



OPEN

Association between Baltic sea diet and healthy Nordic diet index with risk of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: a case–control study

Zahra Rasoulizadeh¹, Abolfazl Namazi², Mohammad Hassan Sohoul^{3,4}, Pejman Rohani⁴, Azita Hekmatdoost⁵ & Mahdieh Housseinzadeh⁶

Recent evidence shows the beneficial effects of Baltic Sea diet score (BSDS) and healthy Nordic diet index (HNDI) on chronic diseases, however, there is no evidence to investigate them on the risk of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). The purpose of this study was to investigate the associations between BSDS and HNDI with the risk of NAFLD. In this case–control study, 552 people in good health and 340 people with NAFLD over the age of 18 took part. The evaluation of BSDS and HNDI employed a validated 168-item semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire (FFQ). Binary logistic regression was used to determine how OBS and NAFLD are related. The mean BSDS and HNDI were 16.00 ± 2.49 and 11.99 ± 2.61 , respectively. The final model's confounder adjustment revealed that greater HNDI adherence scores gave protection against the occurrence of NAFLD (odds ratio [OR]: 0.42; 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.18–0.98; P for trend = 0.043). In addition, those with the highest BSDS scores had significantly lower risks of developing NAFLD compared to subjects with the lowest scores (OR = 0.48, 95% CI 0.32–0.89; p for trend = 0.003). Our findings showed that following a healthy Nordic diet can significantly prevent the risk of developing NAFLD, and suggest that the highly nutritious components of the Nordic diet are beneficial for the prevention of NAFLD.

Keywords NAFLD, Nordic diet, Baltic sea diet, Chronic diseases, Case–control

The most prevalent kind of chronic liver disease is non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), which is characterized by a variety of fat liver conditions that can lead to cirrhosis and severe liver disease¹. Adult NAFLD prevalence is estimated to be 20–25 percent worldwide, as well as 5–18 and 25–31% among populations in Iran and Asian nations, respectively^{2–4}. Finding practical methods to prevent and cure NAFLD is essential because it places a heavy financial strain on the healthcare system and lowers quality of life as the illness worsens⁵. It is believed that poor dietary practices, particularly the intake of a high-calorie diet heavy in saturated fatty acids or simple carbohydrates, are mostly to blame for this high prevalence of NAFLD⁶. There is not yet agreement on the pharmacological treatments for NAFLD. The cornerstone of NAFLD therapy is still thought to be lifestyle therapies that emphasize physical exercise and a balanced diet in terms of both quality and quantity¹.

This treatment's cornerstone is a change in lifestyle that starts with a decrease in the intake of foods that are rich in red meat, trans and saturate fatty acids, processed carbohydrates, and high-fructose corn syrup; low in fiber; and high in energy density⁷. The two well-researched healthy eating patterns (rich in vegetables, fruits, types of antioxidant micronutrients, high fiber, and whole grains) are the Mediterranean and Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diets⁸, the effect of which on the reduction in NAFLD odds has been

¹School of Medicine, Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences, Yazd, Iran. ²Department of Internal Medicine, Hazrat-E Rasool General Hospital, Iran University Of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran. ³Student Research Committee, Department of Clinical Nutrition and Dietetics, Faculty of Nutrition and Food Technology, National Nutrition and Food Technology Research Institute, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, No 7, West Arghavan St, Farahzadi Blvd, PO Box 19395-4741, Tehran 1981619573, Iran. ⁴Pediatric Gastroenterology and Hepatology Research Center, Pediatrics Centre of Excellence, Children's Medical Center, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran. ⁵Department of Clinical Nutrition and Dietetics, Faculty of Nutrition and Food Technology, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran. ⁶Department of Nutrition, School of Public Health, Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences, Yazd, Iran. ✉email: mohammadhassansohouli@gmail.com; hoseinzade.mahdie@gmail.com

demonstrated^{9,10}. A healthy Nordic diet (HND), also known as the Baltic Sea diet, is an additional plant-based dietary pattern that refers to a nutritional profile that is prevalent in the Nordic regions¹¹. The HND is rich in high consumption of fruits and vegetables such as cabbage, berries, legumes and root vegetables, fresh herb, plants and mushrooms, potatoes and nuts, whole grains from oat, repressed oil, and also emphasize the importance on consumption of white and low-fat meat, lower amount of sugar-sweetened products¹². The composition of food differs between communities, making it difficult to assess connections between specific dietary components such as micronutrients and macronutrients with health outcomes. Dietary scores were developed to include the synergistic effects and combinations of various meals and minerals. They act as a gauge of dietary adherence and indicate a summary value of consumed foods and nutrients¹³. The Baltic Sea Diet Score (BSDS) was developed to quantify a HND based on traditional Nordic foods eaten in Finland. The idea behind the HND prioritize the healthy foods which locally produced, easily accessible, and culturally acceptable. The diet is rich in fruits, berries, vegetables, low- or non-fat dietary, repressed oil and fish, and low intake of processed meat and alcohol¹⁴.

