than
171 in men ($E=3.6-7.4$, $p=0.21-0.01$) or any other diet in either subgroup ($E=4.6-10.8$, $p < 0.25$). The
172 GMeDi model in the female subgroup also reached significance, though to a lesser degree
173 ($E=8.4-9.8$, $p=0.05-0.03$). In men, the GMeDi correlated most consistently with age of onset
174 ($E=6.2-8.4$, $p=0.02-0.002$) and was the only diet to remain significantly associated across every
175 model. The MIND diet was only weakly correlated with age of onset ($E=3.6-7.4$, $p=0.21-0.01$),

176 performing similarly to the OMeDi (E=4.6-6.4, p=0.15-0.03). Similar trends were observed
177 between the tertile and continuous datasets, though OMeDi effect sizes were far smaller due to
178 their wider score range (**Table S9**).

179 **DISCUSSION**

180 In this cross-sectional study, higher adherence to the MIND diet was significantly associated
181 with a higher age at disease onset, especially in women, with a difference of up to 17.4 years
182 between the highest and lowest tertiles of diet adherence. In men, the GMeDi was consistently
183 more significant than the MIND diet and the OMeDi across models; still, no diet was associated
184 with more than a 7.1-year average difference in age of onset between low and high tertiles in
185 men. While female participants experienced only slightly larger MeDi effect sizes compared to
186 male participants, the average effect size of the MIND diet in females was over 3 times that of
187 the males and surpassed all MeDi effect sizes, suggesting that its dietary components are better
188 suited to possibly delaying PD onset than MeDi in a female-specific manner.

189 Similarly, only the MIND diet showed any interaction between sex and diet score, despite the
190 fact that neither the MIND diet nor the GMeDi normalizes food intake by sex. Female
191 participants adhered significantly closer to the MIND diet than males, even after correcting for
192 age, disease status and duration, and kilocalorie consumption, indicating that the higher MIND
193 score is not simply due to differences in food volume. As the sex difference was similar between
194 the PD and control groups ($\beta=1.0$ & 1.2 respectively), it is unlikely that this effect is an artefact
195 of any sex-specific dietary shifts that may occur upon PD diagnosis. This tendency for females
196 to adhere more strongly to the MIND diet may contribute to their lower rate of PD incidence.

197 An analysis of two large US cohorts found that while GMeDi adherence was only weakly
198 associated with reduced PD risk (p=0.07), the 'prudent' dietary pattern was slightly more
199 strongly associated (p=0.04)¹⁶. Interestingly, this prudent pattern promoted several items such
200 as poultry and leafy vegetables in a manner similar to the MIND diet rather than either MeDi.

201 Several other studies have also found negative correlations between PD status or risk and
202 adherence to MeDi- or MIND-type diets^{17,18}. These results are at odds with the present findings,
203 which found no significant interactions between diet and disease status. It is possible that any
204 dietary differences that may have existed between PD and control participants prior to disease
205 onset are corrected upon disease diagnosis in a sex-independent manner; however, the
206 strength of the interactions between age of onset and dietary scores suggest that any dietary
207 shifts that may occur upon diagnosis do not significantly affect the results.

208 Apart from age and kcal consumption, the only sex-specific associations noted between PD
209 dietary scores and the model covariables involved exercise in women and BMI in men; thus, the
210 corresponding Lifestyle and Health models were presumed to be the most accurate predictors
211 of dietary effects in women and men respectively. Though all three models (Basic, Lifestyle,
212 Health) produced similar diet rankings, the Health model resulted in slightly lower average effect
213 sizes compared to the Lifestyle model in men. It is well documented that the MeDi imparts
214 significant cardiovascular benefits^{1,19}, some of which are sex-dependent; for example, improved
215 insulin homeostasis has been observed only in men¹⁹. Indeed, significantly reduced CVD
216 incidence was noted in those with high OMeDi scores (**Table 1**), and trended similarly for the
217 majority of other diet/sex combinations. If MeDi-type diets delay PD onset in part via their
218 beneficial cardiovascular effects, then controlling for CVD may reduce the apparent effect of the
219 diets, especially in men. Similarly, the higher and more statistically significant effect sizes
220 observed in the Lifestyle model in men support the notion that the model covariables are
221 significant disease-modifying elements. While smoking has long been associated with reduced
222 PD incidence²⁰, the impact of exercise has not been fully explored. A growing number of
223 studies, including the large-scale FINGER study²¹, have suggested that exercise may be an
224 effective way to reduce neurological decline, especially as part of a combinatorial therapeutic
225 approach²².

