Journal of SARS-CoV-2 and Coronavirus Disease

Research Article

prary of Medical Publicati

Dietary Habits, Physical Activity and the Mental Well-Being of Turkish Adults in COVID-19 Pandemic Process: A Cross Sectional Study

Senay CATAK^{1*} (D), Nursel SAHIN² (D) and Gamze AKBULUT³ (D)

¹Research Assistant, Department of Nutrition and Dietetic, Aydin Adnan Menderes University, Aydin, Turkey

²Research Assistant, Department of Nutrition and Dietetic, Bandirma Onyedi Eylul University, Balikesir, Turkey

³Professor Doctor, Department of Nutrition and Dietetic, Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey

*Corresponding authors: Senay CATAK, Department of Nutrition and Dietetic, Aydin Adnan Menderes University, Aydin, 09100, Turkey, Tel: +905398148252, E-mail: senay.ozkorkmaz@adu.edu.tr

Citation: CATAK S, SAHIN N, AKBULUT G (2021) Dietary Habits, Physical Activity and the Mental Well-Being of Turkish Adults in COVID-19 Pandemic Process: A Cross Sectional Study. J SARS-CoV-2 COVID 2:012.

Abstract

Background: Health is defined as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being. Mental health is essential for maintaining good health and can be affected by diet and lifestyle.

Objective: The purpose of this study is to assess the dietary habits and physical activity that affect mental well-being in Turkish adults in COVID-19 pandemic process.

Design: This cross-sectional study used a self-administrated semi-quantified food frequency questionnaire, Mediterranean Diet Adherence Scale (MEDAS), and Short Warwick Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (SWEMWBS).

Participants/setting: Data were collected from November 2020-February 2021 via online questionnaire from Turkish adults. A total of 918 individuals (143 men and 775 women) were included in the study.

Results: There was a significant relationship between the MEDAS and SWEMBS scores by gender. SWEMBS score showed a direct significant relationship with the consumption of olive oil as the main culinary fat, consumption of vegetables, legumes, and fish/shellfish and eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) intake increased significantly as the SWEMBS score increased (p < 0.05).

Conclusions: Maintaining a certain level of physical activity along with healthier eating habits will provide a healthier future by improving both physical and mental health.

Keywords

Mediterranean diet, Mental health, Vegetables, COVID-19, Fish consumption

Introduction

In the twenty-first century, climate change, urban growth, cultural and technological changes, as well as industrialization and over-processing of food, have become growing global problems for public health and mental health [1]. For this reason, it is very important for protecting individuals' mental health, increasing the quality of life, coping with mental illnesses, reducing medical costs and other social expenses, and increasing national competitiveness [2].

As staying mentally healthy is more significant than

treating or preventing mental illness, "mental wellbeing" is considered an important concept. Mental wellbeing is a core component of optimal health and refers to a person's psychological functioning, life satisfaction, and the ability to develop and maintain mutually beneficial relationships [3]. Therefore, mental health is affected by many factors. These factors include genetic factors, stress, diet, physical inactivity, medications, and other environmental factors [4-6].

It is accepted that a balanced diet is a key factor for an individual's health condition not only physically

| Volume 2 | Issue 1 |
|-----------|-------------------|
| Pages | 59-67 |
| Received | 🛗 July 04, 2021 |
| Accepted | 🛗 August 24, 2021 |
| Published | 🛗 August 26, 2021 |

but also in terms of mental health [7]. A balanced and adequately planned diet is more likely to provide nutrients that increase resistance to the pathogenesis of mental illness. Because a significant part of total energy and nutrient intake is used by the brain which depends on amino acids, fats, vitamins, and minerals or trace elements (including intracellular and intercellular transmission) in both structure and function [1,8]. In order to sustain a balanced diet in maintaining mental health, it is desirable to return to the traditional diet, which includes the consumption of foods such as vegetables, fruits, fish/shellfish, whole grains, lean meat, nuts, and legumes, avoiding processed foods (trans fats and refined carbohydrates and sugars) [9]. Therefore, there is increasing evidence that certain dietary models, including the Mediterranean diet, which is a healthy and sustainable diet, can be applied as effective strategies to prevent mental illness [10].

Physical activity (PA) is an important modifiable lifestyle factors that has positive effects on physical health throughout life [11]. It is also recognized as an important risk factor for the prevention and management of mental illnesses, especially depression and anxiety [12]. Although physical activity is widely encouraged for its positive effects on mental health, the evidence base is more related to physical activity and negative mental health [13]. Physical activity has a positive effect on mental health through mechanisms such as stimulating neuroplastic processes, reducing inflammation, and increasing resistance to physiological stress [14]. Even low doses of physical activity are associated with a lower risk of mental illness [15]. In addition, it is stated that increasing physical activity along with the consumption of fruits and vegetables will play an important role in improving mental health [16].

In addition, it is known that a healthy and balanced diet is a part of individual risk management in pandemic processes [17]. Many bioactive nutrient components, along with most macro and micronutrients, act as immune modulators against viral infections [18]. Especially the Mediterranean Diet, with its nutrients and nutritional components, can have a protective effect in these processes. Research on the ongoing COVID-19 outbreak reports changes in individuals' dietary attitudes and a trend towards a healthy diet [19,20].

