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1 **The influence of lifestyle factors and staple foods from the Mediterranean Diet**
2 **on non-alcoholic fatty liver disease among elder with metabolic syndrome**
3 **features**

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45 Abstract

46 *Objective:* Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is the most common cause of
47 chronic liver morbidity. This condition is often accompanied by obesity, diabetes and
48 metabolic syndrome (MetS). The aim was to evaluate associations between lifestyle
49 factors and NAFLD in subjects with MetS.

50 *Methods:* A cross-sectional study on 328 participants (55-75 years) diagnosed with
51 MetS participating in the PREDIMED-Plus trial was conducted. NAFLD status was
52 evaluated using the non-invasive hepatic steatosis index (HSI). Sociodemographic,
53 clinical, and dietary data were collected. Adherence to the Mediterranean Diet
54 (mainly assessed by the consumption of olive oil, nuts, legumes, whole grain foods,
55 fish, vegetables, fruits and red wine) and physical activity were assessed using
56 validated questionnaires.

57 *Results:* Linear regression analyses revealed that HSI values tended to be lower
58 with increasing physical activity tertiles [T2, $\beta = -1.47$ (95%CI -2.73 to -0.20); T3, $\beta =$
59 -1.93 (95%CI -3.22 to -0.65) vs T1, p-trend= 0.001] and MedDiet adherence was
60 inversely associated with HSI values: [moderate adherence $\beta = -0.70$ (95%CI: -1.92
61 to 0.53), high adherence $\beta = -1.57$ (95%CI: -3.01 to -0.13) vs lower, p-trend= 0.041].
62 Higher tertiles of legume consumption were inversely associated with the highest
63 tertile of HSI [T2, RRR= 0.45 (95%IC 0.22 to 0.92), p= 0.028; T3, RRR=0.48 (95%CI
64 0.24 to 0.97), p=0.041 vs T1].

65 *Conclusion:* Physical activity, MedDiet adherence, and legume consumption were
66 inversely associated with a non-invasive marker of NAFLD in subjects with MetS.
67 This data can be useful in implementing precision strategies aimed at the prevention,
68 monitoring, and management of NAFLD. ISRCTN89898870.

69

70 **Keywords:** NAFLD, Inflammation, Nutrition, Obesity.

71

72 **Introduction**

73 Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) has become a prevalent chronic
74 liver disease being the principal cause of liver-related morbidity and mortality [1]. The
75 increasing rates of NAFLD are probably accompanying the rise in obesity, type 2
76 diabetes, metabolic syndrome (MetS), and cardiovascular disease (CVD) incidence,
77 [2,3] especially in Western countries [1]. Indeed, NAFLD is a multifactorial chronic
78 condition, whose pathogenesis results from a complex interaction among genes, gut
79 microbiota, and lifestyle factors [4]. Furthermore, the ageing process is associated
80 with an increased risk of developing cardiometabolic abnormalities and NAFLD
81 progression [5]. NAFLD encompasses a spectrum of liver damage features being
82 characterized at initial stage by an excessive accumulation of intrahepatic
83 triglycerides, which can progress to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), and
84 eventually lead to cirrhosis and/or hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) if not early
85 detected and treated [4]. Liver biopsy is the gold standard for NAFLD diagnoses [4].
86 However, it is an expensive and invasive procedure that may result in clinical

87 complications [4]. Thus, several alternative non-invasive liver scores have been
88 devised and developed [2–4]. The hepatic steatosis index (HSI) has demonstrated
89 good performance in several population studies and used for large scale NAFLD
90 primary screening [6–8]. The management of all stages of NAFLD has been focused
91 on improving the metabolic profile by encouraging a healthy lifestyle, such as
92 adherence to certain dietary patterns and increased physical activity [2–4]. The
93 Mediterranean Diet (MedDiet) is a healthy dietary pattern, which includes a high
94 consumption of plant-derived foods (fruits, vegetables and legumes), whole grain
95 foods, fish, olive oil, nuts, and low-moderate intake of red wine, meat and dairy
96 products [9]. Besides, MedDiet has demonstrated beneficial effects on the lipid
97 profile, glycemic control, and blood pressure [10]. The presence of these clinical
98 conditions are associated with higher risk of NAFLD and more advanced disease
99 stages [2]. Epidemiological and clinical studies have suggested that staple
100 components of the MedDiet provide specific health bioactive compounds with
101 healthy antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties [10–13]. In fact, the effects of
102 MedDiet on liver status could be attributed to specific compounds such as
103 polyphenols, fiber, carotenoids, n-3 PUFA and oleic acid, among others [12,14]
104 Physical activity has been shown to potentially reduce hepatic steatosis, and to
105 improve insulin resistance, some MetS features, and cardiovascular events [15].
106 Current available recommendations suggest weight loss for NAFLD treatment (-5%
107 or -10% of initial body weight) as the key intervention based on energy restriction.
108 However, not only the loss of body weight is important but also the characteristics of

109 the nutrient composition as well as the advices for a healthy lifestyle adherence
110 should be strongly considered in the treatment of this disease [4]. To our knowledge,
111 there are few available data regarding lifestyle factors of elderly patients with MetS.
112 Against this background, we hypothesized that lifestyle factors, especially
113 adherence to MedDiet and nutritional/food characteristics as well as physical activity,
114 would be associated with a decreased risk of NAFLD in elderly population diagnosed
115 with MetS at high cardiovascular risk.