The diet is high in fruits consumption, nuts, vegetables, low- or non-fat dietary, repressed oil and fish, and low in processed meats and alcohol¹⁴.

Previous research has demonstrated that a higher BSDS is connected with a lower risk of abdominal obesity, improved physical ability in old age, and a lower risk of increased C-reactive protein levels which are also known as risk factors of NAFLD disease^{15–17}. Other comparable diet scores that have been devised to characterize a HND have also been associated with a reduction in disease risk factors. Despite the fact the relationship with risk of illnesses or death are inconsistent¹⁸.

Therefore, due to rising frequency of NAFLD in communities and limited data about adherence to HND and the risk of NAFLD, we aimed to examine whether following HND, based on BSDS and Healthy Nordic Diet Index (HNDI) was related with risk of NAFLD among Iranian adults.

Methods

Study design and population

This study encompassed a case–control design conducted from 2020 to 2022, involving individuals aged 18 and above who were recently diagnosed with NAFLD. The healthy control group consisted of individuals admitted to Taleghani Hospital in Tehran, Iran, and the academic liver disease clinics of Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences in Yazd, Iran. The case group included 552 consecutive patients diagnosed with NAFLD by a gastroenterologist. The control group consisted of 340 people without a previous history of NAFLD, who were recruited from the same hospital. The patient sampling technique was validated by two dietitians. The following criteria were used in the diagnosis of NAFLD^{19–21}: Chronic elevation of liver enzymes, defined as liver enzymes exceeding 19 U/L for women and 30 U/L for men, along with abstention from alcohol consumption, ultrasonography (US) results indicating NAFLD, liver biopsy findings consistent with NAFLD (Grades II and III), and the exclusion of alternative causes of liver disease. Furthermore, the individuals comprising the case group were directed to our medical facilities for assessment using Fibroscan¹⁹. The confirmation of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis diagnosis was conducted by a gastroenterologist upon observing Fibroscan results indicating a controlled attenuation parameter score exceeding 237 and a fibrosis score surpassing 7. Additionally, the control group, consisting of individuals without a history of NAFLD, was recruited from several outpatient clinics within the same hospital, including dermatology, ophthalmology, and otorhinolaryngology. The healthy control group consisted of individuals who adhered to a regular dietary regimen for a duration of six months before to the study. Additionally, these individuals had no prior medical records indicating the presence of chronic or inflammatory conditions, including but not limited to diabetes, gastrointestinal disorders, cardiovascular disorders, and cancer. The control group's inclusion criteria were determined by laboratory tests and liver ultrasonography to confirm the absence of hepatic steatosis at any stage. Patients that were excluded from the study met the following criteria: Long-term dietary modifications, weight loss, and specific medical conditions, including hepatic or renal diseases (such as nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), alcoholic fatty liver disease, Wilson's disease, cirrhosis, autoimmune liver disease, hemochromatosis, and viral infections), diabetes, cancer, thyroid disorder, and autoimmune disease, are factors that may require consideration. Demographic, economic, and social questionnaires were used to gather data pertaining to age, degree of education, work status, medical history, smoking status, usage of particular pharmaceuticals (excluding routine NAFLD medications), and dietary history during the preceding six months. The researchers used General Practice Physical Activity Questionnaires (GPPAQs) to assess the participants' levels of physical activity. GPPAQ is a straightforward assessment tool used to evaluate an individual's present level of physical activity²¹. Nutritionists were utilized as interviewers in this research. As a result, all patients completed the survey questions completely.

The present study received approval from Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences in Tehran, Iran, as well as Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences in Yazd, Iran. We confirm that all methods were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations and we also confirm that informed consent was obtained from all individuals and/or their guardians or legal guardians.

The minimum required sample size for this study was determined by considering the hypothesis of a 1.5-fold reduction in the odds of NAFLD associated with the intervention of interest. Hence, taking into account a type I error rate of 5%, a study power of 90%, and an approximate ratio of controls to cases of 1.5, the minimum required sample size was calculated to be 450 people in the case group and 300 people in the control group.

Dietary assessment

Data on dietary consumption during the preceding year were collected using a semi-quantitative validated food-frequency questionnaire (FFQ) consisting of 168 food items²². The FFQ included a comprehensive list of typical Iranian foods and their corresponding serving sizes. Participants provided self-reports on the FFQ, indicating the

average portion size and frequency of consumption for each food item. The frequency of consumption options ranged from never to daily, with specific categories such as 2–3 times per month, once per week, 2–4 times per week, 5–6 times per week, and daily. Serving quantities were measured in grams using standard Iranian household measurements²³. Daily nutrient consumptions for each individual were calculated by utilizing the United States Department of Agriculture's (USDA) national nutritional databank²⁴. The nutritional and calorie content of the foods were analyzed using a customized version of Nutritionist 4, specifically designed for Iranian meals, developed by First Databank Inc., Hearst Corp., San Bruno, CA, USA.

