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The association between diet and mental health and wellbeing in young adults within a biopsychosocial framework --Manuscript Draft--

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Corresponding Author:	Verena Rossa-Roccor, MD, MSc The University of British Columbia Vancouver, CANADA
Keywords:	Depression; anxiety; quality of life; dietary patterns; plant-based diets; planetary health
Abstract:	<p>Objective: Predominantly plant-based diets can co-benefit human physical health and the planet. Young adults appear to be on the forefront of the shift to plant-based diets. However, little is known about the relationship between plant-based diets and mental health in this population even though mental health disorders contribute substantially to the global burden of disease, particularly among this age group.</p> <p>Design: In this cross-sectional study we utilize a biopsychosocial framework to assess the association between dietary intake and mental health and wellbeing. Mental health was assessed using self-reported measures of anxiety (GAD-7), depression (PHQ-9) and quality of life (single-item). Dietary intake in the prior month was assessed using a dietary screener (DSQ) and participants were asked to self-identify a diet preference (e.g., vegan).</p> <p>Setting and participants: 339 university undergraduate students.</p> <p>Results: A principle component analysis of dietary intake found three dominant dietary patterns (plant-based, animal-based, and 'junk foods'); 28.1% (n=95) of participants self-identified as pescatarian, vegetarian, vegan, other. The association between dietary patterns, diet preference and mental health was assessed through regression analysis. After controlling for covariables, we found a significant positive association between the junk food component and depression (z-score $\beta=.21$, $p\leq.001$; adj. $R^2=.39$) and anxiety (z-score $\beta=.14$; $p\leq.001$; adj. $R^2=.32$) while no association was found between plant-based, animal-based or self-identified diet preference and the mental health measures.</p> <p>Conclusions: Predominantly plant-based diet patterns are not negatively associated with mental health and wellbeing. It is important to consider dietary composition and to conceptualize diet as a health behaviour that is embedded in a biopsychosocial framework.</p>
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27 **Abstract**

28 **Objective:** Predominantly plant-based diets can co-benefit human physical health and the planet.
29 Young adults appear to be on the forefront of the shift to plant-based diets. However, little is
30 known about the relationship between plant-based diets and mental health in this population even
31 though mental health disorders contribute substantially to the global burden of disease,
32 particularly among this age group.

33 **Design:** In this cross-sectional study we utilize a biopsychosocial framework to assess the
34 association between dietary intake and mental health and wellbeing. Mental health was assessed
35 using self-reported measures of anxiety (GAD-7), depression (PHQ-9) and quality of life (single-
36 item). Dietary intake in the prior month was assessed using a dietary screener (DSQ) and
37 participants were asked to self-identify a diet preference (e.g., vegan).

38 **Setting and participants:** 339 university undergraduate students.

39 **Results:** A principle component analysis of dietary intake found three dominant dietary patterns
40 (plant-based, animal-based, and 'junk foods'); 28.1% (n=95) of participants self-identified as
41 pescatarian, vegetarian, vegan, other. The association between dietary patterns, diet preference
42 and mental health was assessed through regression analysis. After controlling for covariables, we
43 found a significant positive association between the junk food component and depression (z-
44 score $\beta=.21$, $p\leq.001$; adj. $R^2=.39$) and anxiety (z-score $\beta=.14$; $p\leq.001$; adj. $R^2=.32$) while no
45 association was found between plant-based, animal-based or self-identified diet preference and
46 the mental health measures.

47 **Conclusions:** Predominantly plant-based diet patterns are not negatively associated with mental
48 health and wellbeing. It is important to consider dietary composition and to conceptualize diet as
49 a health behaviour that is embedded in a biopsychosocial framework.

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56 **1. Introduction**

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58 Holistic health fields of enquiry such as planetary health view diet as being embedded in
59 a complex system of interrelations between individual, social, cultural, and environmental
60 factors. In March 2019, the EAT Lancet Commission on Healthy Diets from Sustainable Food
61 Systems put forward the first global benchmark diet capable of sustaining human and planetary
62 health [1]. The recommendations herein include two sets of frameworks: on the one hand, they
63 specify food intake ensuring human health and on the other hand, they suggest specific planetary
64 boundaries for food production. More specifically, these ‘win-win diets’ highlight the co-benefits
65 of plant- over animal-based foods. The authors state that “when viewed together as an integrated
66 human health and environmental sustainability agenda, ‘win-win’ diets, that fall within the safe
67 operating space for food systems, will help to achieve global human health and environmental
68 sustainability goals” [1].