116

117 **Methods**

118 Study population and design

119 The PREDIMED-Plus study is a multi-centre randomized trial designed to investigate
120 the effect on cardiovascular diseases (CVD) morbidity and mortality reduction. A
121 detailed protocol of the study methods and population characteristics has been
122 published [16]. In brief, this study recruited 6874 subjects in 23 centres located in
123 Spain. Participants enrolled had to fulfill the following inclusion criteria: men aged
124 55–75 years and women aged 60–75 years with a BMI ≥ 27 and < 40 kg/m² fulfilling
125 at least three criteria for the MetS [17]. We excluded those individuals who self-
126 declared the following: therapy with immunosuppressive drugs, cytotoxic agents or
127 systemic corticosteroids, liver injury at the time of recruitment (cirrhosis or liver
128 failure), history of inflammatory bowel disease, alcohol abuse or addiction, among
129 others. Participants were randomly assigned 1:1 into two equally sized groups,
130 intervention group (an intensive program of weight loss based on an energy-

131 restricted MedDiet, physical activity promotion, and behavioural support) or into a
132 control group (an energy-unrestricted MedDiet). (<http://medpreventiva.es/QufSWn>).
133 This clinical trial was registered (ISRCTN89898870) and conducted in accordance
134 with the Declaration of Helsinki ethical disclosure and further guidelines. All
135 participants signed an informed consent to participate at the beginning of the
136 intervention trial. The present investigation is a cross-sectional sub-study with
137 baseline data of participants from the Navarra-Nutrition centre. The sample size was
138 calculated to find a correlation coefficient with an 80% statistical power between
139 adherence to MedDiet and hepatic steatosis ($r=0.20$) considering a type I error of
140 5% and type II error of 10%. A total of 422 participants were registered in the pre-
141 inclusion period. Of these, we excluded 2 individuals who did not meet inclusion
142 criteria and 89 who declined participation or for other reasons. Three hundred thirty-
143 one individuals were included, but 328 had valid data for the non-invasive liver score
144 calculation, which is a number that has been shown suitable in comparable studies
145 [18,19].

146

147 **Study measurements**

148 ***Dietary assessment***

149 At baseline, trained dietitians administered face-to-face a 143-item food frequency
150 questionnaire to estimate dietary intake over last year, which was previously
151 validated in Spanish population [20]. In order to evaluate the adherence to the
152 MedDiet, a score based on nine dietary components was applied, as described

153 elsewhere [21,22]. For beneficial components (vegetables, fruits and mixed nuts,
154 legumes, cereals, fish and seafood), participants were assigned a value of 0 for the
155 consumption below the component sex-specific median and above the median were
156 assigned a value of 1 as well as for fat intake considering the ratio [MUFA/SFA].
157 Meanwhile, for components presumed to be detrimental (meat and dairy products),
158 individuals were assigned a value of 1 for the consumption below the component
159 sex-specific median and above the median were assigned a value of 0. For the
160 alcohol component, a value of 1 was assigned to men consuming 10 to <50 g/d and
161 women consuming 5 to <25 g/d and 0, otherwise. Thus, the total MedDiet
162 punctuation ranged from 0 (minimum adherence) to 9 (maximum adherence).
163 MedDiet adherence was categorized into low (0-3 points), moderate (4-5 points) or
164 high (6-9 points) adherence for analytical purposes [22].

165

166 ***Physical activity assessment***

167 Physical activity was assessed using the short REGICOR (Registre Gironi del Cor),
168 which was validated in Spanish population [23]. As described previously [24], this
169 questionnaire evaluated the total energy expenditure in leisure time physical activity
170 (Metabolic Equivalent (MET)-minute/week) considering light (<4 MET), moderate (4-
171 5.5 MET) and vigorous (≥6 MET) physical activity. Also, the number of weekly hours
172 of sedentary behavior [25]. For this study, physical activity was expressed as MET-
173 hour-week and categorized by tertiles.

174

175 ***Sociodemographic, lifestyle, and clinical variables***

176 At baseline, sociodemographic, lifestyle, history of illnesses and medication data
177 were collected during the personal interview with standardized questionnaires.
178 Smoking status was categorized as never, former, or current smoker. Trained
179 dietitians measured weight and height using calibrated equipment following the
180 PREDIMED PLUS standardized protocol [16]. The body mass index (BMI) was
181 calculated as the body weight divided by the squared height (kg/m²). Determinations
182 of fat mass (total, trunk, android, gynoid and visceral) were performed using dual-
183 energy X-ray absorptiometry (Lunar iDXA™, Madison, WI, USA connected with
184 enCore™ software, version 6.0) by trained personnel following the instructions of the
185 equipment as described elsewhere [26]. Overnight fasting blood was collected.
186 Serum and plasma samples were immediately frozen at -80°C. Biochemical
187 variables, including alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase
188 (AST), total cholesterol (CT), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-c),
189 triglyceride (TG), glucose, and hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c), were determined with
190 specific kits according to manufacturer's protocols, as previously described, [26,27]
191 while low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-c) and very-low-density lipoprotein
192 cholesterol (VLDL-c) were calculated using the Friedewald formula and
193 triglycerides/5, respectively [28]. The triglyceride-glucose index (TyG index) was
194 estimated as the logarithm of fasting triglyceride (mg/dL) x fasting glucose (mg/dL)/2
195 [29]. The MetS status was defined when at least 3 or more of the components were
196 clinically ascertained [17]. Waist circumference in Caucasian people ≥102 cm for