Dietary indices

The BSDS has a total of nine parts, as enumerated below. It was developed using the methodologies described in Kanerva et al.¹⁴: 1) Various categories of fruits and berries, vegetables encompassing roots, pulses, and other varieties, cereals excluding rice and pasta, fish, both processed and unprocessed meat, low-fat or fat-free milk, 7) the ratio of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) to saturated fatty acids (SFAs) and trans fatty acids, 8) Alcohol has been excluded from the BSDS due to its prohibition in Iran, 9) Additionally, the BSDS considers total fat and its proportion as a percentage of total energy intake, as indicated in point eight. The intake of participants was used to classify each component of the BSDS into tertiles (Q1–Q3). In the case of healthy items, scores of 1, 2, and 3 were assigned to tertiles Q1 to Q3, respectively. However, for harmful items, namely meat and total fat, the scoring system was reversed. The Baltic Sea Diet adherence is indicated by a higher BSDS score, which spans from 0 to 24 points.

The first estimation of the Healthy Nordic Diet Index (HNDI) was conducted by Olsen et al.²⁵ using a set of six items. These items were fish, cabbage, vegetables, whole grains, oats, apples, pears, fruits with high antioxidant activity, and root vegetables. In this index, the six components are categorized into tertiles (Q1–Q3) according to the individuals' intake levels. Subsequently, the tertiles ranging from Q1 to Q3 are assigned scores of 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The level of adherence exhibited a range of values between 0 and 18, with higher values of HNDI indicating more adherence.

Anthropometric measurement

The researchers conducted an anthropometric study. The weight measurements were obtained by using an SECA 700 Digital Scale (SECA, Hamburg, Germany), which is a standard instrument often used for this purpose. The measurements were rounded to the nearest 100 g. Participants were instructed to wear minimal clothes and remove their shoes before to being weighed. The height of the patient were assessed using a Seca portable height gauge that had an accuracy of 0.1 cm. Furthermore, the researchers used a Seca waist measuring instrument to determine the waist circumference (WC) across the central region spanning from the iliac crest to the last rib. Furthermore, the measurement of hip circumference was obtained in cm by positioning a measuring tape parallel to the floor at the point of maximum fullness of the buttocks. The calculation of body mass index (BMI) included dividing the weight (in kilograms) by the square of the height (in meters), as per the previously described procedure. The researcher performed anthropometric assessments in order to minimize observational variation.

Biochemical measurement

The laboratory technician collected 10 ml of venous blood from the participants at the commencement and conclusion of the study, after a fasting period of 10–12 h. Following the occurrence of clotting in the surrounding environment, the serum was expeditiously isolated using the process of centrifugation and then preserved at a temperature of -70°C till its transportation to the laboratory for the purpose of conducting tests. The concentrations of triglycerides (TG), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C), and fasting blood glucose (FBG) were measured using an enzymatic colorimetric approach using a kit provided by Pars Azmon Company, located in Tehran, Iran. The total cholesterol content was determined by enzyme photometry using the Pars test kit (Parsazmun, Tehran, Iran). The concentration of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) was measured using the Friedewald formula²⁶. LDL-C concentration was also calculated using Friedewald formula: $\text{LDL-C (mg/dL)} = \text{TC (mg/dL)} - \text{HDL-C (mg/dL)} - \text{TG (mg/dL)}/5$. Based on an automated analysis conducted using the BT-3000 system. The measurement of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST) enzymes was conducted using enzymatic reagents that were commercially available from Pars Azmoon in Tehran, Iran.

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was performed using the Statistical Package Software for Social Science v.21 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). The normality of the data was assessed by the use of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov's test and the examination of histogram charts. The study collected data on baseline and dietary intakes, representing quantitative variables as mean standard deviation (SD) and qualitative variables as number and percentages. The independent sample t-tests and chi-squared tests were used to compare data between two groups for continuous and categorical variables, respectively. Logistic regression was used to investigate the association between HNDI and BSDS scores and the risk of NAFLD. The analyses were adjusted for possible confounders, including gender, BMI, WC, hip circumference, physical activity, smoking status, education level, drug usage, history of illness, caloric intake, FBG, ALT, AST, lipid profiles, and dietary fiber. The odds ratio (OR) of NAFLD was computed across quartiles of scores, with a 95% confidence interval (CI). We deemed P-values less than 0.05 to be statistically significant.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was approved by the research council and ethics committee Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.

Results

The average age of the study population was 39.53 ± 9.79 years, as shown by the mean (\pm standard deviation). The average BMI was 27.10 ± 4.45 kg/m², with the standard deviation (SD) indicating the variability of the data. The average values for BSDS and HNDI were found to be 16.00 ± 2.49 and 11.99 ± 2.61 , respectively.

Table 1 presents an overview of the participants' basic characteristics and biochemical data, categorized according to the quartiles of BSDS and HNDI. There was a substantial rise in the age of individuals belonging to the highest quartiles of BSDS and HNDI in comparison to those in the lowest quartiles. Furthermore, a notable disparity was seen in the educational attainment levels across the quartiles of the examined indices. No statistically significant variations were seen between the quartiles of indices and other factors.