69 The authors of this landmark report were able to draw on extensive evidence on the
70 benefit of planetary healthy, i.e., predominantly plant-based diets, on physical health. However,
71 the potential mental health impacts of these diets remain largely unknown. This lack of evidence
72 is surprising given that mental and behavioural disorders are the leading cause of years lived
73 with disability worldwide [2]. Depression and anxiety are the two leading mental health
74 disorders in terms of global disease burden: Depressive disorders account for 40% of disability-
75 adjusted life years (DALYs), anxiety disorders account for 15% of DALYs caused by all mental
76 and substance use disorders [2]. Lifetime prevalence rates range from 10 to 15% for depression
77 [3] and average 17% for all anxiety disorders combined [4]. Furthermore, mental illness often
78 develops into a chronic, lifelong health issue that can have profound and devastating effects on

79 an individual's life trajectory by impacting and disrupting social functioning and capital [5],
80 educational attainment [6], economic output [7], and overall quality of life (QoL) [8].

81 Approximately 75% of all mental illnesses have their onset before the age of 25 [9–11].
82 University students in particular are vulnerable for depression, anxiety, and substance use
83 disorders [12] and mental health issues within this population are on the rise [13,14]. This
84 warrants interventions that support students in this developmental phase which offers potential
85 for preventive and early intervention as it is accompanied by significant brain development with
86 elevated neural plasticity [15,16]. To meet this growing need, research in the area of nutritional
87 psychiatry is now considering dietary interventions to prevent and treat mental illnesses [17].
88 These interventions have the potential to contribute to improved emotional functioning and long-
89 term health, as the adoption of a healthy diet during this developmental period may contribute
90 substantially to the prevention of (chronic) non-communicable diseases in later stages of life
91 [18].

92 Young people are also particularly likely to adopt plant-based diets [19,20]. Current
93 estimates see approximately 7% of Canada's population self-identifying as vegetarian or vegan
94 (compared to only 2% in 2003) – with those under the age of 35 being three times more likely
95 than older generations to identify as vegetarian or vegan while predictions see this number
96 increasing rapidly [20]. The numbers of those who do not completely abstain from meat or other
97 animal-based products but aim to substantially decrease their consumption, particularly of
98 greenhouse gas and water-intense red meats and ruminant products, are even higher: According
99 to recent consumer polls, 43% of Canadians are aiming to incorporate more plant-based foods
100 into their diets [21] which is reflected in a constant decline of overall per capita meat
101 consumption in Canada over the last three decades [22].

102 There are different definitions and conceptualizations of plant-based diets. One approach
103 is to assess diet preference, i.e., someone identifies as vegetarian, vegan, or newer categories
104 such as ‘flexitarian’, a term describing individuals who eat “primarily vegetarian with the
105 occasional inclusion of meat or fish” [23]. Using this categorical definition of plant-based diets,
106 preliminary findings ranged from vegetarians reporting significantly better mood and less
107 anxiety and stress compared to non-vegetarians [24,25] to vegetarians having higher odds of
108 lifetime prevalence of depression, anxiety, and physical disorders compared to non-vegetarians
109 [26–30]. However, findings show that self-report of diet preference (i.e., stating whether one
110 identifies as vegan, vegetarian, etc.) says very little about actual diet pattern and quality [31].
111 Certain plant-based foods such as whole grains, vegetables, legumes, nuts, and fruits are indeed
112 known to have health benefits while high intake of others such as refined grains, fried potatoes,
113 sweets and desserts, or fruit juices are generally considered unhealthy [32]. Therefore,
114 compositions of diet patterns and diet quality of those who describe themselves as vegetarians,
115 vegans, pescatarians, etc. likely differ greatly between individuals and need to be assessed more
116 carefully. Research on the association between diet and mental health utilizing composite dietary
117 measures such as dietary patterns and diet quality indices also shows heterogenous results.
118 However, the trend seems to point towards better mental health among those following
119 predominantly plant-based diets, i.e., diets that are high in vegetable, fruit, whole grain intake
120 with moderate intake of fish and worse mental health among those following a ‘Western’ diet
121 high in animal and processed foods [33–35].

122 In this study, we conceptualized plant-based diets as diet patterns that consist mostly or
123 exclusively of plant-based foods. We assessed diet through two approaches: using a categorical
124 definition of plant-based diet asking respondents to self-identify according to diet preferences

125 (no preference, pescatarian, vegetarian, vegan, other with open text entry option) and the diet
126 pattern-based approach through dietary pattern analysis. We then compared both approaches in
127 terms of their association with depression, anxiety, and QoL hypothesizing that diet patterns high
128 in plant foods rather than diet preference would be negatively associated with the outcomes.