226 Although adherence to all diets was strongly associated with lower BMIs in male PD
227 participants, it was also positively associated with higher kilocalorie consumption with no
228 significant changes in exercise habits. As the majority of food groups in each diet reward
229 increased consumption, it is possible that taller people naturally score higher than shorter
230 people while still maintaining similar or lower BMIs due to their higher energy requirements.
231 However, no correlations were found between diet scores and height (**Table 1**). It is likely that
232 people with low dietary scores consume more foods that are not captured by the FFQ, such as
233 prepackaged meals, and thus their kcal consumption is underestimated.

234 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to examine the role of the MIND diet in a
235 strictly PD cohort. Our female PD-specific findings mirror previous research in AD and cognitive
236 decline, where the MIND diet has repeatedly proven more effective than MeDi as a preventative
237 measure over several different mixed-sex study cohorts^{7,9,15}. Interestingly, women represent two
238 thirds of all AD cases and may experience more severe cognitive deficits than their male
239 counterparts²³. The observed effects of the MIND diet in AD and in women with PD suggest that
240 the diseases share similar sex-dependent mechanisms which may be modulated by dietary
241 intake. Several previous studies have indicated that certain effects of MeDi are sex-specific in
242 neurotypical cohorts, such as inflammation²⁴ and reduced CVD risk¹⁹ as mentioned previously.
243 In contrast, few studies have previously identified sex-based differences related to the MIND
244 diet²⁵. Future work will investigate the effects of the MIND diet on other elements of PD etiology
245 including disease progression, inflammatory markers, and gastrointestinal symptoms such as
246 constipation and dysbiosis.

247 These findings also corroborate a recent longitudinal study by Agarwal et. al¹⁰, where
248 participants in the highest MIND dietary tertile developed parkinsonism at a rate 42% below that
249 of the lowest tertile over an average observation period of 4.6 years. This analysis studied the
250 RUSH Memory and Aging Project (MAP) cohort, which was also used to identify a positive

251 correlation between MIND diet adherence and reduced incidence/progression of cognitive
252 decline¹⁵ and AD⁷. Importantly, the MAP cohort is 75% female. Though no sex-specific effects
253 were reported in these studies, the high proportion of women suggests that the results are more
254 reflective of female physiology. Beyond the sex ratio, the lack of sex-specific effects observed
255 may be due to several factors: firstly, the advanced age of the MAP participants (approximately
256 80, 15 years older than the present cohort) suggest that the sex specificity observed here may
257 be particularly relevant for the delay of neurodegenerative disease in early/mid senium.

258 Additionally, parkinsonism is an umbrella term that does not constitute a diagnosis of PD. In the
259 corresponding study, 43% of the participants developed parkinsonism over a mean follow up of
260 4.6 years, which is an order of magnitude higher than the 10-year PD risk estimate for males
261 aged 75 (2.6%)²⁶. It is possible that the more inclusive definition of parkinsonism in the analysis
262 masked any sex-specific effects that may be particular to PD. Finally, the methods used to
263 detect sex-specific effects were not specified, and so direct comparisons cannot be made
264 between studies.