197 men and ≥ 88 cm for women, elevated triglycerides levels ≥ 150 mg/dL or drug
198 treatment for hyperlipidemia; reduced HDL-c < 40 mg/dL in men and < 50 mg/dL in
199 women or drug treatment; elevated blood pressure systolic ≥ 130 and/or diastolic
200 ≥ 85 mmHg or current use of antihypertensive medication; elevated fasting glucose
201 ≥ 100 mg/dL or drug treatment, according to guidelines from the International
202 Diabetes Federation/National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute/American Heart
203 Association (2009) [17]. Diabetes was diagnosed as described in the
204 recommendations of the American Diabetes Association (ADA) guidelines [30].

205

206 ***Non-invasive liver score assessment***

207 The non-invasive hepatic steatosis index (HSI) has been reported as a useful
208 screening tool with valuable accuracy predictions of NAFLD [6,7] validated in a large
209 group of subjects [8], which considers the AST/ALT ratio, body mass index (BMI),
210 presence of diabetes mellitus, and sex (female), as follows: $HSI = 8 * ALT/AST + BMI$
211 $+ (+ 2, \text{ if type 2 diabetes, } 0 \text{ otherwise}) + (+ 2, \text{ if female, } 0 \text{ otherwise})$ [8]. The lack of
212 primary or secondary causes of hepatic fat accumulation were considered as
213 described by American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases (AASLD) [4].

214

215 **Statistical analyses**

216 Continuous variables are presented as mean (m) and (95%IC), while categorical
217 variables as counts (n) and frequencies (%). Categorical data were analyzed by the
218 Chi-square test. The cohort study was stratified into HSI tertiles based on sex; HSI

219 men: T1 (≤ 40.0), T2 (>40.0 to <43.7), T3 (≥ 43.7 to ≤ 54.8); HSI women: T1 (≤ 41.0),
220 T2 (>41.0 to <46.0), T3 (≥ 46.0 to 57.4). Baseline characteristics differences among
221 groups were analyzed by ANOVA. The associations between HSI and other
222 variables were fitted by ANCOVA after adjusting for age, total energy intake and
223 alcohol intake as continuous variables with Bonferroni correction for multiple
224 comparisons. To examine the association between HSI and lifestyle variables
225 (physical activity across tertiles and MedDiet adherence), we applied linear
226 regression analyses, both performed after adjustment in model 1 for age. Further
227 adjustments for energy intake, alcohol consumption, smoking status, high blood
228 pressure or antihypertensive medication were accordingly applied in model 2. Model
229 3a was further adjusted for MedDiet adherence and model 3b for MedDiet and
230 physical activity in tertiles (MET/hours/week): T1 (0 to 22.5) as reference; T2 (>22.5
231 to ≤ 61.4); T3 (>61.4 to 321.7). MedDiet score was stratified according to adherence:
232 low (0 to 3 points) as reference; moderate (4 to 5 points); high (6-9 points). To
233 calculate p-values for trend, the physical activity and MedDiet adherence were
234 treated as continuous variables. A linear regression analysis was carried out to
235 evaluate the relationship between legume consumption and HSI. Furthermore, a
236 multinomial logistic regression analysis was performed to investigate the association
237 of legume consumption categorized in tertiles T1 (≤ 16.1 g/d), T2 (>16.1 g/d to
238 ≤ 20.8 g/d), T3 (>20.8 g/d) with the HSI as dependent variable categorized in tertiles,
239 after adjusting for potential confounders. The analysis in model 1 was adjusted for
240 age, smoking status, energy intake, and alcohol consumption. Model 2 was further

241 adjusted for physical activity and triglycerides. The effect was estimated using the
242 relative risk ratio (RRR) with 95% confidence interval (CI). Analyses were carried out
243 with Stata 12.0 software (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX). P-values are two
244 tailed; $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

245

246 **Results**

247 ***Participant's characteristics***

248 The unadjusted mean variables related to sociodemographic, lifestyle,
249 anthropometric, and clinical characteristics are reported according to HSI tertiles
250 (Table 1). The mean age was similar in all groups (65 years). Participants in the T3
251 group were more likely to have diabetes (52.3%). They also presented a more
252 adverse fewer clinical status related to glycemic control such as glucose [mean
253 130.1 mg/dL (95% CI, 124.1-136.2)], HbA1c [mean 6.3% (95% CI, 6.1-6.5)] and
254 disrupted insulin homeostasis represented by the TyG index [mean 9.2 (95% CI, 9.1-
255 9.3)], as well as MetS components including waist circumference [113.8 cm (95%
256 CI, 112.4-115.2)] and BMI measurements. No statistical differences were found in
257 smoking status ($p=0.134$) or high blood pressure ($p=0.145$) among the tertiles
258 groups.