129 One limitation that all previous studies on this topic have in common is their narrow
130 focus on a primarily biomedical understanding of the relationship between diet and mental
131 health. Neither mental health nor dietary behaviours exist in a vacuum. As described in an
132 extensive body of research, stress, stressful life events, body image, physical activity, sleep, and
133 social support are all predictors for mental health and wellbeing outcomes [36–41].
134 Simultaneously, these factors are conceptually related to diet and therefore fulfill the criteria of
135 presenting possible confounders in the relationship under investigation in this study [42–47].
136 Previous studies have not sufficiently considered these factors, particularly the social dimension
137 of dietary habits, in their theoretical frameworks and statistical models.

138 With this study, we therefore sought to address several gaps in the literature. We assessed
139 diet patterns in a population of undergraduate university students. We further examined whether
140 plant-based diet pattern and self-reported preferences are associated with mental health
141 (depression and anxiety) and wellbeing (QoL) in this population (for simplicity, we refer to both
142 as ‘mental health’ herein). Finally, we extend the understanding of this relationship by
143 considering this question within a biopsychosocial rather than a currently predominant
144 biomedical framework in this field, thereby adding important confounding variables to the
145 analysis.


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148 **2. Methods**

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150 **2.1. Study design and participants**

151 The study design was cross-sectional. We collected data through an online self-report
152 survey from March to April of 2019. The main outcome variables of interest were depression,
153 anxiety, and QoL  indicator of overall mental wellbeing. The main explanatory variable was
154 diet as assessed through dietary pattern over the prior month as well as self-reported diet
155 preference. The survey contained additional items on social support, health behaviours and
156 status, body image, stress, stressful life events, and socioeconomic background.

157 We recruited participants among undergraduate students at the University of British
158 Columbia (UBC), Vancouver, Canada through convenience sampling; data was collected
159 anonymously. Excluding graduate students (n=9) and cases that were missing items for any of
160 the main outcome or main explanatory variables (n=92) yielded a final analytic sample of n=339
161 respondents.

162

163 **2.2. Measures**

164 To assess dietary habits, we used the U.S. National Cancer Institute's Dietary Screening
165 Questionnaire (DSQ) which asks about the frequency of consumption of select foods and
166 beverages in the past 30 days. Evaluations have shown good agreement between estimates of
167 intakes between the DSQ and multiple 24hr recalls with differences in means <2% and
168 differences in prevalence <16% [48]. In its original version, the DSQ includes 26 items. The
169 questionnaire was slightly altered in order to make it more appropriate for the local context and
170 to include items that were relevant to this study such as consumption of poultry, additional dairy

171 products, vegetarian meat alternatives, and non-dairy milk. The final version used in this study
172 had 28 items (see supplementary materials for questionnaire).

173 In addition to the DSQ, we included one item asking about dietary preference.
174 Participants were asked if they identified as: a) pescatarian ('you eat fish, eggs, and dairy but no
175 meat or poultry'); b) vegetarian ('you eat eggs and dairy but no fish, meat or poultry'); c) vegan
176 ('you don't eat any animal products'); d) other ('please specify'; participants were given the
177 option to enter text); e) none of the above.

178 We assessed QoL as a measure for overall mental wellbeing through a single-item
179 measure ("In general, would you say your quality of life is...") with responses rated on a 5-point
180 Likert scale (0=poor, 1=fair, 2=good, 3=very good, 4=excellent). This single-item measure is
181 one of the most widely used items to measure QoL and has been included in routinely used
182 assessment tools such as the Patient-Reported Outcomes Measurement Information System Scale
183 version 1.2 PROMIS[®] [49].

184 We assessed depressive symptoms using the 9-item Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-
185 9) which is widely used in both clinical and research settings and has been validated for a variety
186 of populations to detect and assess severity of depressive symptoms [50–53]. The total score
187 ranges from 0 to 27. PHQ-9 scores of ≥ 10 have been reported to have a sensitivity of 88% and a
188 specificity of 88% for major depression [53]. For clinical and diagnostic purposes, the measure
189 can further be used to assess severity of symptoms applying cut-off scores. Cut-off scores for
190 mild, moderate, moderately severe, and severe depression were found to be 5, 10, 15, and 20,
191 respectively [53]. In general, a score ≥ 10 means that further clinical evaluation is indicated while
192 a score ≥ 20 indicates that the individual may require psychotherapy and/or medication.

193 We assessed anxiety symptoms using the 7-item General Anxiety Disorder Questionnaire
194 (GAD-7). Similar to the PHQ-9, this is a standard instrument to detect and assess the severity of
195 anxiety disorder used widely for both clinical and research practices. Although originally
196 designed to detect general anxiety disorder, it has been found that the GAD-7 is useful as a
197 screening instrument for related anxiety disorders such as post-traumatic stress disorder, social
198 anxiety disorder, and panic disorder [54]. The total score ranges from 0 to 21; for GAD-7 scores
199 ≥ 10 , sensitivity and specificity have been reported to be above 80% [55]. Much like the PHQ-9,
200 the GAD-7 can further be used to assess severity of symptoms by applying cut-off scores. Cut-
201 off scores for mild, moderate, and severe anxiety were found to be 5, 10, and 15, respectively
202 [55]. In general, a score ≥ 10 means that further clinical evaluation is indicated while a score ≥ 15
203 indicates that the individual may require psychotherapy and/or medication.