265 Due to the complexity of the diets, the key elements that drive their beneficial effects are poorly
266 understood. It is believed that the power of the diets is due to a complex range of metabolites
267 acting upon multiple disease elements; however, significant progress has been made to identify
268 key molecules and metabolites that act upon neurodegenerative diseases in reproducible ways.
269 Leafy greens and berries, which are specific to the MIND diet, are rich in antioxidants such as
270 carotenoids, flavonoids, folate, and vitamins C and E, some or all of which have been
271 associated with lower PD/parkinsonism risk and reduced disease progression in both animal
272 models and human cohorts²⁷⁻³¹. Conversely, the MeDi diets restrict the intake of all dairy, while
273 the MIND diet penalizes only cheese and butter/margarine consumption. Milk consumption has
274 been repeatedly identified as a risk factor for PD, possibly due to increased pesticide exposure;
275 its omission from the MIND diet may contribute to the reduced efficacy of the diet observed in
276 the male cohort. Overall, determining the subtle differences in the metabolic profiles of the

277 different diets may help to unravel elements of PD etiology that are modified by diet in a sex-
278 specific manner.

279 Several limitations should be noted with this study. Firstly, all dietary data are cross-sectional,
280 where only one FFQ was analyzed per participant; in addition, the analysis assumes that the
281 dietary habits of each participant have not significantly changed over their lifetime. Though there
282 were no differences found between PD and control dietary scores, a prospective study would be
283 required in order to ensure that all disease-related dietary fluctuations are accounted for.

284 Secondly, the berry food group included in the MIND diet is underrepresented by the FFQ, as
285 the only related question assesses strawberries, raspberries, and kiwi fruits and disregards
286 other common berries such as blueberries. Lastly, there is a strong correlation between the age
287 of the participant and age of onset ($p < 0.001$) (**Figure S4**), meaning that any interactions
288 between age and dietary score are misattributed to age of onset. This strong interaction is a
289 result of the study design: only patients who had been diagnosed with PD for 12 years or less
290 were included, resulting in a narrow disease duration range ($M=6.5$ years, $SD=3.1$). Despite this
291 limitation, no significant linear correlations were found between age and diet scores in the
292 controls (**Table S11**) and the results presented here are thus believed to be valid.

293 We have captured a strong, female-driven correlation between MIND diet adherence and
294 delayed PD onset in a manner similar or superior to the MeDi. The sex specificities presented
295 here are novel and may prove to be an important contributor to the sex differences observed in
296 PD. Overall, these data paint a compelling rationale for interventional and animal-based studies
297 that investigate the direct impact of the diet on PD etiology in a sex-specific manner. This study
298 should be repeated in a larger, preferably prospective cohort in order to confirm these findings.
299 Future work will investigate the effect of the diet on other PD symptoms including gut microbial
300 dysbiosis, disease progression, constipation, cognition, and other factors.

301

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309 **AUTHORS' ROLES**

310 1) Research project: A. Conception, B. Organization, C. Execution;
311 2) Statistical Analysis: A. Design, B. Execution, C. Review and Critique;
312 3) Manuscript: A. Writing of the first draft, B. Review and Critique.
313 A.M.R.: 1A-C, 2A-C, 3A-B.
314 A.C.Y., E.G.: 1B-C, 3B.
315 K.S.: 1A-C.
316 M.S.C.: 2A,C, 3B.
317 D.K., L.H.F., M.M.: 1B-C.
318 B.B.F.: 1A-C, 2A,C, 3B
319 S.A.C.: 1A-C, 2A,C, 3B