Dietary intake of subjects across the quartiles of BSDS and HNDI are presented in Table 2. Compared with those in the lowest quartile of HNDI, subjects in the highest quartile had higher energy, carbohydrate, protein, fat, SFA, MUFA, PUFA, cholesterol, fiber, potassium, iron, calcium, magnesium, zinc, vitamin C, E, D, B9, caffeine and all of food groups. No significant difference was found for sodium across quartiles of HNDI. Also, individuals in the highest quartiles of BSDS had higher intake of energy, carbohydrate, protein, PUFA, fiber, potassium, iron, calcium, magnesium, zinc, vitamin C, E, D, B9, caffeine, total dairy, legume, nut, fish, whole grains, fruits, and vegetables as well as a lower intake of red and processed meat.

The odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for individuals with NAFLD are shown in Table 3, categorized according to quartiles of BSDS and HNDI.

In the crude and initial adjusted model, which accounted for age and sex, no statistically significant association was found for HNDI in the highest quartile compared to the lowest quartile (odds ratio [OR] = 0.99, 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.67–1.47; *p* for trend = 0.870; OR = 0.95, 95% CI 0.64–1.41; *p* for trend = 0.957, respectively). Nevertheless, when controlling for confounding variables using the final model, it was seen that increased adherence to the HNDI was associated with a reduced likelihood of NAFLD (odds ratio [OR]: 0.42; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.18–0.98; *p* for trend = 0.043). A notable association was observed between a decrease in the likelihood of NAFLD among individuals with the highest score of BSDS, in comparison to those with the lowest score. This association was evident in both the unadjusted model (odds ratio [OR] = 0.49, 95% confidence interval [CI] 0.31–0.77; *p*-value for trend = 0.001) and the model adjusted for confounding factors (OR = 0.48, 95% CI 0.32–0.89; *p*-value for trend = 0.003).

	Quartiles of HNDI		P-value	Quartiles of BSDS		P-value	
	Q1	Q4		Q1	Q4		
<i>Demographic variables</i>							
Age, y		37.65 (9.74)	40.70 (9.37)	0.002	38.49 (10.55)	40.79 (9.63)	0.047
Female, n (%)		142 (55.0)	126 (47.0)	0.054	122 (49.8)	134 (53.2)	0.283
BMI, kg/m ²		26.68 (4.24)	26.21 (4.92)	0.156	26.93 (4.37)	27.61 (4.94)	0.136
Weight, kg		71.89 (12.85)	75.22 (15.94)	0.258	71.47 (12.84)	73.87 (14.13)	0.258
Waist- circumference (cm)		91.34 (12.30)	93.47 (11.81)	0.314	91.95 (13.09)	93.75 (11.39)	0.205
Physical Activity (Met.h/wk)		1516.07 (888.61)	1388.22 (902.50)	0.160	1470.23 (896.01)	1334.80 (857.83)	0.378
Smoking (yes), n (%)		9 (4.1)	3 (1.8)	0.165	4 (2.1)	5 (2.9)	0.458
Disease history (yes), n (%)		17 (6.6)	35 (13.1)	0.055	16 (6.5)	3 (12.7)	0.084
Drug use (yes), n (%)		22 (9.5)	27 (11.65)	0.645	19 (9.2)	21 (10.1)	0.709
Education n (%)	Less than a diploma	46 (17.8)	41 (15.3)	0.014	50 (20.4)	38 (15.1)	0.032
	Diploma	98 (38.0)	106 (39.6)		82 (33.5)	103 (40.9)	
	Bachelor	77 (29.8)	56 (20.9)		82 (33.5)	56 (22.2)	
	Higher than Bachelor	37 (14.3)	65 (24.3)		31 (12.7)	55 (21.8)	
ALT(mg/dl)		31.43 (40.66)	34.02 (28.63)	0.716	30.63 (37.1)	35.11 (30.31)	0.379
AST(mg/dl)		19.94 (9.06)	25.30 (14.25)	0.125	20.72 (9.42)	25.73 (14.65)	0.051
FBS (mg/dl)		111.69 (30.43)	115.26 (41.72)	0.942	111.15 (28.40)	116.54 (41.22)	0.708
TC (mg/dl)		159.94 (39.92)	179.27 (48.27)	0.415	166.95 (47.30)	182.45 (45.87)	0.485
TG (mg/dl)		148.97 (72.13)	173.71 (81.24)	0.214	166.55 (83.27)	178.65 (84.29)	0.430
LDL-C (mg/dl)		103.25 (22.28)	109.75 (38.47)	0.652	108.40 (31.45)	110.74 (38.76)	0.673
HDL-C (mg/dl)		43.28 (6.15)	45.13 (18.81)	0.546	42.02 (8.40)	43.83 (15.83)	0.573

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics, and anthropometric variables across the Quartiles of Healthy Nordic Diet Index (HNDI) and Baltic Sea Dietary Score (BSDS). Values are expressed as means (standard deviation (SD)) of 891 subjects. P-values are resulted from the student t-test. Significant values are in bold. BMI, Body mass index.