204

205 **2.3. Statistical analyses and missing data**

206 For descriptive purposes, we reported continuous variables through the mean and
207 standard deviation (SD); for categorical variables, we reported frequencies.

208 The final sample consisted of $n=339$ participants. In this analytic sample, the data on the
209 main variables of interest (QoL, depression, anxiety, DSQ) was complete for all respondents.
210 For covariables, responses such as ‘prefer not to say’ and ‘don’t know’ were treated as missing
211 data. We applied multiple imputation (Markov Chain Monte Carlo Method; five imputations) to
212 address missing data for all covariables that were to be included in the multiple regression model
213 based on the conceptual understanding of the relationship between diet and mental health in
214 order to avoid underestimation of sampling error [56].

215 We applied principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation as a data
216 reduction approach for the evaluation of the DSQ items. The decision on how many components
217 were to be retained was based on considering the combination of interpretability and conceptual
218 reasoning of the emerging components, the eigenvalues (>1), the scree plot, and the percentage
219 of variance explained by the components. Varimax rotation was chosen as it was assumed that
220 emerging components would not be highly correlated with each other.


221 The PCA component scores for each participant were entered into regression models as
222 the main explanatory variable when examining the relationship between diet pattern and mental
223 health outcomes (using the total scores of the PHQ-9 and GAD-7 measures). We built three
224 nested linear regression models per outcome using a hierarchical approach. We first entered
225 sociodemographic factors (age, gender, ethnicity), then added lifestyle-related variables (physical
226 activity, sleep, weight satisfaction, stress, stressful life events). The third step was to add social
227 support as a known individual predictor for mental health. Finally, we added the main variables
228 of interest (PCA component scores) to assess its additional contribution to the outcome of
229 interest. These nested models were built for each outcome variable of interest: Model 1: QoL;
230 Model 2: Depression; Model 3: Anxiety. This approach was repeated with self-reported diet
231 preference as the main explanatory variable. Assumptions for linear models were met. All
232 analyses were 2-tailed with a significance level of $p \leq 0.05$ and conducted with IBM SPSS
233 Statistics 25[®].

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240 **3. Results**

241

242 **3.1. Sample characteristics and covariates**

243 The total sample consists of n=339 participants  **Table 1** depicts detailed sample
244 characteristics as well as frequencies of covariables that were included in the regression models
245 such as health behaviours (physical activity and sleep), body image, overall stress, stressful life
246 events, and social support. Overall, we found that almost none of the students (96.1%, n=326)
247 met the recommended amount of moderate or vigorous physical activity in the previous week.
248 Three quarters of the participants (76.7%, n=260) reported enough sleep to feel rested on a
249 maximum of four days in the previous week. Two thirds of the students (66.6%, n=226)
250 experienced more than average or even tremendous stress over the 12 months preceding the
251 survey. Approximately half of the students were somewhat, very, or extremely satisfied with
252 their weight (52.6%, n=178). Experiencing stressful life events that caused moderate or severe
253 stress was reported by 76.3% (n=259) of the students. Conversely, the majority of participants
254 (80.4%, n=272) reported having good, very good, or excellent satisfaction with their social
255 relationships and activities.

256 **Table 1** Participant demographic and psychosocial characteristics

Characteristic/Item	Item categories	mean	SD	n [†]	%
<i>Age</i>		19.5	1.9		
<i>Gender identity</i>	Female			224	66.1
	Male			109	32.1
	Other (trans, queer, other)			6	1.8
<i>Sexual orientation</i> 	Heterosexual			257	75.8
	Bisexual			33	9.7
	Gay/Lesbian			6	1.8
	Other			28	8.3
<i>Relationship status</i>	Not in a relationship			221	65.2 
	In a relationship			95	28.0
	Not sure			12	3.5