320 **FINANCIAL DISCLOSURES**

321 None.

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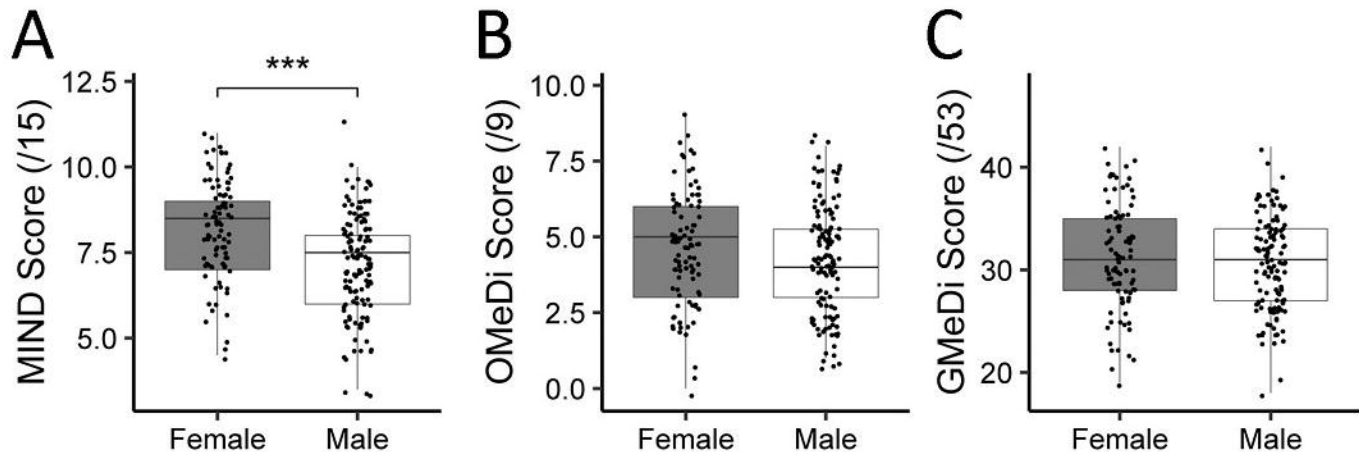


Figure 1. Sex-stratified scores for (A) MIND diet, (B) OMeDi, and (C) GMeDi. *** denotes a p value below 0.001. Figures include both PD and control participants.