259

260 ***Hepatic steatosis index, lipid profile, and body composition***

261 Lipid profile and body composition variables and are described (Table 2). T3 group
262 exhibited higher levels of triglycerides [mean 161.9 mg/dL (95% CI, 149.9-173.8)],

263 VLDL-c [mean 32.4 mg/dL (95% CI, 30.0-34.8)] serum levels, and the TG/HDL-c
264 ratio [mean 3.9 (95% CI, 3.5-4.3)] compared to T1 (all $p < 0.05$). Nevertheless,
265 individuals in the T2 exhibited higher total cholesterol levels compared to T1. Also,
266 LDL-c and HDL-c levels did not differ significantly among tertiles (Table 2). Indeed,
267 individuals from the T3 HSI had a higher total, trunk, android, gynoid, and visceral
268 fat mass than those from the T2 and T1 ($p < 0.05$).

269

270 ***Relationship between hepatic steatosis index and lifestyle variables***

271 Lifestyle variables such as physical activity and MedDiet adherence tended to
272 decrease with increasing HSI tertiles with significant differences between T1 and T3
273 (Table 2). The association between HSI, physical activity, and MedDiet adherence
274 (Table 3) revealed that participants in T2 of physical activity had a significant 1.47
275 lower units of HSI (95%CI -2.73 to -0.20) whereas, higher levels of physical activity
276 (T3) were associated with 1.93 lower units of HSI (95%CI -3.22 to -0.65); p for trend=
277 0.001. Moreover, the change of the HSI according to MedDiet adherence was -0.70
278 units (95%CI -1.92 to 0.53) for moderate adherence, and -1.57 units (95%CI: -3.01
279 to -0.13) for high adherence; p for trend= 0.041. The daily consumption of each
280 component of the MedDiet was also assessed according to HSI tertiles (Table 4)
281 and no statistical differences were noted among most food groups. Interestingly, the
282 lowest tertile group of the HSI reported a significant higher legume consumption
283 [mean 21.6 g/d (95% CI, 20.0-23.2)] and a lower total meat intake [mean 144.0 g/d
284 (95% CI, 134.8-153.1)] compared to highest tertile group (Table 4). Some statistical

285 associations were found concerning meat consumption, which were not confirmed
286 in adjusted analyses. A linear regression analysis demonstrated a negative
287 relationship (Figure 1) between HSI and legume consumption (R^2 -adjusted=0.027;
288 $p=0.002$). Reinforcing this notion, a statistically significant inverse association
289 between legume intake (g/d) and the highest tertile of HSI was observed. The RR
290 for the HSI (T3) according to tertiles of legume consumption for the final fully adjusted
291 model (Table 5) was as follows: 1.00 (reference); T2, 0.45 (95%IC 0.22-0.92); T3,
292 0.48 (95%IC 0.24-0.97).

293

294 **Discussion**

295 Emerging clinical data have established a close relationship between NAFLD and
296 MetS [31]. In this cross-sectional cohort study, key components related to
297 cardiometabolic risk factors disclosed a direct association with higher HSI values.
298 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that evaluated the relationship
299 between lifestyle factors, and the specific role of typical Mediterranean foods, with
300 NAFLD characteristics in an aged population diagnosed with MetS. In particular, the
301 HSI has been proposed as a predictor of liver steatosis [7]. The accuracy of HSI was
302 validated in a large cohort study using ultrasonography as a diagnosis of fatty liver [8].
303 Cutoff values for the diagnosis of NAFLD were established that values >36
304 confirming the diagnosis of steatosis [8]. In fact, the use of non-invasive liver scores
305 might be useful for the diagnosis and prediction of NAFLD [7,32,33]. In our study,
306 participants at the highest HSI tertile disclosed a pro-atherogenic lipid profile. In

307 addition, they had higher blood glucose levels and disrupted insulin homeostasis as
308 assessed by TyG index as an insulin resistance [29] and it could predict risk of
309 NAFLD [34]. These findings may be explained because glucose and insulin are
310 involved in the activation of several pathways related to lipogenesis [32]. Our results
311 are consistent with the fact that muscle and liver insulin resistance promote the
312 accumulation of several lipid metabolites and impairs VLDL assembly and secretion.
313 The overproduction of VLDL particles leads to an increased free fatty acid (FFA) flux
314 into plasma, which augments the risk of liver steatosis [32,35]. Additionally, there are
315 several clinical studies confirming that visceral adipose tissue induces insulin
316 resistance, inflammation and liver damage [35–37]. In our research, visceral
317 adiposity increased across tertiles of the HSI, concurring with the observation of a
318 strong association between visceral adipose tissue and fatty liver infiltration [36,37].