	Quartiles of HNDI			P value	Quartiles of BSDS		
	Q1	Q4			Q1	Q4	P value
<i>Dietary intake</i>							
Energy (Kcal/d)	1837.07 (540.45)	2580.77 (596.95)	< 0.001	1960.12 (587.08)	2416.00 (636.38)	< 0.001	
Carbohydrate (g/d)	260.21 (85.78)	377.31 (97.54)	< 0.001	259.64 (84.90)	367.16 (104.94)	< 0.001	
Protein (g/d)	62.10 (21.51)	97.94 (30.46)	< 0.001	68.31 (25.02)	90.17 (30.96)	< 0.001	
Fat (g/d)	64.89 (25.08)	87.19 (28.71)	< 0.001	77.05 (28.24)	26.18 (26.27)	0.619	
SFA (g/d)	21.59 (9.75)	27.93 (10.40)	< 0.001	25.96 (10.41)	23.96 (9.00)	0.129	
MUFA	22.39 (9.01)	28.64 (10.66)	< 0.001	26.54 (10.13)	25.21 (9.78)	0.292	
PUFA	14.15 (6.77)	19.54 (10.00)	< 0.001	16.46 (8.03)	17.35 (8.15)	0.035	
Cholesterol (mg/d)	196.48 (154.85)	301.30 (150.83)	< 0.001	230.75 (119.11)	258.98 (143.19)	0.084	
Fiber(g/d)	26.70 (19.07)	38.27 (16.51)	< 0.001	26.58 (17.75)	38.70 (19.99)	< 0.001	
Sodium (mg/d)	3964.78 (4082.73)	4296.38 (2892.50)	0.456	4172.10 (4382.61)	4160.41 (2944.57)	0.536	
Potassium (mg/d)	2547.18 (888.96)	4670.14 (1235.89)	< 0.001	2768.81 (967.40)	4354.29 (1313.20)	< 0.001	
Iron (mg/d)	25.23 (52.61)	40.37 (41.61)	< 0.001	23.25 (26.60)	37.84 (36.72)	0.001	
Calcium (mg/d)	910.99 (435.00)	1239.06 (469.08)	< 0.001	954.37 (446.00)	1185.98 (450.24)	< 0.001	
Magnesium (mg/d)	261.65 (94.71)	413.46 (118.03)	< 0.001	269.28 (92.07)	401.18 (132.78)	< 0.001	
Zinc(mg/d)	8.69 (2.97)	12.79 (3.45)	< 0.001	9.42 (3.15)	11.84 (3.78)	< 0.001	
Vitamin C(mg/d)	87.36 (53.80)	220.44 (97.710)	< 0.001	98.86 (63.08)	205.00 (97.76)	< 0.001	
Folate (mcg/d)	403.28 (171.88)	517.76 (180.57)	< 0.001	397.20 (170.09)	507.02 (183.67)	< 0.001	
Vitamin E (mg/d)	9.06 (4.30)	11.92 (4.94)	< 0.001	9.75 (4.79)	11.17 (4.79)	0.002	
Vitamin D (mcg/d)	1.31 (1.30)	2.01 (1.91)	< 0.001	1.44 (1.36)	1.84 (1.48)	0.001	
Caffeine (mg/d)	104.78 (69.08)	131.29 (112.83)	0.001	108.19 (74.43)	129.41 (100.65)	0.013	
<i>Food groups</i>							
Total dairy (g/d)	328.85 (236.67)	412.18 (255.58)	< 0.001	349.71 (259.32)	402.20 (247.63)	0.075	
Legume (g/d)	9.04 (8.27)	32.97 (28.14)	< 0.001	16.22 (19.51)	25.32 (25.89)	< 0.001	
Nut (g/d)	4.78 (6.04)	12.16 (14.94)	< 0.001	5.90 (8.880)	10.90 (12.62)	< 0.001	
Fish (g/d)	5.50 (5.44)	16.44 (20.20)	< 0.001	6.36 (6.21)	14.77 (12.02)	< 0.001	
Whole grains (g/d)	55.46 (69.74)	108.87 (83.40)	< 0.001	46.53 (53.97)	120.67 (109.11)	< 0.001	
Refined grains (g/d)	328.97 (205.26)	277.64 (170.29)	0.008	299.06 (191.52)	278.94 (175.43)	0.250	
Red and Processed meat (g/d)	26.58 (27.69)	43.78 (36.00)	< 0.001	39.38 (32.84)	30.60 (31.24)	0.020	
Fruits (g/d)	240.42 (209.11)	675.02 (403.74)	< 0.001	262.67 (221.52)	630.69 (374.31)	< 0.001	
Vegetables (g/d)	189.62 (111.60)	399.78 (165.94)	< 0.001	211.35 (127.93)	381.68 (172.89)	< 0.001	

Table 2. Dietary intake across the Quartiles of Healthy Nordic Diet Index (HNDI) and Baltic Sea Dietary Score (BSDS). Values are expressed as means (standard deviation (SD)) of 891 subjects. P-values are resulted from the student t-test. Significant values are in bold.