The purpose of this study is to determine the dietary habits and physical activity that affect mental well-being in adult individuals in COVID-19 pandemic process.

Materials and Methods

This study was conducted with an online questionnaire between November 2020 and February 2021 in order to assess dietary habits and physical

activity that affect mental well-being in adults. Within the scope of the survey, 1098 individuals attended to the study; but the data of 918 individuals who met the study criteria were analyzed. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and the study procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board at the Aydin Adnan Menderes University Faculty of Health Science Non-Invasive Ethics Committee (Number: 2020/050).

Research design

In this cross-sectional and descriptive study, data collected through an online questionnaire consisting of questions about nutritional behaviours, lifestyle habits, and mental health status. The questionnaire was shared via social media or e-mail that can be accessed from any device with an internet connection by creating a link. A total of 918 people (143 men and 775 women) were included in the study.

Data collection

Data collection was done through a structured questionnaire created on Google Forms and individuals were informed that all data would be used for research purposes only. Individuals' responses are kept confidential according to Google's privacy policy. The questionnaire consists of a self-administrated semiquantified food frequency questionnaire with 54 foods and socio-demographic characteristics, anthropometric measurements (body weight (kg), height (m)), Mediterranean Diet Adherence Scale (MEDAS), and Short Warwick Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale (SWEMWBS) to evaluate adherence to Mediterranean Diet (MD) and its effects on mental well-being. The energy intake (EI) and nutrients were calculated using a computer-assisted nutrition program developed for Turkey Nutrition Information System (BeBiS 7.2). Body Mass Index (BMI) was calculated using the body weight (kg) and height (m) of the individuals (kg/m²). World Health Organization's (WHO) classification was used in the assessment of BMI [21]. The normal range is 18.5-24.9 kg/m², overweight is 25-29.9 kg/m², and obesity is \geq 30 kg/m². In addition, to evaluate the adherence of individuals to the MD, BMI < 25 kg/m² (underweight/ normal body weight) and BMI \geq 25 kg/m² (overweight/ obese) were classified. The total weekly activity was obtained from the sum of high, moderate, light (walking) physical activity and resting and was expressed in METmin/week. Total physical activity was classified as below 600 MET-min/week as low, 600-3000 MET-min/week as moderate, and over 3000 MET-min/week as high activity [22].

The MEDAS was found by Schröder, et al. (2011) to be a valid tool for the rapid estimation of adherence to the MD. The scale consisting of 14 questions was

adapted to Turkish by Pehlivanoğlu (2020) and its validity and reliability have been ensured. The scale includes the type of essential oil used by individuals in meals, the amount of olive oil consumed daily, fruit and vegetable portions, margarine-butter and red meat consumption, weekly consumption of wine, legumes, shellfish/fish, snacks, nuts, pie, tomato sauce with olive oil and whether white meat is preferred more than red meat. According to the amount of consumption, 1 or 0 points are taken for each question asked and the total score is calculated. A total score of 7 and above indicates that the individual has an acceptable level of adherence to the MD, while a total score of 9 and above indicates that the individual has strict adherence to the MD. In this study, the MEDAS score of the individuals, below 7 points, was evaluated as low adherence to the MD, 7-8 points as moderate adherence to the MD, and 9 points and above as high adherence to the MD [23,24].

The SWEMWBS consists of a 5-point Likert type (1 = Never 5 = Always), 7-item scale consisting of positive expressions, whose validity and reliability in Turkish was made by Demirtaş and Baytemir (2019). It has been developed to measure the mental well-being of individuals. Seven items on the scale are associated with functionality rather than emotions. The scoring of the scale is between 7 and 35. Higher scores on the scale indicate higher positive mental well-being. In practice, individuals are asked to consider their experiences in the last two weeks [25,26].