319 Some investigations have demonstrated the effectiveness of physical activity
320 in the prevention and management of chronic diseases [38]. In our study, the highest
321 tertile of physical activity (>61.4-321.7 MET/hours/week) showed a lower HSI. In
322 agreement with our results, some studies indicated that physical activity could
323 attenuate and/or delay NAFLD progression [15,39,40]. A recent analysis of
324 PREDIMED-PLUS data indicated that moderate-vigorous physical activity was
325 inversely associated with cardiometabolic risk factors such as abdominal obesity and
326 low HDL-c as independent components of the MetS [24]. Furthermore, higher
327 physical activity was inversely related to NAFLD and participants who had a physical
328 activity ≥ 500 MET/min/week showed a 34% decreased risk of NAFLD compared to

329 sedentary individuals [39]. In fact, physical inactivity and lower aerobic fitness could
330 have a key role in mechanisms related to fat regulation and mitochondrial
331 dysfunction [40]. It is important to highlight that physical activity is a modifiable risk
332 factor, which might have a protective effect on liver status. Several mechanisms for
333 the effects of physical activity on NAFLD have been proposed, but duration or the
334 influence of the type of exercise treatment remains unclear [15].

335 Few intervention studies have explored the associations between MedDiet
336 and NAFLD [13,18,19,41]. However, specific components consumed in the context
337 of MedDiet have shown enough scientific evidence based on epidemiological,
338 clinical trials and animal studies on CVD and MetS features [11,14]. This healthy
339 dietary pattern provides nutrients and bioactive compounds with antioxidant capacity
340 and anti-inflammatory effects [10,11,33,42]. The MedDiet pattern is characterized by
341 a high consumption of fruit, vegetables, non-refined cereals, legumes, unsaturated
342 fatty acids (olive oil and nuts); moderate intake of fish, seafood, fermented dairy
343 products, poultry, and eggs; low-to-moderate amounts of wine, and low consumption
344 of red meat, processed meat and sweets [9]. The consumption of most of the
345 healthful components of the MedDiet is associated with an improvement of the
346 serum lipid profile, insulin resistance, liver enzymes, and other factors linked to
347 NAFLD [13,18,43,44]. According to our data, high adherence to the MedDiet was
348 inversely and significantly associated with the HSI after adjusting for potential
349 confounders. Such findings are consistent with a previous study showing that
350 MedDiet ameliorated hepatic steatosis and improved insulin sensitivity [13,18]. In

351 contrast, Kontogianni et al. did not found differences in the adherence to MedDiet
352 between individuals diagnosed with NAFLD and healthy subjects [19]. In fact,
353 authors suggested that non-dietary factors have an strong impact on pathogenesis
354 and development of this disease [19].

355 The association between light-moderate alcohol consumption and the
356 severity and pathogenesis of NAFLD is still controversial [45]. Nevertheless,
357 moderate alcohol consumption might improve insulin sensitivity and CDV mortality
358 [45]. Ajmera and colleges suggested that subjects diagnosed with NAFLD without
359 NASH, the cardiovascular benefits of moderate alcohol consumption could have
360 outweighed by injurious effects on liver status [45]. Moreover, modest wine
361 consumption could reduce prevalence of suspected NAFLD (higher levels of ALT) in
362 patients at high risk of coronary heart disease [46]. However, further quality clinical
363 studies are crucial to better clarify the effects of moderate alcohol consumption on
364 liver health, NASH histology and NAFLD severity. When we re-calculated the
365 MedDiet adherence score without considering alcohol consumption, the inverse
366 association between MedDiet and the HSI did not change. On other hand, we noted
367 that legume consumption decreases across tertiles of HSI. In fact, when our
368 participants were stratified according to legume consumption tertiles, an apparent
369 inverse association was found with the highest HSI values. Furthermore, we also
370 observed that higher consumption of legumes was associated with 52% lower odds
371 to be in the top HSI tertile, even after controlling for potential dietary and non-dietary
372 confounders. These results are consistent with those of previous clinical studies that

373 evaluated the influence of legume intake on obesity and metabolic disorders [47,48].
374 In the PREDIMED study, it was prospectively found that greater legume intake (28
375 g/d) was associated with a lower risk of type 2 diabetes in subjects at high CVD risk
376 [48]. Several authors have claimed that the beneficial effects of legume intake are
377 attributed to the presence of vegetable protein, fibre, antioxidants, phytochemicals,
378 and other bioactive compounds [47]. Legumes are particularly rich in fibre (soluble
379 fibre and resistant starch) that might exert effects on digestibility and lowering
380 absorption rates of carbohydrates, thereby improving glycemic control [47].
381 Moreover, a hypolipidemic effect of legumes has been observed promoting a
382 reduction of intestinal fat absorption and bile acid uptake thus inducing a reduction
383 of free fatty acids and cholesterol in the liver [49]. In this regard, those with greater
384 legume intake presented a significantly lower risk of higher HSI values. This
385 suggests that legume consumption could ameliorate metabolic disorders related to
386 NAFLD in patients with MetS.