	Quartiles of scores				P for trend
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
<i>HNDI</i>					
Crude model	1.00 (Ref)	0.69 (0.42–1.13)	0.93 (0.63–1.38)	0.99 (0.67–1.47)	0.870
Model 1*	1.00 (Ref)	0.64 (0.39–1.05)	0.88 (0.59–1.31)	0.95 (0.64–1.41)	0.957
Model 2†	1.00 (Ref)	0.65 (0.27–1.59)	0.56 (0.26–1.19)	0.42 (0.18–0.98)	0.043
<i>BSDS</i>					
Crude model	1.00 (Ref)	0.92 (0.61–1.38)	0.70 (0.42–1.16)	0.49 (0.31–0.77)	0.001
Model 1*	1.00 (Ref)	0.89 (0.59–1.34)	0.67 (0.40–1.12)	0.46 (0.29–0.73)	0.001
Model 2†	1.00 (Ref)	0.88 (0.52–1.36)	0.63 (0.39–1.16)	0.48 (0.32–0.89)	0.003

Table 3. Odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) for NAFLD based on Healthy Nordic Diet Index (HNDI) and Baltic Sea Dietary Score (BSDS). **Binary logistic regression was used to obtain OR and 95% CI. *Model 1: adjusted for age and sex. †Model 2: Model 1 + BMI, Waist circumference, hip circumference, physical activity, smoking, education, drug use, disease history, FBS, ALT, AST, Lipid profiles, fiber, and energy intake. Significant values are in bold.

Discussion

The association between HND and the risk of NAFLD was investigated in this research. After adjusting for age, sex, BMI, WC, hip circumference, physical activity, smoking, education, drug use, illness history, FBS, ALT, AST, Lipid profiles, fiber, and calorie consumption, it is noteworthy that individuals with higher BSDS and HNDI scores had decreased probabilities of developing NAFLD. To the best of our knowledge, no prior research have indicated a relationship between HND and NAFLD chances.

Indeed, dietary patterns such as excessive calorie intake, high fructose consumption, and insufficient physical exercise are the most important risk factors for NAFLD. Previous studies demonstrated that the Mediterranean diet have positive benefits on reducing the NAFLD odds⁹. Despite the fact that the items in Mediterranean diet and HND belong to distinct varieties, there are commonalities between them, such as the fact that all of them are rich in fruits, vegetables, whole grains, fish, and low-fat dairy products. Furthermore, both of these diets have been linked to a decreased risk of various disorders, including diabetes and cardiovascular disease, as well as alterations in body homeostasis, such as insulin resistance and inflammation²⁷. Because of this, we consider that feasible explanation for the observed relationships between the healthy diet and NAFLD are multifactorial, such as the favorable effects of diet on risk factors for chronic illnesses.

Inflammation and oxidative stress are the primary contributors to the pathophysiology of NAFLD¹. Hence, the other important risk factors are being overweight or obese, having diabetes, having hyperlipidemia, not getting enough exercise, and eating an unhealthy diet^{28–30}. Multiple pathways may have mediated the effective benefits of a HND with NAFLD risk factors.

Several processes, including alterations in cytokines, inflammatory factors, insulin resistance, and dyslipidemia, have been reported to explain the link between obesity and fatty liver³¹, and also up-regulating the expression of some of the genes in the liver of obese patients diagnosed with NAFLD were founded³². For instance, the HND has been demonstrated to reduce the probability of obesity¹⁵. Besides, *Kolehmainen et al.* declared that a HND decreases inflammatory gene expression in SAT when compared to a control diet, regardless of changes in body weight in the patients with a metabolic syndrome³³. A recent meta-analysis also illustrated that adherence to HND meaningfully reduce body weight³⁴.

Moreover, a large Danish cohort research revealed an adverse relationship between adherence to HND and low risk of T2D³⁵. Interestingly, in patients with hypercholesterolemia, a HND improves blood lipid profile and insulin sensitivity while also lowering blood pressure to clinically meaningful levels³⁶. In the randomized dietary study, participations with metabolic syndrome had significant changes in non-HDL-C, LDL-C to HDL-C ratio, and Apo B to Apo A1 ratio, which has been reported adherence to HND improved lipid profile³⁷. By contrast, we demonstrated that changing in lipid profile were not significantly different between the groups.

The favorable benefits of the HND on NAFLD may be attributed to several reasons. The Nordic dietary pattern emphasizes eating foods with high content of fiber and are linked to a greater sense of fullness³⁸. A high concentration of soluble and insoluble fibers is related to a reduction in serum TAG and blood glucose³⁹. Indeed, this diet may be beneficial for NAFLD patients.

It is noteworthy to notice that the two scores to represent a HND, HNDI and BSDS, which were formed fairly differently from one another, provided consistent relationships with the risk of developing NAFLD. The HNDI was based on intakes of fish, apples and pears, and root vegetables, cabbage, oatmeal, rye bread, however, it did not include some of the factors that were used in the BSDS. These factors included dietary fat quality as well as dairy and meat intakes⁴⁰.