Characteristic/Item	Item categories	mean	SD	n[†]	%
<i>Ethnicity</i>	White			156	46.0
	Asian			135	39.8
	Other			48	14.2
<i>Year in school</i>	1 st year			211	62.2
	2 nd year			64	18.9
	3 rd year			28	8.3
	4 th year			19	5.6
	Higher than 4 th year undergrad			9	2.7
	Not seeking a degree			1	0.3
<i>International student</i>	Yes			120	35.4
	No			213	62.8
<i>Residence</i>	On-campus			248	73.2
	With parents			34	10.0
	Off-campus alone/with roommates/other			48	14.2
<i>Physical activity in the past 7 days (20min of vigorous exercise or 30min of moderate exercise)</i>	Never			94	27.6
	1-3 days/week			167	49.3
	4-6 days/week			65	19.1
	every day or more than once a day			13	3.9
<i>Enough sleep to feel rested in the morning in the past 7 days</i>	≤ 4 days/week			260	76.7
	≥ 5 days/week			79	23.1
<i>Weight satisfaction</i>	not satisfied/slightly unsatisfied			161	47.4
	somewhat satisfied			101	29.9
	very/extremely satisfied			77	22.7
<i>Perceived stress</i>	no/less than average stress			25	7.4
	average stress			88	26.0
	more than average/tremendous stress			226	66.6
<i>Stressful life events</i>	mild stressors			81	23.8
	moderate stressors			149	44.1
	severe stressors			109	32.2
<i>Social support</i>	poor/fair			67	19.6
	good/very good/excellent			272	80.4

257 [†]n may vary due to missing data

258 **3.2. Diet**

259 Three dietary components emerged from the PCA of the DSQ items. Component 1 (plant
260 foods) was high in plant-based foods and non-animal-based dairy and meat alternatives as well

261 as whole grains. Component 2 (animal foods) was high in animal-based foods such as different
 262 meats and dairy products. Component 3 (junk foods) was high in processed foods, snacks, and
 263 candies. The total variance explained by the retained three components was 40.6%. Details on
 264 loadings per component for each food item/group after varimax rotation can be seen in **Table 2**.
 265 For better interpretability, we removed food items/groups that did not load ≥ 0.4 on either of the
 266 components (namely, potatoes, tomato sauce, and fruit juice) from the final analysis [57]. In
 267 addition, loadings below 0.4 are omitted from the table to improve readability.

268 **Table 2** Principal component analysis of dietary components and component loadings for dietary
 269 patterns after varimax rotation

Food item/group	Component 1 (plant foods)	Component 2 (animal foods)	Component 3 (junk foods)
<i>Brown rice and whole grains</i>	0.70		
<i>Beans and legumes</i>	0.68		
<i>Nuts and seeds</i>	0.66		
<i>Green leafy vegetables</i>	0.66		
<i>Other vegetables</i>	0.64		
<i>Fruit</i>	0.63		
<i>Vegetarian/vegan meat alternatives</i>	0.53	-0.46	
<i>Non-dairy milk</i>	0.51	-0.41	
<i>Whole grain bread</i>	0.49		
<i>Cereal</i>	0.43		
<i>Poultry</i>		0.80	
<i>Red meat</i>		0.75	
<i>Processed meat</i>		0.68	
<i>Fish and seafood</i>		0.61	
<i>Cheese</i>		0.56	
<i>Yoghurt</i>		0.50	
<i>Dairy milk</i>		0.49	
<i>Cookies, cake, pie</i>			0.65
<i>Ice cream</i>			0.61
<i>Donuts etc.[†]</i>			0.60
<i>Chocolate and candy</i>			0.60
<i>Soda</i>			0.54
<i>Pizza</i>			0.51
<i>Fried potatoes</i>			0.50
<i>Coffee or tea with sugar</i>			0.41

270 [†]this item on the questionnaire included donuts, sweet rolls, Danish, muffins, pan dulce, and pop-tarts

271 Almost one third of students (28.1%, n= 95) self-identified as either pescatarian,
272 vegetarian, vegan or other (which were mostly on a spectrum of non-mainstream preferences
273 such as reducetarian or flexitarian). See **Table 3** for details.

274 **Table 3** Diet preference

Diet preference	n	%
<i>Pescatarian</i>	13	4.0
<i>Vegetarian</i>	19	5.5
<i>Vegan</i>	37	10.8
<i>Other</i>	26	7.8
<i>Do not identify as any of the above</i>	244	71.9

275

276 **3.3. Mental health and wellbeing**

277 As can be seen in **Table 4**, more than half of the participants (56.3%, n=193) reported
278 their overall QoL to be either very good or excellent with a mean score of 2.6 (\pm 1.0) out of 5.
279 The mean score for depression was 9.3 (\pm 6.1) out of 27; the mean score for anxiety was 7.9
280 (\pm 5.8) out of 21. In terms of clinical relevance, 75% (n=254) of students had scores which
281 indicate the need for further evaluation concerning symptoms of depression; for anxiety 65.1%
282 (n=221) had scores indicating need for further evaluation. Of those who scored above 10 points
283 for depression (n=142), 16% (n=23) would likely benefit from psychotherapy and/or medication;
284 for those who scored above 10 points for anxiety (n=110) this proportion is even higher with
285 48% (n=53).