Statistical evaluation of data

The data obtained from the research were evaluated

| Characteristics | Men | Women | Total | * | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------|--------------|--------------|----------|--|
| Characteristics | (n = 143) | (n = 775) | (n = 918) | p* | |
| Age (year) | 27.8 ± 9.97 | 24.7 ± 6.27 | 25.2 ± 7.05 | < 0.001* | |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 25.5 ± 6.99 | 22.1 ± 6.63 | 22.6 ± 6.80 | < 0.001* | |
| BMI classification | | | | | |
| - Underweight | 3 (2.1%) | 118 (15.2%) | 121 (13.2%) | | |
| Normal weight | 86 (60.1%) | 523 (67.5%) | 609 (66.3%) | < 0.001* | |
| - Overweight | 42 (29.4%) | 99 (12.8%) | 141 (15.4%) | < 0.001 | |
| - Obese | 12 (8.4%) | 35 (4.5%) | 47 (5.1%) | | |
| Education Status | | | | | |
| Primary school | 4 (2.8%) | 10 (1.2%) | 14 (1.5%) | | |
| - High school | 11 (7.7%) | 31 (4.0%) | 41 (4.6%) | 0.024* | |
| - Graduate | 111 (77.6%) | 653 (84.3%) | 764 (83.2%) | 0.034* | |
| Postgraduate | 17 (11.9%) | 81 (10.5%) | 98 (10.7%) | | |
| Physical activity | | | | | |
| - Low | 45 (31.5%) | 331 (42.7%) | 376 (40.9%) | | |
| - Moderate | 85 (59.4%) | 426 (55.0%) | 511 (55.7%) | 0.214 | |
| - High | 13 (9.1%) | 18 (2.3%) | 31 (3.4%) | | |
| Dietary composition | | | | | |
| - Energy (kcal) | 2517 ± 1484 | 2404 ± 1050 | 2422 ± 1129 | 0.271 | |
| - Carbohydrates | 20.5.0.00 | 00.0 + 0.40 | 20.2 + 0.20 | 0.740 | |
| - (% EI) | 36.5 ± 6.00 | 36.3 ± 6.43 | 36.3 ± 6.36 | 0.712 | |
| - Protein (% El) | 15.0 ± 3.26 | 15.0 ± 2.80 | 15.0 ± 2.87 | 0.892 | |
| - Fat (% El) | 48.5 ± 6.23 | 48.7 ± 6.57 | 48.7 ± 6.51 | 0.653 | |
| - Fibre (g) | 35.7 ± 20.20 | 34.6 ± 15.16 | 34.7 ± 16.05 | 0.418 | |
| MEDAS score | 6.7 ± 2.02 | 7.1 ± 1.92 | 7.1 ± 1.94 | 0.013* | |
| SWEMBS score | 25.3 ± 5.25 | 24.4 ± 4.65 | 24.6 ± 4.76 | 0.028* | |
| | | | | | |

 Table 1: Demographic, dietary, and lifestyle characteristics of individuals according to gender.

Values are expressed as means and standard deviation (M \pm SD) for continuous variables or as number and percentage (n (%)) for categorical variables.

BMI: Body Mass Index; EI: Energy Intake; MEDAS: Mediterranean Diet Adherence Scale; SWEMBS: Short Warwick Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale.

[•]The t test and One-Way ANOVA test were performed to evaluate differences by gender. Significance for variables is accepted as p < 0.05.

with the SPSS 22 version statistical package program. Mean ± standart error (SE) or mean ± standart deviation (SD) for normally distributed numerical variables and number (n) and percentage (%) values were calculated in the evaluation of qualitative data. To examine the relationship between continuous and two-group variables, t-test was used for normally distributed data. Differences between groups in categorical variables were controlled by Student's t-test. One-Way ANOVA test for normally distributed data in data grouped more than two; Kruskal-Wallis test was used for nonnormally distributed data. Correlations were evaluated using Pearson's correlation coefficient. Multiple linear regression models used to evaluate the relation between consumption habits and intake of food and mental well-being. Statistical significance in the analyzes was evaluated at the p < 0.05 and p < 0.001 levels.

Results

The socio-demographic and lifestyle characteristics of the individuals included in the study are shown in Table 1. A total of 918 people, 143 (15.6%) men, and 775 (84.4%) women, participated in the study. The mean age of individuals was 25.2 ± 7.05 years, and the mean BMI for women and men was 22.1 ± 6.63 kg/ m² and 25.5 ± 6.99 kg/m², respectively. There was a significant difference between men and women in terms of BMI classification (p < 0.05). There was no statistically significant difference between women and men in terms of energy, carbohydrate, fat, protein, and fiber intake (p > 0.05). The mean MEDAS score was 7.1 for women and 6.7 for men. MEDAS scores of women were significantly higher than men (p < 0.05). The SWEMBS score was found to be 24.4 in women and 25.3 in men. SWEMBS scores of men were significantly higher than women (p < 0.05).

The relationship between physical activity and adherence to the MD and mental well-being is shown in Table 2. The cut-off points for increasing quartiles of SWEMBS scores were < 22 (Q1), 22-25 (Q2), 25-28 (Q3), and > 28 (Q4). It was found that as the SWEMBS score increased, the total MET score and MEDAS score also increased, statistically (p < 0.05).

Table 3 shows the results of the regressions with the different elements of the MEDAS questionnaire as independent variables. SWEMBS score showed a direct significant relationship with the consumption of olive oil as the main culinary fat ($\beta = 0.094$, p < 0.01), consumption of vegetables ($\beta = 0.074$), legumes ($\beta = 0.071$), and fish/ shellfish ($\beta = 0.067$) (p < 0.05). It was found a significant inverse relationship with the preference for chicken/ turkey/rabbit and SWEMBS score ($\beta = -0.081$, p < 0.05).

Energy, nutrients, and fatty acids intake and their relationship with the SWEMBS score are shown in Table 4. We found that eicosapentaenonic acid (EPA) intake increased significantly as the SWEMBS score increased (p < 0.05). There was no statistically significant difference between energy, nutrient, and other fatty acids intake and the SWEMBS score (p > 0.05).