The strengths of the present study include a large study population consisting of both men and women, comprehensive data about potential confounding factors and also no loss in follow-up. A trained interviewer was filled out the questionnaires in order to minimizing the random errors in recording. Our study had some potential limitations, there is a risk of recall bias in the present study due to the retrospective way of the data collection. Hence, to reduce the bias, a valid and trustworthy FFQ was utilized. It also seems that the level of adherence to this type of dietary index in countries and regions (Baltic countries) is different compared to the region where the study was conducted (Iran) and this itself can be a limitation.

In conclusion, our findings revealed that adherence to a healthy Nordic diet remarkably reduces the risk of developing NAFLD, demonstrating that the highly nutritious components of the Nordic diet are beneficial for reducing the risk of NAFLD. Therefore, a high adherence to healthy Nordic dietary pattern may be effective also in reducing the possibility of developing the NAFLD risk factors. Further longitudinal studies in diverse population are warranted to confirm our results.

Data availability

Data are available upon request from the corresponding author (Mohammad Hassan Sohoul) due to privacy/ethical restrictions.

Received: 8 September 2023; Accepted: 23 April 2024

Published online: 25 April 2024

References

1. Anania, C., Perla, F. M., Olivero, F., Pacifico, L. & Chiesa, C. Mediterranean diet and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *World J. Gastroenterol.* **24**(19), 2083–94 (2018).
2. Williams, C. D. *et al.* Prevalence of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and nonalcoholic steatohepatitis among a largely middle-aged population utilizing ultrasound and liver biopsy: a prospective study. *Gastroenterology.* **140**(1), 124–31 (2011).
3. Lankarani, K. B. *et al.* Non alcoholic fatty liver disease in southern Iran: a population based study. *Hepat. Mon.* **13**(5), e9248 (2013).
4. Browning, J. D. *et al.* Prevalence of hepatic steatosis in an urban population in the United States: impact of ethnicity. *Hepatology.* **40**(6), 1387–95 (2004).