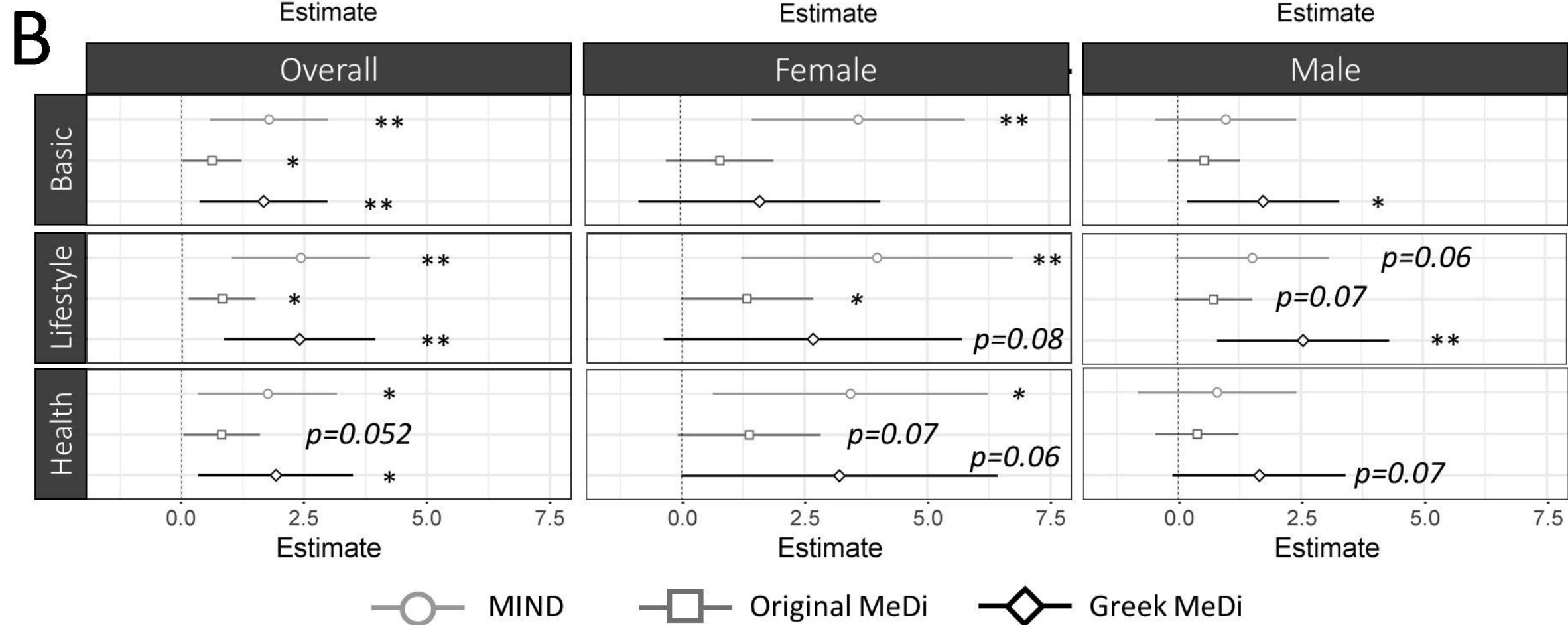
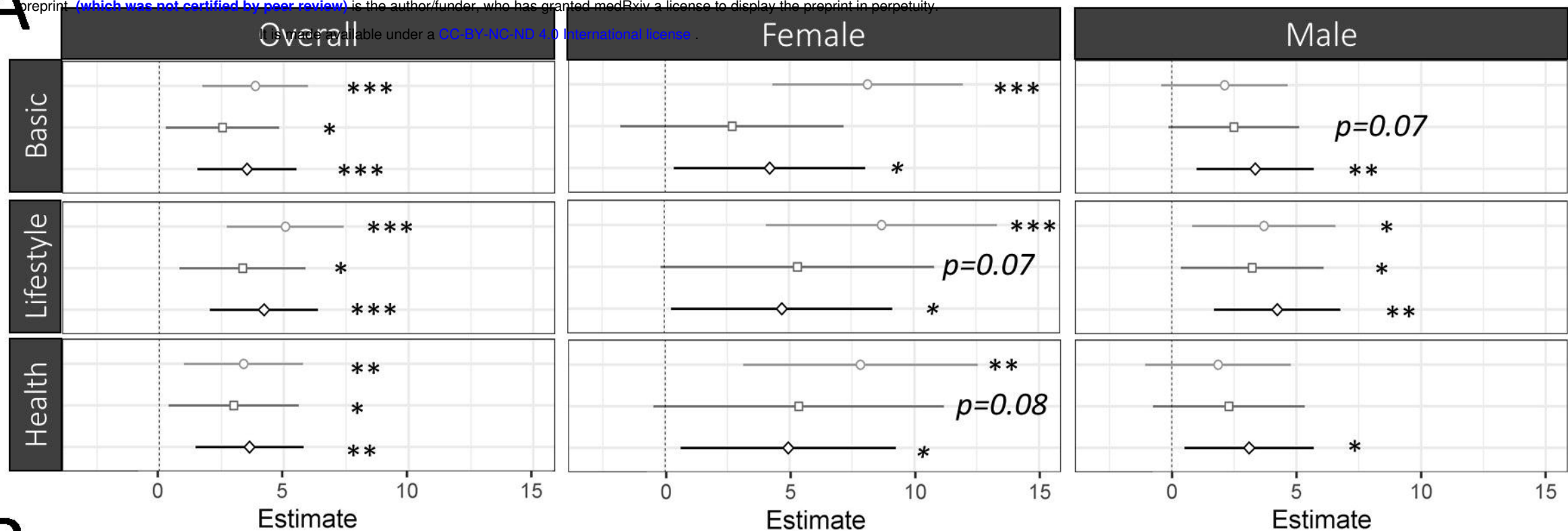


Figure 2. Estimated effects and 95% confidence intervals of the MIND diet, OMeDi, and GMeDi on age of PD onset using (A) tertile and (B) continuous scores. *, **, and * denote p values below 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 respectively.**

Table 1. PD cohort characteristics.