Table 5 shows the regression model results between some independent variables and the SWEMBS score. According to the model, it has been shown that there is a positive and significant relationship between the SWEMBS score and age (B = 0.130), EPA intake (B =

| | | | SWEMBS sco | ore | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|-------------|--------|----|
| | Ouartile 1 | Ouartile 1 | artile 1 Quartile 2 | Ouartile 3 | Quartile 4 | Total | p* |
| | (n = 224) | (n = 209) | (n= 251) | (n = 234) | (n = 918) | | |
| Physical activity status | | | | | | | |
| - Low | 90 (23.9%) | 96 (25.5%) | 113 (30.1%) | 77 (20.5%) | 376 (40.9%) | 0.004* | |
| - Moderate | 129 (25.2%) | 111 (21.7%) | 129 (25.2%) | 142 (27.8%) | 511 (55.7%) | | |
| - High | 5 (16.1%) | 2 (6.5%) | 9 (29.0%) | 15 (48.4%) | 31 (3.4%) | | |
| Total MET score | 888 ± 54.73ª | 769 ± 50.30ª | 831 ± 54.58ª | 1151 ± 107.04⁵ | 912 ± 35.99 | 0.001* | |
| Adherence to the MD | | | | | | | |
| - Low | 143 (27.1%) | 127 (24.1%) | 138 (26.1%) | 120 (22.7%) | 528 (57.5%) | 0.048* | |
| - Moderate | 33 (18.8%) | 42 (23.9%) | 44 (25.0%) | 57 (32.4%) | 176 (19.2%) | | |
| - High | 48 (22.4%) | 40 (18.7%) | 69 (32.2%) | 57 (26.6%) | 214 (23.3%) | | |
| MEDAS score | 6.7 ± 2.03ª | 7.1 ± 1.84 ^{a,b} | 7.2 ± 1.96 ^{a,b} | 7.3 ± 1.89 [♭] | 7.1 ± 1.94 | 0.015* | |

Table 2: The relationship between physical activity and adherence to the MD and mental well-being.

Values are expressed as means and standard error (M \pm SE) for continuous variables or as number and percentage (n (%)) for categorical variables.

SWEMBS: Short Warwick Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale; MET: Metabolic Equivalent of Task;MD: Mediterranean Diet;MEDAS: Mediterranean Diet Adherence Scale.

'One-Way ANOVA or Kruskal Wallis test, p < 0.05; ^{a,b}For groups of different letters p < 0.05; for groups of the same letters p > 0.05.

Table 3: Multiple linear regression models used to evaluate the relation between consumption habits and intake of food and mental well-being.

| | SWEMBS score | | |
|--|---------------------|-------|--------|
| Variables | В | SE | β |
| Olive oil as the main culinary fat | 1.048** | 0.402 | 0.094 |
| Olive oil consumption | 0.354 | 0.350 | 0.035 |
| Vegetable consumption | 0.723* | 0.327 | 0.074 |
| Fruit consumption | 0.182 | 0.358 | 0.017 |
| Low red meat/hamburger/meat products consumption | -0.273 | 0.432 | -0.022 |
| Low butter/margarin/cream consumption | 0.449 | 0.400 | 0.038 |
| Low sweet/carbonated beverages consumption | -0.063 | 0.411 | -0.005 |
| Wine consumption | 0.545 | 1.425 | 0.012 |
| Legumes consumption | 0.676* | 0.317 | 0.071 |
| Fish/shellfish consumption | 1.115* | 0.552 | 0.067 |
| Low commercial sweets/pastries consumption | 0.012 | 0.365 | 0.001 |
| Nuts consumption | 0.396 | 0.349 | 0.037 |
| Preference for chicken/turket/rabbit | -0.799 [*] | 0.327 | -0.081 |
| Sofrito seasoning consumption | -0.071 | 0.343 | -0.007 |

B: non-standardized coefficient; SE: standart error; β : standardized coefficient. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01.

Sofrito is a traditional sauce made with tomato and onion, leek, or garlic and slow-cooked with olive oil.

Table 4: The evaluation of the relation between energy, macronutrients, dietary fibre intake and mental well being.