387 Only a few clinical studies have investigated the relationship between meat
388 consumption and NAFLD risk [12][50]. The link between meat intake and risk of
389 developing NAFLD and co-morbidities may rely on harmful meat components such
390 as saturated fatty acid (SFA) and heme-iron [51]. However, our findings showed no
391 differences in SFA intake among HSI tertiles. Indeed, when a multivariable analysis
392 was fully adjusted, the relationship between total meat intake and HSI values was
393 not statistically significant. This outcome may be attributed to differences in meat
394 subtypes [52]. Thus, Zelber-Sagi et al. indicated that meat consumption, especially

395 red and processed meat, was independently associated with the increased risk of
396 developing NAFLD and insulin resistance [53]. In contrast, a recent meta-analysis of
397 observational studies reported an inverse association between white meat intake
398 and MetS [52]. It is also important to highlight that red meat, beef internal organs,
399 and processed meat contain more heme-iron than white meat [54]. More studies will
400 be warranted in order to evaluate the role of specific meat subtypes in NAFLD.

401 The strengths of this analysis include the fact that it is the first study that uses
402 a representative and relatively large sample of elders diagnosed with MetS within
403 the PREDIMED-Plus cohort. Additionally, the study explored the potential
404 association between modifiable lifestyle factors and NAFLD assessed by a non-
405 invasive liver score used for larger-scale screening studies [6,7]. However, our
406 research has some limitations. First, the cross-sectional and non-prospective
407 design. Second, liver fat content was not directly measured. However, we used a
408 validated non-invasive liver marker suitable for use in clinical practice as an
409 alternative to imaging methods or liver biopsy. Third, our study sample was made up
410 of aged Caucasians diagnosed with MetS. This status limits the extrapolation of our
411 results to other populations, although it concerns patients at increased
412 cardiometabolic risk that abound in all western countries.

413 **Conclusions**

414 This study suggests that lifestyle modifications focused on physical activity
415 and fostering adherence to the Mediterranean Diet in senior adults diagnosed with
416 MetS might exert beneficial effects on liver status. Moreover, some foods such as

417 legumes may play a beneficial role in the improvement of hepatic steatosis reducing
418 the risk of NAFLD. Our findings support the recommendation of lifestyle changes
419 (nutrition and physical activity) as a cornerstone for the prevention and precise
420 management of NAFLD in patients with MetS.

421

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429

430 **Authorship**

431 Author Contributions: VBV; IA; MAZ; JAM; were involved in conceptualization;
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433 preparation; critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content. JAT;
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438 **Conflicts of Interest**

439 None of the authors reported a conflict of interest.

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625

Table 1. Main characteristics of subjects diagnosed with metabolic syndrome according to Hepatic Steatosis Index tertiles (HSI)

	Total (n=328)	T1 (n=110)	T2 (n=109)	T3 (n=109)	P value
Men, n(%)	180 (54.9)	60 (54.6)	60 (55.1)	60 (55.1)	0.996
Age (years)	65.8 (65.2-66.4)	66.2 (65.2-67.1)	66.3 (65.4-67.3)	64.9 (64.0-65.9)	0.082
BMI (kg/m ²)	32.2 (31.8-32.5)	29.5 (29.1-29.9)	31.7 (31.3-32.1)	35.3 (34.8-35.7)	<0.001
Weight (kg)	86.1 (84.8-87.4)	79.6 (77.6-81.5)	84.4 (82.4-86.3)	94.3 (92.4-96.3)	<0.001
Waist circumference (cm)	107.1 (106.1-108.1)	101.4 (100.0-102.8)	106.1 (104.7-107.5)	113.8 (112.4-115.2)	<0.001
Glucose (mg/dL)	119.3 (115.7-123.0)	108.5 (102.4-114.5)	119.6 (113.6-125.6)	130.1 (124.1-136.2)	<0.001
HbA1c (%)	6.1 (6.0-6.2)	5.9 (5.7-6.0)	6.2 (6.0-6.4)	6.3 (6.1-6.5)	0.001
TyG index	9.0 (8.9-9.0)	8.8 (8.7-8.8)	9.0 (8.9-9.1)	9.2 (9.1-9.3)	<0.001
SBP (mmHg)	142.0 (140.2-143.6)	141.2 (138.3-144.2)	143.6 (140.6-146.6)	140.9 (137.9-143.9)	0.390
DBP (mmHg)	86.2 (85.3-87.2)	84.9 (83.2-86.5)	86.3 (84.7-88.0)	87.5 (85.5-89.1)	0.093
Diabetes, n (%)	125 (38.1)	22 (20.0)	46 (42.2)	57 (52.3)	<0.001
High blood pressure or hypertensive medication, n (%)	318 (97.0)	104 (94.6)	106 (97.3)	108 (99.1)	0.145
Smoking status, n (%)					
Never smoker	133 (40.6)	52 (47.3)	43 (39.5)	38 (34.9)	0.134
Former smoker	154 (47.0)	44 (40.0)	49 (45.0)	61 (56.0)	
Current smoker	41 (12.5)	14 (12.7)	17 (15.6)	10 (9.2)	
Alcohol intake (g/d)	12.0 (10.1-13.8)	9.7 (6.6-12.9)	12.6 (9.5-15.8)	13.5 (10.3-16.7)	0.221
HSI (arbitrary units)	43.1 (42.5-43.6)	38.1 (37.6-38.5)	42.6 (42.2-43.1)	48.5 (48.1-49.0)	<0.001

Data are presented as means (95%CI) and frequencies (%), p<0.05 is considered as statistically significant.