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291 **Table 4** Mental health and wellbeing

Mental health item	Item categories	mean	SD	n	%
<i>QoL continuous (0 to 5)</i>		2.6	1.0		
<i>QoL ordinal</i>	Poor			10	2.8
	Fair			31	9.2
	Good			105	31.1
	very good			138	40.1
	Excellent			55	16.2
<i>Depression score (0 to 27)</i>		9.3	6.1		
<i>Depression severity</i>	no depression			85	25.0
	mild depression [†]			112	32.9
	moderate depression			73	21.7
	moderately severe depression			46	13.6
	severe depression [‡]			23	6.8
<i>Anxiety score (0 to 21)</i>		7.9	5.8		
<i>Anxiety severity</i>	no anxiety			118	34.8
	mild anxiety			111	32.7
	moderate anxiety			57	16.8
	severe anxiety [‡]			53	15.6

292 Abbreviation: QoL, quality of life

293 [†]Cut-off for further evaluation

294 [‡]Psychotherapy and/or medication are indicated

295

296 **3.4. Association between diet and mental health and wellbeing**

297 The unadjusted linear regression analysis shows a significant association between several
 298 variables. The plant food dietary component was positively associated with QoL ($\beta=.20, p\leq.001$).
 299 The junk food component was positively associated with depression ($\beta=.26, p\leq.001$), while the
 300 animal food component and the plant food component were negatively associated with
 301 depression ($\beta=-.07, p\leq.05$ and $\beta=-.10, p\leq.001$, respectively). The junk food component was
 302 further positively associated with anxiety ($\beta=.18, p=.001$) and the animal food component was
 303 negatively associated with anxiety ($\beta=-.09, p\leq.001$). After adjusting for all covariables, the
 304 positive associations between the junk food component and depression and anxiety remain
 305 significant.

306 Model 1 (dietary pattern and QoL): After adjusting for all covariables, statistically
307 significant negative associations were found between Asian ethnicity, stress, and QoL;
308 significant positive associations were found for physical activity, weight satisfaction, and social
309 support with QoL. Social support showed the strongest positive association for QoL ($\beta=.51$
310 increase in QoL score; $p\leq.001$).

311 Model 2 (dietary pattern and depression): After adjusting for all covariables, statistically
312 significant negative associations were found between sleep, weight satisfaction, and social
313 support with depression; a statistically significant positive association was found for stress and
314 the junk food dietary component ($\beta=.21$ increase in depression score; $p\leq.001$; $\Delta\text{adj. } R^2=.04$).

315 Model 3 (dietary pattern and anxiety): After adjusting for all covariables, statistically
316 significant positive associations were found between female gender, stress, stressful life events,
317 and the junk food dietary component ($\beta=.14$ increase in anxiety score; $p=.002$; $\Delta\text{adj. } R^2=.01$)
318 with anxiety. Social support was significantly negatively associated with anxiety.

319 **Table 5** shows the detailed results for the three hierarchical multiple linear regression
320 models that examined the association between dietary patterns and mental wellbeing outcomes
321 controlling for covariables that reflected a biopsychosocial understanding of the relationship.
322 $\Delta\text{adj. } R^2$ for each hierarchical step are reported in the footnotes.

323 Diet preference was not significantly associated with any of the outcome variables.
324 Results are available upon request for these statistically non-significant findings.

325 **Table 5** Unadjusted and adjusted effects of principal component analysis (PCA) diet components on quality of life (QoL), depression,
 326 and anxiety