| | SWEMBS score | | | | | |
|---------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------|
| Variables | Quartile 1 | Quartile 2 | Quartile 3 | Quartile 4 | Total | p⁺ |
| | (n = 224) | (n = 209) | (n = 251) | (n = 234) | (n = 918) | |
| Energy (kcal) | 2448 ± 71.56 | 2317 ± 58.57 | 2421 ± 74.68 | 2493 ± 86.75 | 2422 ± 37.26 | 0.415 |
| Carbohydrates (%) | 36.9 ± 0.40 | 35.6 ± 0.50 | 36.2 ± 0.40 | 36.5 ± 0.39 | 36.3 ± 0.21 | 0.155 |
| Protein (%) | 14.7 ± 0.17 | 15.3 ± 0.20 | 14.8 ± 0.17 | 15.2 ± 0.21 | 15.0 ± 0.10 | 0.082 |
| Fat (%) | 48.3 ± 0.40 | 49.1 ± 0.54 | 49.1 ± 0.40 | 48.3 ± 0.39 | 48.7 ± 0.22 | 0.345 |
| Dietary fibre (g/d) | 35.8 ± 1.03 | 33.7 ± 0.87 | 33.9 ± 0.99 | 35.6 ± 1.27 | 34.7 ± 0.53 | 0.359 |
| Fatty acids (g/d) | | | | | | |
| Total PUFA | 28.1 ± 1.00 | 27.3 ± 1.08 | 28.3 ± 1.03 | 29.0 ± 1.19 | 28.2 ± 0.54 | 0.734 |
| Total n-6 PUFA | 24.3 ± 0.86 | 23.6 ± 0.92 | 24.5 ± 0.89 | 25.2 ± 1.04 | 24.4 ± 0.47 | 0.714 |
| Linoleic acid | 24.1 ± 0.85 | 23.4 ± 0.92 | 24.3 ± 0.88 | 25.0 ± 1.03 | 24.2 ± 0.46 | 0.720 |
| Arachidonic acid | 0.1 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.406 |
| Total n-3 PUFA | 3.7 ± 0.15 | 3.7 ± 0.16 | 3.8 ± 0.15 | 3.9 ± 0.16 | 3.8 ± 0.08 | 0.848 |
| α-linolenic acid | 3.2 ± 0.12 | 3.2 ± 0.15 | 3.3 ± 0.13 | 3.3 ± 0.14 | 3.3 ± 0.07 | 0.945 |
| EPA | 0.1 ± 0.00 | 0.1 ± 0.00 | 0.1 ± 0.00 | 0.1 ± 0.01 | 0.1 ± 0.00 | 0.045* |
| DPA | 0.1 ± 0.01 | 0.1 ± 0.00 | 0.1 ± 0.00 | 0.1 ± 0.01 | 0.1 ± 0.00 | 0.112 |
| DHA | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.2 ± 0.01 | 0.260 |

Values are expressed as means and standard error (M \pm SE) for continuous variables or as number and percentage (n (%)) for categorical variables.

PUFA: Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid; EPA: Eicosapentaenonic Acid; DPA: Docosapentaenoic Acid; DHA: Docosahexaenoic Acid; N: Omega.

*One Way ANOVA, p < 0.05.

 Table 5: Factors associated with SWEMBS score by multiple linear regression analysis.

| Variables | | SWEMBS score | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|--------------|--------|--|--|
| | В | SE | β | | |
| Age (year) | 0.130 [*] | 0.022 | 0.192 | | |
| BMI (kg/m²) | 0.044 | 0.023 | 0.062 | | |
| Energy (kcal) | -8.449 | 0.000 | -0.020 | | |
| EPA (g/d) | 5.405 [*] | 2.356 | 0.088 | | |
| Total MET score | 0.001* | 0.000 | 0.118 | | |
| MEDAS score | 0.280* | 0.078 | 0.114 | | |

B: non-standardized coefficient; SE:standart error; β : standardized coefficient. p < 0.05.

SWEMBS: Short Warwick Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale; BMI: Body Mass Index; EPA: Eicosapentaenonic Acid; MET: Metabolic Equivalent of Task; MEDAS: Mediterranean Diet Adherence Scale.

5.405), total MET score (B = 0.001), and total MEDAS score (B = 0.280) (p < 0.05).

Discussion

While the prevalence of mental illness continues to increase day by day, variable lifestyle behaviours that have a positive impact on mental health are issues that should be emphasized. Therefore we evaluated the dietary habits and physical activity associated with the mental well-being of Turkish adults in COVID-19 pandemic process with this study.

Physical activity is a factor that promotes health and well-being [27]. At the same time, evidence has consistently shown that physical activity is positively associated with increased mental well-being [28,29]. In a study examining the relationship between physical activity and positive mental health, higher PA levels were generally associated with higher positive mental health, and inactivity was associated with lower positive mental health [30]. Similarly, another study found that physically inactive individuals had significantly greater increases in mental well-being with PA intervention, and there was a strong and positive correlation between increased physical activity and mental wellbeing [31]. In a study examining the physical activity level and quality of life of university students in Turkey during the COVID-19 pandemic, it was found that 48.5% of the participants had low physical activity levels and low physical activity levels adversely affected mental health [32]. In this study, most of the individuals (55.7%) were at moderate physical activity, while 40.9% were at low physical activity levels. As the total MET score of individuals increased, the SWEMBS score increased significantly (p < 0.05). In other words, mental wellbeing was found to be higher in individuals with high levels of physical activity. Physical activity can also be an effective therapy method in combating mental and physical problems that may be caused by COVID-19.

Antioxidant defense systems involved in mental illness work with the support of nutritional cofactors and