Abbreviations: HSI, Hepatic Steatosis Index; BMI, body mass index; HbA1C, hemoglobin A1c; TyG index, triglycerides and glucose index; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure.

Table 2. Lipid profile, DXA estimation and lifestyle information according to Hepatic Steatosis Index tertiles (HSI) in subjects with metabolic syndrome

	T1 (n=110)	T2 (n=109)	T3 (n=109)	P value
Lipid profile				
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	194.7 (187.8-201.5) ^{a,b}	207.0 (200.1-213.8)	202.4 (195.5-209.3)	0.045
LDL-c (mg/dL)	123.2 (117.0-129.5)	131.1 (124.8-137.5)	125.9 (119.6-132.2)	0.212
HDL-c (mg/dL)	46.4 (44.5-48.4)	47.4 (45.4-49.3)	45.2 (43.2-47.1)	0.291
Triglycerides (mg/dL)	128.5 (116.6-140.4) ^{a,c}	149.0 (137.0-160.9)	161.9 (149.9-173.8)	<0.001
TG/HDL cholesterol ratio	3.0 (2.6-3.3) ^{a,c}	3.5 (3.1-3.9)	3.9 (3.5-4.3)	0.004
VLDL-c (mg/dL)	25.7 (23.3-28.1) ^{a,c}	29.8 (27.4-32.2)	32.4 (30.0-34.8)	<0.001
DXA estimation				
Total fat (kg)	28.7 (27.5-29.9) ^{a,b/a,c}	32.9 (31.7-34.1) ^{b,c}	40.1 (38.8-41.3)	<0.001
Trunk fat (kg)	17.3 (16.6-18.1) ^{a,b/a,c}	20.1(19.4-20.8) ^{b,c}	24.4 (23.7-25.1)	<0.001
Android fat (kg)	3.1 (2.9-3.2) ^{a,b/a,c}	3.6 (3.5-3.8) ^{b,c}	4.4 (4.3-4.6)	<0.001
Gynoid fat (kg)	4.1 (3.9-4.4) ^{a,b/a,c}	4.7 (4.4-4.9) ^{b,c}	5.9 (5.6-6.1)	<0.001
Visceral fat (Kg)	2.0 (1.8-2.1) ^{a,b/a,c}	2.4 (2.2-2.5) ^{b,c}	2.8 (2.6-3.0)	<0.001
Lifestyle variables				
Physical activity (MET/hours/week)	58.5 (50.4-66.6) ^{a,c}	51.4 (43.3-59.6)	41.1 (32.9-49.3)	0.014
MedDiet Score (0-9)	4.7 (4.4-5.0) ^{a,c}	4.4 (4.1-4.7)	4.1 (3.8-4.4)	0.015

p<0.05 is considered statistically significant. Data are expressed as mean (95% CI). Values were adjusted for age, total energy intake and alcohol intake as continuous covariates.

a,b significant differences between T1 vs T2.

a,c significant differences between T1 vs T3.

b,c significant differences between T2 vs T3.

DXA measurements available in 268 patients (T1=85), (T2=92), (T3=89), visceral fat available in 252 patients (T1=81), (T2=88), (T3=83).

Abbreviations: HSI, Hepatic Steatosis Index; LDL-c, Low density lipoprotein cholesterol; HDL-c, High density lipoprotein cholesterol; TG/HDL cholesterol ratio, triglycerides/ High density lipoprotein cholesterol ratio; VLDL-c, Very-low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; MET, Metabolic Equivalent; MedDiet, Mediterranean Diet.

Table 3. Linear regression analyses model, exploring the association between physical activity and Mediterranean Diet adherence (as independent factors with the hepatic steatosis index (HSI) (as dependent factor) in subjects with metabolic syndrome

		Physical activity (MET/hours/week)				R² Adjusted	p for trend
	T1 (0-22.5)	T2 (>22.5-≤61.4)		T3 (>61.4-321.7)			
		Regression coefficient	95% CI	Regression coefficient	95% CI		
Crude	0 Ref.	-1.51	(-2.79 -0.23)	-2.24	(-3.52 -0.96)	0.031	<0.001
Model 1	0 Ref.	-1.46	(-2.74 -0.19)	-2.11	(-3.39 -0.83)	0.037	<0.001
Model 2	0 Ref.	-1.54	(-2.81 -0.27)	-2.11	(-3.39 -0.83)	0.047	<0.001
Model 3a	0 Ref.	-1.47	(-2.73 -0.20)	-1.93	(-3.22 -0.65)	0.057	0.001

		Mediterranean diet adherence (0-9 points)				R² Adjusted	p for trend
	Low (0-3)	Moderate (4-5)		High (6-9)			
		Regression coefficient	95% CI	Regression coefficient	95% CI		
Crude	0 Ref.	-1.08	(-2.31 0.15)	-1.89	(-3.32 -0.45)	0.015	0.010
Model 1	0 Ref.	-0.92	(-2.16 0.31)	-1.83	(-3.27 -0.40)	0.024	0.014
Model 2	0 Ref.	-0.72	(-1.97 0.52)	-1.88	(-3.33 -0.43)	0.033	0.016
Model 3b	0 Ref.	-0.70	(-1.92 0.53)	-1.57	(-3.01 -0.13)	0.061	0.041

Model 1: Adjusted for age, as continuous covariate.