5. Younossi, Z. M. *et al.* The economic and clinical burden of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease in the United States and Europe. *Hepatology*. **64**(5), 1577–86 (2016).
6. Giraldi, L. *et al.* Mediterranean diet and the prevention of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: results from a case-control study. *Eur. Rev. Med. Pharmacol. Sci.* **24**(13), 7391–8 (2020).
7. Mundi, M. S. *et al.* Evolution of NAFLD and its management. *Nutr. Clin. Pract.* **35**(1), 72–84 (2020).
8. Sacks, F. M. *et al.* A dietary approach to prevent hypertension: a review of the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) Study. *Clin. Cardiol.* **22**(7 Suppl), ii6–ii10 (1999).
9. Entezari, M. R. *et al.* Mediterranean dietary pattern and non-alcoholic fatty liver diseases: a case-control study. *J. Nutr. Sci.* **10**, e55 (2021).
10. Katsiki, N., Stoian, A. P. & Rizzo, M. Dietary patterns in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD): Stay on the straight and narrow path!. *Clin. Investig. Arterioscler.* **34**(Suppl 1), s24–s31 (2022).
11. Poulsen, S. K. *et al.* Health effect of the new nordic diet in adults with increased waist circumference: a 6-mo randomized controlled trial. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* **99**(1), 35–45 (2014).
12. Salomo, L. *et al.* The new Nordic diet: phosphorus content and absorption. *Eur. J. Nutr.* **55**(3), 991–6 (2016).
13. Waijers, P. M., Feskens, E. J. & Ocké, M. C. A critical review of predefined diet quality scores. *Br. J. Nutr.* **97**(2), 219–31 (2007).
14. Kanerva, N., Kaartinen, N. E., Schwab, U., Lahti-Koski, M. & Männistö, S. The Baltic Sea Diet Score: a tool for assessing healthy eating in Nordic countries. *Public Health Nutr.* **17**(8), 1697–705 (2014).
15. Kanerva, N., Kaartinen, N. E., Schwab, U., Lahti-Koski, M. & Männistö, S. Adherence to the Baltic Sea diet consumed in the Nordic countries is associated with lower abdominal obesity. *Br. J. Nutr.* **109**(3), 520–8 (2013).
16. Perälä, M. M. *et al.* A healthy Nordic diet and physical performance in old age: findings from the longitudinal Helsinki Birth Cohort Study. *Br. J. Nutr.* **115**(5), 878–86 (2016).
17. Kanerva, N. *et al.* Associations of the Baltic Sea diet with obesity-related markers of inflammation. *Ann. Med.* **46**(2), 90–6 (2014).
18. Tertsunen, H. M., Hantunen, S., Tuomainen, T. P. & Virtanen, J. K. Healthy Nordic diet and risk of disease death among men: the Kuopio Ischaemic Heart Disease Risk Factor Study. *Eur. J. Nutr.* **59**(8), 3545–53 (2020).
19. Yamamura, S. *et al.* MAFLD identifies patients with significant hepatic fibrosis better than NAFLD. *Liver Int.* **40**(12), 3018–30 (2020).
20. Piazzolla, V.A., Mangia, A. Noninvasive diagnosis of NAFLD and NASH. *Cells*. 2020;9(4). PubMed PMID: 32316690. Pubmed Central PMCID: PMC7226476. Epub 20200417. eng.
21. Semmler, G. *et al.* Novel reliability criteria for controlled attenuation parameter assessments for non-invasive evaluation of hepatic steatosis. *Unit. Eur. Gastroenterol. J.* **8**(3), 321–31 (2020).
22. Mirmiran, P., Esfahani, F. H., Mehrabi, Y., Hedayati, M. & Azizi, F. Reliability and relative validity of an FFQ for nutrients in the Tehran lipid and glucose study. *Public Health Nutr.* **13**(5), 654–62 (2010).
23. Ghafarpour, M., Houshiar-Rad, A., Kianfar, H. & Ghaffarpour, M. *The manual for household measures, cooking yields factors and edible portion of food* (Keshavarzi Press, 1999).
24. Bowman, S.A., Friday, J.E., Moshfegh, A.J. MyPyramid equivalents database, 2.0 for USDA survey foods, 2003–2004: documentation and user guide. US Department of Agriculture. 2008.
25. Olsen, A. *et al.* Healthy aspects of the Nordic diet are related to lower total mortality. *J. Nutr.* **141**(4), 639–644 (2011).
26. Friedewald, W. T., Levy, R. I. & Fredrickson, D. S. Estimation of the concentration of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in plasma, without use of the preparative ultracentrifuge. *Clin. Chem.* **18**(6), 499–502 (1972).
27. Perälä, M. M. *et al.* The healthy Nordic diet and Mediterranean diet and incidence of disability 10 years later in home-dwelling old adults. *J. Am. Med. Dir. Assoc.* **20**(5), 511–516 (2019).
28. Trenell, M. I. Sedentary behaviour, physical activity, and NAFLD: Curse of the chair. *J. Hepatol.* **63**(5), 1064–5 (2015).
29. Ortiz-Lopez, C. *et al.* Prevalence of prediabetes and diabetes and metabolic profile of patients with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). *Diabetes Care.* **35**(4), 873–8 (2012).
30. Hamaguchi, M. *et al.* The metabolic syndrome as a predictor of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Ann. Intern. Med.* **143**(10), 722–8 (2005).
31. Jung, U. J. & Choi, M. S. Obesity and its metabolic complications: the role of adipokines and the relationship between obesity, inflammation, insulin resistance, dyslipidemia and nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **15**(4), 6184–223 (2014).
32. Pettinelli, P. & Videla, L. A. Up-regulation of PPAR-gamma mRNA expression in the liver of obese patients: an additional reinforcing lipogenic mechanism to SREBP-1c induction. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* **96**(5), 1424–30 (2011).
33. Kolehmainen, M. *et al.* Healthy Nordic diet downregulates the expression of genes involved in inflammation in subcutaneous adipose tissue in individuals with features of the metabolic syndrome. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* **101**(1), 228–39 (2015).
34. Ramezani-Jolfaie, N., Mohammadi, M. & Salehi-Abargouei, A. Effects of a healthy Nordic diet on weight loss in adults: A systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled clinical trials. *Eat. Weight Disord.* **25**(5), 1141–50 (2020).
35. Lacoppidan, S. A. *et al.* Adherence to a healthy Nordic food index is associated with a lower risk of type-2 diabetes—the Danish diet, cancer and health cohort study. *Nutrients.* **7**(10), 8633–44 (2015).
36. Adamsson, V. *et al.* Effects of a healthy Nordic diet on cardiovascular risk factors in hypercholesterolaemic subjects: a randomized controlled trial (NORDIET). *J. Int. Med.* **269**(2), 150–9 (2011).
37. Uusitupa, M. *et al.* Effects of an isocaloric healthy Nordic diet on insulin sensitivity, lipid profile and inflammation markers in metabolic syndrome – a randomized study (SYSDIET). *J. Int. Med.* **274**(1), 52–66 (2013).
38. Mithril, C. *et al.* Dietary composition and nutrient content of the New Nordic Diet. *Public Health Nutr.* **16**(5), 777–85 (2013).
39. Garcia, M. *et al.* The effect of the traditional mediterranean-style diet on metabolic risk factors: A meta-analysis. *Nutrients.* **8**(3), 168 (2016).
40. Tertsunen, H. M., Hantunen, S., Tuomainen, T. P. & Virtanen, J. K. Adherence to a healthy Nordic diet and risk of type 2 diabetes among men: the Kuopio Ischaemic Heart Disease Risk Factor Study. *Eur J Nutr.* **60**(7), 3927–34 (2021).

Acknowledgements

We thank the Student Research Committee and the Research & Technology Chancellor of Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences.

Author contributions

M.H. and Mh.S. contributed in conception, design, and statistical analysis. Mh.S., Z.R., M.H., P.R., A.N., and A.H. contributed in data collection and manuscript drafting. Mh.S. and M.H. supervised the study. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to M.H.S. or M.H.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

© The Author(s) 2024