phytochemicals. Neurotrophic factors that contribute to neuronal plasticity and repair mechanisms throughout life are also affected by dietary factors [33]. Therefore, diet and dietary bioactive components are considered modifiable risk factors affecting the etiology of mental illnesses [34]. Current evidence suggests that healthy diet models that meet energy and nutrient needs can help prevent and treat depression and anxiety [35]. For example, healthy eating habits with antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects, such as the Mediterranean and Norwegian diets characterized by high fruit and vegetable intake, and a consumption of whole grains, fish, and meat, have been associated with reduced risk of depressive symptoms [36,37]. In a cohort of Italian adults, a significant linear relationship trend was found between general quality of life and adherence to the Mediterranean diet score. It is stated that antioxidant micronutrients and photochemical, such as polyphenols, which are high in the Mediterranean diet, show potential beneficial effects on individuals' physical and mental well-being, providing overall better quality of life [38]. These molecules also may work synergistically to prevent and protect inflammatory manifestations and related complications associated with thrombotic and reactive oxygen species (ROS). Therefore, Mediterranean diet may be beneficial for non-communicable diseases, it may also be beneficial for infectious diseases such as COVID-19 as it affects immune health [39]. In another study, physical fitness was found that positively correlated with the Mediterranean Diet, and adherence to the MD was associated with different mental health factors [40]. In this study, the mean MEDAS score of the individuals was found to be 7.1 ± 1.94 , and they generally had a moderate adherence to MD. As individuals' adherence to MD increased, their SWEMBS scores also increased (p < 0.05). High adherence to the Mediterranean diet can contribute positively to the COVID-19 pandemic process and mental health, due to its antioxidant, antiinflammatory and antithrombotic effects.

Some studies showed that increased consumption of fruits, nuts, vegetables, legumes, fish, and whole grains was closely linked to well-being and a lower risk of depression [38,41-45]. We observed that regarding SWEMBS score, a direct significant relationship was found with the use of olive oil as the main culinary fat and consumption of vegetables, legumes, and fish/ shellfish with greater amounts (p < 0.05). This effect may be associated with the intake of certain vitamins (eg, vitamin B and folate, and vitamin E) and minerals (eg. magnesium or zinc) as well as n-3 fatty acids or the n-3/n-6 ratio. Because these nutrients have antioxidant properties and roles in the synthesis of some hormones and neurotransmitters which have antidepressant properties.

An adequate intake of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) critically affects brain function. PUFAs found in the human body can be divided into two main groups as n-6 and n-3 PUFAs, which are derived from two essential fatty acids, linoleic acid (LA, 18:2 n-6) and α -linolenic acid (ALA, 18:3 n-3), respectively. In humans, nutritional deficiencies of n-3 fatty acids are associated with an increased risk of developing various psychiatric disorders. In particular, EPA and DHA have been associated with maintaining mental health, and their shortcomings have been involved in the pathophysiology of mental disorders [46]. In a metaanalysis of clinical studies examining the effects of EPA on depression, it was shown that EPA supplementation was highly effective on primary depression [47]. And also EPA supplementation has been shown to significantly improve depression scale scores compared to placebo in middle-aged women with episodes of psychological distress or major depression [48]. In this study, similar results have been shown. It was found that the intake of higher amounts of EPA was associated with better mental health status (p < 0.05). This may be due to EPA's effects on anti-inflammatory and brain biochemistry. Lack of n-3 fatty acids in the diet can change the composition of the cell membrane. Each cell needs a healthy, functional bilayer layer of lipids to facilitate the physiological response and maintain fluidity. However, the current diets generally contain more levels of n-6 fatty acids than n-3. The main cause of death in patients infected with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) is the failure of several organs, which is the result of an overload of the immune system that causes cytokine storms. Omega-3 fatty acids are known to produce fewer pro-inflammatory cytokines, so higher intake of n-3 fatty acids from foods or supplements can reduce virus penetration, improve immune function, and reduce disease severity among those diagnosed with COVID-19 [49]. Increasing EPA consumption can be an effective treatment for both mental health and prevention or treatment of COVID-19.

Stressful situations and bad living and eating habits are often associated with poor mental health. In a study examining the relationship between health behaviour changes and negative mood during the COVID-19 quarantine, being less physically active and eating a more unhealthy diet were associated with more negative mood. In our study, it was found that healthier eating habits were associated with better mental health scores [50]. In the COVID-19 pandemic, the quarantine process and illness anxiety can negatively affect mental health. A healthy diet can help prevent and heal the mental damage that the COVID-19 pandemic can cause.

The main limitation of the present study is represented by a self-reported questionnaire, which may lead to the actual misreporting of data. And also, data were collected online in a few months in this survey, so the findings can not be generalized for all age groups and for the population of Turkey is predominantly young adult population.

Conclusion

It was found that there was a significant relationship between the MEDAS and SWEMBS scores by gender. SWEMBS score showed a direct significant relationship with the consumption of olive oil as the main culinary fat, consumption of vegetables, legumes, and fish/shellfish. It was found that EPA intake increased significantly as the SWEMBS score increased. In conclusion, with this study, we present a positive relationship between high adherence to the Mediterranean diet ingredients and high physical activity and mental health. The recommendation of adherence to MD (and monitoring it) can provide an approach to improve the assessment of effective experience and quality of life the population in pandemic process, which will bring benefits beyond well-being. In addition, maintaining a certain level of physical activity along with healthier eating habits will provide a healthier future by improving both physical and mental health.

Author Contributions

SC's contributions for this manuscript are concept, materials, data collection, analysis and interpretation, literature search, writing manuscript and critical review. NS's contributions for this manuscript are concept, materials, data collection, analysis and interpretation, literature search, writing manuscript and critical review. GA's contributions for this manuscript are concept, design, supervision, analysis and interpretation and critical review.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank the study participants for their contribution to the research.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-forprofit sectors.