	Model 1: QoL			Model 2: Depression			Model 3: Anxiety		
	Beta	SE Beta	Standardized Beta (β)	Beta	SE Beta	Standardized Beta (β)	Beta	SE Beta	Standardized Beta (β)
<i>Step 1</i>									
Constant	3.72	0.52	0.08	3.58	3.36	-0.10	3.31	3.15	-0.25
Age	-0.05	0.03	-0.11*	0.26	0.17	0.09	0.16	0.16	0.05
Female gender [†]	0.20	0.12	0.21	-0.10	0.71	-0.02	1.31	0.67	0.23*
Other gender [†]	-0.52	0.42	-0.55	4.57	2.80	0.75	4.68	2.62	0.81
Asian ethnicity [‡]	-0.50	0.11	-0.52**	1.34	0.72	0.22	0.79	0.68	0.14
Other ethnicity [‡]	-0.02	0.16	-0.02	0.73	1.02	0.12	1.40	0.96	0.24
<i>Step 2</i>									
Constant	3.55	0.54	-0.03	5.62	3.13	0.05	0.85	3.00	-0.12
Age	-0.03	0.03	-0.07	0.08	0.14	0.03	0.02	0.14	0.01
Female gender [†]	0.26	0.10	0.27*	-0.84	0.60	-0.14	0.63	0.58	0.11
Other gender [†]	-0.11	0.40	-0.11	1.10	2.36	0.18	1.49	2.26	0.26
Asian ethnicity [‡]	-0.40	0.10	-0.41**	0.56	0.62	0.09	0.35	0.60	0.06
Other ethnicity [‡]	0.07	0.14	0.07	0.04	0.86	0.01	0.76	0.82	0.13
Sleep	0.04	0.02	0.09	-0.58	0.15	-0.20**	-0.32	0.14	-0.12*
Physical activity	0.07	0.02	0.14*	-0.36	0.15	-0.12*	-0.19	0.14	-0.07
Stress	-0.30	0.06	-0.27**	2.16	0.34	0.31**	2.55	0.33	0.39**
Stressful life events	0.02	0.07	0.02	0.72	0.40	0.09	1.02	0.39	0.13*
Weight satisfaction	0.11	0.04	0.12*	-1.15	0.27	-0.20**	-0.54	0.26	-0.10*
<i>Step 3</i>									
Constant	1.74	0.48	0.06	10.54	3.24	0.01	4.43	3.13	-0.15
Age	-0.01	0.02	-0.01	-0.01	0.14	-0.01	-0.04	0.14	-0.02
Female gender [†]	0.06	0.09	0.06	-0.30	0.60	-0.05	1.02	0.58	0.18
Other gender [†]	-0.22	0.33	-0.23	1.40	2.30	0.23	1.70	2.23	0.30
Asian ethnicity [‡]	-0.28	0.09	-0.30*	0.26	0.60	0.04	0.13	0.59	0.02
Other ethnicity [‡]	0.11	0.12	0.11	-0.06	0.83	-0.01	0.69	0.81	0.12
Sleep	0.01	0.02	0.03	-0.50	0.14	-0.17**	-0.19	0.14	-0.09
Physical activity	0.06	0.02	0.13*	-0.35	0.14	-0.11*	-0.19	0.14	-0.07
Stress	-0.17	0.05	-0.16**	1.84	0.34	0.27**	2.31	0.33	0.36**
Stressful life events	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.65	0.39	0.08	0.96	0.38	0.13*
Weight satisfaction	0.09	0.04	0.10*	-1.10	0.26	-0.19**	-0.50	0.26	-0.10*

	Model 1: QoL			Model 2: Depression			Model 3: Anxiety		
	Beta	SE Beta	Standardized Beta (β)	Beta	SE Beta	Standardized Beta (β)	Beta	SE Beta	Standardized Beta (β)
Social support	0.46	0.04	0.51**	-1.26	0.28	-0.22**	-0.92	0.27	-0.17**
<i>Step 4</i>									
Constant	1.77	0.49	0.07	10.30	3.22	-0.02	4.20	3.15	-0.17
Age	-0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.01	0.14	0.01	-0.04	0.14	-0.01
Female gender[†]	0.04	0.10	0.04	-0.02	0.63	-0.01	1.28	0.62	0.22*
Other gender[†]	-0.23	0.34	-0.24	1.41	2.26	0.23	1.73	2.22	0.30
Asian ethnicity[‡]	-0.28	0.09	-0.29*	0.23	0.60	0.04	0.08	0.60	0.01
Other ethnicity[‡]	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.02	0.82	0.01	0.72	0.80	0.12
Sleep	0.01	0.02	0.02	-0.49	0.14	-0.17**	-0.25	0.14	-0.09
Physical activity	0.06	0.02	0.12*	-0.25	0.15	-0.08	-0.10	0.15	-0.04
Stress	-0.17	0.05	-0.16**	1.82	0.33	0.27**	2.30	0.33	0.36**
Stressful life events	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.42	0.38	0.05	0.81	0.39	0.11*
Weight satisfaction	0.09	0.04	0.10*	-0.96	0.26	-0.17**	-0.42	0.25	-0.08
Social support	0.46	0.04	0.51**	-1.36	0.28	-0.23**	-0.97	0.27	-0.18**
PCA plant foods	0.04	0.04	0.05	-0.07	0.30	-0.01	-0.19	0.29	-0.03
PCA animal foods	0.01	0.04	0.01	-0.15	0.28	-0.02	-0.14	0.28	-0.02
PCA junk foods	-0.01	0.04	-0.01	1.26	0.27	0.21**	0.83	0.27	0.14*

327 [†]Reference category: Male gender

328 [‡]Reference category: Caucasian ethnicity

329 * $p \leq 0.05$

330 ** $p \leq 0.001$.