	All	MIND (/15)				Original MeDi (/9)				Greek MeDi (/53)			
		T1	T2	T3	Pval	T1	T2	T3	Pval	T1	T2	T3	Pval
n (total)	167	49	62	56		47	77	43		58	56	53	
Median Diet Score (IQR)		6 (1)	7.5 (1)	9 (1)		2 (1)	4 (1)	7 (2)		26 (3)	31 (2)	36 (3)	
% Female	31.7	22.4	29	42.9	0.069	31.9	31.2	32.6	0.987	31	32.1	32.1	0.990
Age	64.9	60.9	66.5	66.6	<0.001	61.6	66	66.4	0.003	62.6	64.6	67.7	0.002
Disease Duration (years)	6.5	6.5	7	5.8	0.146	6.2	6.5	6.7	0.677	6.4	6.8	6.1	0.408
Age of Onset	58.4	54.4	59.5	60.8	<0.001	55.4	59.6	59.7	0.023	56.2	57.8	61.6	0.001
Energy Intake (kcal)	1659.7	1466	1748	1731	0.006	1566	1605	1860	0.010	1645	1632	1706	0.639
Education (years)	16.1	16	16.2	16.2	0.816	15.7	16.4	16.1	0.167	16.1	15.9	16.3	0.392
% Smokers (Lifetime)	40	33.3	49.2	35.7	0.177	42.6	44	30.2	0.311	41.4	44.4	34	0.523
Exercise Score	161.7	171.5	153.3	162.3	0.466	161.1	145.2	192.5	0.005	146.9	182.7	159.4	0.685
% Normal Blood Pressure	65	63.6	64.2	67.4	0.921	52.5	66.2	76.3	0.465	68	57.4	69.6	0.457
BMI	26.5	28.1	26.4	25.3	0.004	27.8	26.7	24.9	0.006	27.2	26.5	25.8	0.145
Height	172.8	173.7	173.7	170.8	0.139	173.2	172.5	172.7	0.942	173.5	173.4	171.3	0.464
% Diabetes	6.4	2.9	9.8	5.9	0.482	4.2	11.1	0	0.116	7.9	2.9	8.1	0.607
% CVD	25.7	26.5	30.6	19.6	0.390	38.3	23.4	16.3	0.047	32.8	26.8	17	0.161

The All column represents mean values for the overall cohort, whereas columns T1, T2 and T3 are dietary tertiles. Differences between tertiles were calculated using nonparametric (numerical data) and chi-square tests (categorical data).

Table 2. Control cohort characteristics.

		MIND (/15)				Original MeDi (/9)				Greek MeDi (/53)			
	All	T1	T2	T3	Pval	T1	T2	T3	Pval	T1	T2	T3	Pval
n (total)	84	20	30	34		26	31	27		20	38	26	
Median Diet Score (IQR)		6 (1)	7.5 (1)	9 (1)		2 (1)	5 (1)	6 (1)		26 (4)	31 (2)	37 (4)	
% Female	60.7	35	53.3	82.4	0.002	53.8	64.5	63	0.684	50	68.4	57.7	0.366
Age	61.8	62.4	60.1	63.1	0.567	62.6	61.1	62	0.951	66.1	57.8	64.5	0.003
Energy Intake (kcal)	1569.9	1381	1603	1651	0.092	1372	1650	1668	0.071	1520	1597	1569	0.943
Education (years)	17.1	17.1	16.7	17.4	0.853	16.8	16.6	18.1	0.296	17.6	16.6	17.4	0.432
% Smokers (Lifetime)	39.8	47.4	36.7	38.2	0.736	30.8	46.7	40.7	0.476	42.1	52.6	19.2	0.027
Exercise Score	175.2	186.2	141.2	225.8	0.129	158.2	223.4	167.4	0.862	153.8	168	192	0.645
% Normal Blood Pressure	60.4	50	71.4	52.9	0.440	84.6	50	52.9	0.382	57.1	64	56.2	0.905
BMI	26.6	28.4	25.2	27	0.254	26.8	27.5	25.6	0.582	28.2	26.1	26.2	0.209
% Diabetes	9.1	18.2	4.3	9.5	0.421	0	14.3	10	0.349	12.5	10.7	5.3	0.764
% CVD	23.8	30	23.3	20.6	0.733	19.2	25.8	25.9	0.804	10	28.9	26.9	0.247

The All column represents mean values for the overall cohort, whereas columns T1, T2 and T3 are dietary tertiles. Differences between tertiles were calculated using nonparametric (numerical data) and chi-square tests (categorical data).