References

- 1. Logan AC, Jacka FN (2014) Nutritional psychiatry research: an emerging discipline and its intersection with global urbanization, environmental challenges and the evolutionary mismatch. J Physiol Anthropol 33: 22.
- Lim SY, Kim EJ, Kim A, et al. (2016) Nutritional factors affecting mental health. Clinical Nutrition Research 5: 143-152.
- 3. Stewart-Brown S, Janmohamed K (2008) Warwick-Edinburgh mental well-being scale. User guide Version.
- Pinto RQ, Soares I, Carvalho-Correia E, et al. (2015) Geneenvironment interactions in psychopathology through out early childhood: a systematic review. Psychiatric genetics 25: 223-233.
- Beilharz JE, Maniam J, Morris MJ (2015) Diet-Induced Cognitive Deficits: The Role of Fat and Sugar, Potential Mechanisms and Nutritional Interventions. Nutrients 7: 6719-6738.
- Helgadóttir B, Forsell Y, Ekblom Ö (2015) Physical activity patterns of people affected by depressive and anxiety disorders as measured by accelerometers: a crosssectional study. PLoS One 10: e0115894.
- Silva AS, Sobarzo-Sánchez E (2019) "Nutritional Psychiatry: Evidence of the Role of Foods in Mental Health" Part 1. Curr Pharm Biotechnol 20: 98-99.
- 8. Sarris J, Logan AC, Akbaraly TN, et al. (2015) Nutritional medicine as mainstream in psychiatry. The lancet Psychiatry 2: 271-274.
- 9. Sarris J (2019) Nutritional Psychiatry: From Concept to the Clinic. Drugs 79: 929-934.
- Huhn S, Kharabian Masouleh S, Stumvoll M, et al. (2015) Components of a Mediterranean diet and their impact on cognitive functions in aging. Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience 7: 132.
- 11. Lee I-M, Shiroma EJ, Lobelo F, et al. (2012) Effect of physical inactivity on major non-communicable diseases worldwide: an analysis of burden of disease and life expectancy. The Lancet 380: 219-229.
- 12. Oja P, Titze S (2011) Physical activity recommendations for public health: development and policy context. EPMA Journal 2: 253-259.
- Black SV, Cooper R, Martin KR, et al. (2015) Physical Activity and Mental Well-being in a Cohort Aged 60-64 Years. American Journal of Preventive Medicine 49: 172-180.
- 14. Kandola A, Ashdown-Franks G, Hendrikse J, et al. (2019) Physical activity and depression: Towards understanding the antidepressant mechanisms of physical activity. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews 107: 525-539.

- 15. Teychenne M, White RL, Richards J, et al. (2020) Do we need physical activity guidelines for mental health: What does the evidence tell us? Mental Health and Physical Activity 18: 100315.
- 16. Gasmi AN, Tippairote T, Dadar M, et al. (2020) Individual risk management strategy and potential therapeutic options for the COVID-19 pandemic. Clin Immunol 215: 108409.
- 17. Chandra RK (1996) Nutrition, immunity and infection: From basic knowledge of dietary manipulation of immune responses to practical application of ameliorating suffering and improving survival. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 93: 14304-14307.
- Di Renzo L, Gualtieri P, Pivari F, et al. (2020) Eating habits and lifestyle changes during COVID-19 lockdown: An Italian survey. J Transl Med 18: 229.
- Özenoğlu A, Çevik E, Çolak H, et al. (2020) Effects Of Covid 19 Pandemic On Nutritional Attitude And Behavior And Life Style Habits. International Conference on Covid 19 Studies.
- 20. Johnson R, Robertson W, Towey M, et al. (2017) Changes over time in mental well-being, fruit and vegetable consumption and physical activity in a community-based lifestyle intervention: a before and after study. Public Health 146: 118-125.
- 21. WHO. Obesity: Preventing and managing the global epidemic. Geneva; 2000.
- 22. Biernat E, Stupnicki R, Lebiedziński B, et al. (2008) Assessment of physical activity by applying IPAQ questionnaire. Physical Education and Sport 52: 83-89.
- 23. Özkan EF, Balcıoğlu H, Ünlüoğlu İ (2020) Akdeniz Diyeti Bağlılık Ölçeği'nin Türkçe'ye Uyarlanması Geçerlilik ve Güvenilirliği. Osmangazi Tıp Dergisi 42: 160-164.
- 24. Schröder H, Fitó M, Estruch R, et al. (2011) A short screener is valid for assessing Mediterranean diet adherence among older Spanish men and women. J Nutr 141: 1140-1145.
- Demirtaş AS, Baytemir K (2019) Warwick-Edinburgh Mental İyi Oluş Ölçeği Kisa Formu'nun Türkçe'ye Uyarlanmasi: Geçerlik Ve Güvenirlik Çalişmasi. Electronic Journal of Social Sciences 18: 664-666.
- 26. Stewart-Brown S, Tennant A, Tennant R, et al. (2009) Internal construct validity of the Warwick-Edinburgh mental well-being scale (WEMWBS): A Rasch analysis using data from the Scottish health education population survey. Health and Quality of Life Outcomes 7: 15.
- 27. Budzynski-Seymour E, Conway R, Wade M, et al. (2020) Physical activity, mental and personal well-being, social isolation, and perceptions of academic attainment and employability in university students: The Scottish and British active students surveys. Journal of Physical Activity and Health 17: 610-620.
- 28. Bize R, Johnson JA, Plotnikoff RC (2007) Physical activity level and health-related quality of life in the general adult population: a systematic review. Preventive Medicine 45: 401-415.
- 29. Cerin E, Leslie E, Sugiyama T, et al. (2009) Associations of multiple physical activity domains with mental well-being. Mental Health and Physical Activity 2: 55-64.
- Tamminen N, Reinikainen J, Appelqvist-Schmidlechner K, et al. (2020) Associations of physical activity with positive mental health: A population-based study. Mental Health and Physical Activity 18: 100319.