Model 2: Adjusted for age, energy intake and alcohol consumption as continuous covariates and smoking status and high blood pressure or taking treatment as categorical covariates.

Model 3a: model 2 + MedDiet adherence as continuous covariate.

Model 3b: model 2 + physical activity as continuous covariate.

Abbreviations: HSI, Hepatic Steatosis Index; MET, Metabolic Equivalent.

Table 4. Food group and dietary intake according to Hepatic Steatosis Index tertiles (HSI) in subjects with metabolic syndrome

	T1 (n=110)	T2 (n=109)	T3 (n=109)	P value
Energy, macronutrients and fiber intake				
Total energy (Kcal/d)	2606 (2511-2702)	2559 (2463-2655)	2610 (2514-2706)	0.717
Carbohydrate (g/d)	281.1 (273.9-288.2)	284.4 (277.3-291.6)	277.9 (270.8-285.1)	0.456
Protein (g/d)	100.8 (98.2-103.4)	102.2 (99.7-104.8)	103.9 (101.3-106.5)	0.255
Lipid (g/d)	109.0 (105.8-112.2)	106.8 (103.6-110.1)	109.0 (105.8-112.3)	0.570
Monounsaturated lipids	55.5 (53.4-57.5)	54.0 (52.0-56.1)	56.0 (53.9-58.0)	0.399
Saturated lipids	26.7 (25.7-27.7)	26.4 (25.3-27.4)	27.9 (26.8-28.9)	0.103
Monounsaturated/ saturated ratio	2.2 (2.1-2.2)	2.1 (2.0-2.2)	2.1 (2.0-2.2)	0.483
Total fiber (g/d)	30.2 (28.7-31.7)	30.2 (28.6-31.7)	29.3 (27.7-30.8)	0.662
Foods and nutrient intake				
Dairy products (g/d)	361.1 (321.4-400.8)	418.0 (378.2-457.9)	383.4 (343.5-423.4)	0.137
Legumes (g/d)	21.6 (20.0-23.2) ^{a,c}	19.8 (18.2-21.5)	18.6 (16.9-20.2)	0.035
Meat (g/d)	144.0 (134.8-153.1) ^{a,c}	144.5 (135.4-153.7) ^{b,c}	161.4 (152.2-170.6)	0.013
Fruits (g/d)	447.2 (404.4- 490.0)	449.0 (406.0-492.0)	394.1 (350.9-437.2)	0.137
Vegetables (g/d)	333.2 (310.6-355.8)	328.0 (305.3-350.7)	332.5 (309.7-355.3)	0.942
Cereals (g/d)	201.1 (187.1-215.1)	202.5 (188.5-216.6)	198.2 (184.1-212.3)	0.909
Fish and seafoods (g/d)	102.1 (94.2-110.1)	95.6 (87.7-103.6)	98.0 (90.0-106.0)	0.516

p<0.05 is considered statistically significant. Data are expressed as mean (95% CI). Values were adjusted for total age, energy intake except for energy intake and alcohol intake as continuous covariates.

a,c significant differences between T1 vs T3.

b,c significant differences between T2 vs T3.

Table 5. Multivariate analysis concerning the associations between legume consumption and NAFLD according to Hepatic Steatosis Index (HSI) in subjects featured with metabolic syndrome

	N	<i>Hepatic Steatosis Index</i>				
		T1	T2	T3		
			RRR (95% CI)	p value	RRR (95% CI)	p value
Legume (g/d)						
Crude						
Tertile 1 (≤ 16.1)	139	1 Ref.	1 Ref.		1 Ref.	
Tertile 2 ($>16.1- \leq 20.8$)	93	1 Ref.	0.89(0.47 to 1.68)	0.713	0.51(0.27 to 0.99)	0.046
Tertile 3 (>20.8)	96	1 Ref.	0.74(0.39 to 1.41)	0.364	0.53(0.28 to 0.99)	0.049
Model 1						
Tertile 1 (≤ 16.1)	139	1 Ref.	1 Ref.		1 Ref.	
Tertile 2 ($>16.1- \leq 20.8$)	93	1 Ref.	0.94(0.49 to 1.80)	0.846	0.50(0.26 to 0.99)	0.048
Tertile 3 (>20.8)	96	1 Ref.	0.81(0.42 to 1.59)	0.548	0.54(0.27 to 1.06)	0.072
Model 2						
Tertile 1 (≤ 16.1)	139	1 Ref.	1 Ref.		1 Ref.	
Tertile 2 ($>16.1- \leq 20.8$)	93	1 Ref.	0.85(0.44 to 1.66)	0.638	0.45(0.22 to 0.92)	0.028
Tertile 3 (>20.8)	96	1 Ref.	0.74(0.37 to 1.46)	0.382	0.48(0.24 to 0.97)	0.041

Model 1: Adjusted for age, energy intake, and alcohol consumption as continuous covariates, and smoking status as categorical covariate.

Model 2: model 1 + triglycerides and physical activity as continuous covariates.

Abbreviations: HSI, Hepatic Steatosis Index; RRR, relative risk ratio.