- Harris MA (2018) The relationship between physical inactivity and mental wellbeing: Findings from a gamification-based community-wide physical activity intervention. Health Psychology Open 5: 2055102917753853.
- 32. Bulguroğlu Hİ, Bulguroğlu M, Özaslan A (2021) Covid-19 Pandemi Sürecinde Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Fiziksel Aktivite, Yaşam Kalitesi ve Depresyon Seviyelerinin İncelenmesi. Acıbadem Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Dergisi 12: 306-311.
- Molendijk ML, Bus BA, Spinhoven P, et al. (2011) Serum levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor in major depressive disorder: state-trait issues, clinical features and pharmacological treatment. Molecular Psychiatry16: 1088-1095.
- 34. Godos J, Currenti W, Angelino D, et al. (2020) Diet and Mental Health: Review of the Recent Updates on Molecular Mechanisms. Antioxidants 9: 346.
- Kris-Etherton PM, Petersen KS, Hibbeln JR, et al. (2020) Nutrition and behavioral health disorders: Depression and anxiety. Nutrition Reviews 79: 247-260.
- Quirk SE, Williams LJ, O'Neil A, et al. (2013) The association between diet quality, dietary patterns and depression in adults: a systematic review. BMC Psychiatry 13: 1-22.
- 37. Lai JS, Hiles S, Bisquera A, et al. (2014) A systematic review and meta-analysis of dietary patterns and depression in community-dwelling adults. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 99: 181-197.
- Godos J, Castellano S, Marranzano M (2019) Adherence to a Mediterranean Dietary Pattern Is Associated with Higher Quality of Life in a Cohort of Italian Adults. Nutrients 11: 981.
- Zabetakis I, Lordan R, Norton C, et al. (2020) COVID-19: The inflammation link and the role of nutrition in potential mitigation. Nutrients 12: 1466.
- 40. Muros JJ, Cofre-Bolados C, Arriscado D, et al. (2017) Mediterranean diet adherence is associated with lifestyle, physical fitness, and mental wellness among 10-y-olds in Chile. Nutrition 35: 87-92.
- 41. Grosso G, Micek A, Marventano S, et al. (2016) Dietary

open Access

n-3 PUFA, fish consumption and depression: A systematic review and meta-analysis of observational studies. Journal of Affective Disorders. 205: 269-281.

- 42. Liu X, Yan Y, Li F, et al. (2016) Fruit and vegetable consumption and the risk of depression: A meta-analysis. Nutrition 32: 296-302.
- 43. Parletta N, Zarnowiecki D, Cho J, et al. (2017) A Mediterranean-style dietary intervention supplemented with fish oil improves diet quality and mental health in people with depression: A randomised controlled trial (HELFIMED). Journal of the Australasian College of Nutritional and Environmental Medicine 37: 6-18.
- 44. Sánchez-Villegas A, Delgado-Rodríguez M, Alonso A, et al. (2009) Association of the Mediterranean dietary pattern with the incidence of depression: the Seguimiento Universidad de Navarra/University of Navarra follow-up (SUN) cohort. Archives of General Psychiatry 66: 1090-1098.
- 45. Yannakoulia M, Panagiotakos DB, Pitsavos C, et al. (2008) Eating habits in relations to anxiety symptoms among apparently healthy adults. A pattern analysis from the ATTICA Study. Appetite 51: 519-525.
- 46. Lange KW (2020) Omega-3 fatty acids and mental health. Global Health Journal 4: 18-30.
- 47. Sublette ME, Ellis SP, Geant AL, et al. (2011) Meta-analysis of the effects of eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) in clinical trials in depression. The Journal of Clinical Psychiatry 72: 1577-1584.
- 48. Lucas M, Asselin G, Mérette C, et al. (2009) Ethyleicosapentaenoic acid for the treatment of psychological distress and depressive symptoms in middle-aged women: A double-blind, placebo-controlled, randomized clinical trial. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 89: 641-651.
- 49. Hathaway D, Pandav K, Patel M, et al. (2020) Omega 3 fatty acids and COVID-19: A comprehensive review. Infection & Chemotherapy 52: 478-495.
- 50. Ingram J, Maciejewski G, Hand CJ (2020) Changes in diet, sleep, and physical activity are associated with differences in negative mood during COVID-19 lockdown. Frontiers in Psychology 11: 588604.

Open Access Declaration

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source of content.