331 Note Model 1: Adjusted $R^2 = .08$ for Step 1; Δ adj $R^2 = .13$ for Step 2; Δ adj $R^2 = .23$ for Step 3; Δ adj $R^2 = .00$ for Step 4

332 Note Model 2: Adjusted $R^2 = .01$ for Step 1; Δ adj $R^2 = .30$ for Step 2; Δ adj $R^2 = .04$ for Step 3; Δ adj $R^2 = .04$ for Step 4

333 Note Model 3: Adjusted $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1; Δ adj $R^2 = .27$ for Step 2; Δ adj $R^2 = .02$ for Step 3; Δ adj $R^2 = .01$ for Step 4

334 **4. Discussion**

335

336 **4.1. Interpretation**

337 The final adjusted regression models show that the junk food component score was
338 positively associated with depression and anxiety while there were no significant associations
339 between the plant food or the animal food component and any of the mental health outcomes.
340 While the additional variance explained by the dietary component (junk food) with regard to the
341 mental health outcomes seems small (Δ adjusted R^2 for the model with depression as outcome =
342 .04 and = .01 for the model with anxiety as outcome, respectively), the magnitude of the
343 standardized regression coefficient is comparable to other covariates in the model that are known
344 to be strongly associated with mental health outcomes (e.g., social support). There are two
345 possible explanations for this. In line with the understanding that mental health and diet exist
346 within a biopsychosocial framework, food intake contributes to a complex network of variables
347 that reduce or enhance the risk for adverse mental health outcomes such as social support and
348 relationships. Second, it has been found that self-reported dietary data typically leads to an
349 underestimation of associations [58]. The possibility of underestimation of the association is
350 therefore likely in this study which would mean that the true effect size may be larger. The non-
351 significant trend in the expected direction for the association of the plant food component with
352 mental health outcomes after adjusting for the covariables in this study should thus be interpreted
353 as inconclusive and needs further exploration.

354 By adjusting for important confounders which have not previously been included in
355 studies of mental health and diet, this present study corroborates the finding that ‘unhealthy’
356 dietary patterns are associated with depression and anxiety [34,59,60]. One possible causal

357 pathway through which unhealthy foods such as processed (i.e., “foods that are altered to add or
358 introduce substances that substantially change their nature or use”) and ultra-processed foods
359 (i.e., “industrial formulations, usually made mainly or solely from industrial ingredients, which
360 contain little or no whole food”) [61] may negatively impact mental health is that of
361 inflammatory reactions and oxidative stress [62,63]. Interestingly, in this study, processed plant-
362 based foods such as meat replacements did not load strongly on the junk food component but
363 actually showed high component loadings in the plant food component. However, future research
364 is needed to understand whether these foods reflect healthier dietary patterns, particularly given
365 the rise of consumer demand for plant-based processed foods. For example, the development and
366 application of a dietary screening measure that captures these foods in more detail may render a
367 better understanding of these emerging dietary patterns.

368 The prevalence of clinically-relevant levels of depression and anxiety is high in this
369 sample of 339 undergraduate students. These prevalence rates are in line with findings from
370 previous research on the mental health of students indicating that the prevalence of mental health
371 issues is higher among university students than in the general population [12,64]. There are
372 several hypotheses why this may be the case. The typical age-of-onset of many psychiatric
373 disorders overlaps with entry into university [11]; and the transition into university presents a
374 stressful life event which is accompanied by homesickness, potentially social isolation, financial
375 burden and pressure, and stress – all of which are risk factors for the development of depression
376 and anxiety [65].

377 Conversely, more than half of the participants also report their overall QoL to be either
378 very good or excellent. While this may at first seem counterintuitive, this is actually in line with
379 the concept of QoL being a measure of a full continuum of (mental) wellbeing wherein the

380 presence of symptoms of a disorder such as depression and anxiety merely present one
381 dimension. It has been found, for example, that factors such as self-esteem or social support
382 mitigate the role of depressive symptoms on QoL [66]. Fahy et al. also found that the strongest
383 predictors for QoL in people with severe mental illness were unmet basic, social, and functional
384 needs (in combination with symptom severity)[67]. Thus, assessing QoL in addition to screening
385 for depression and anxiety provides a more complete picture of mental wellbeing and its
386 associated factors in this study.

387 The possibility of reverse causality is another important consideration that researchers
388 have identified [30] with one prospective cohort study providing probable evidence for reverse
389 causality between depression and a healthy diet pattern [68]. Because dietary changes are
390 perceived as a means to shape health, it can be hypothesized that a change in dietary behaviour
391 could follow the onset of mental health issues as a form of ‘self-medication’. Conversely, the
392 ‘self-medication’ may also take on the form of an unhealthy diet consistent of foods high in
393 sugar and fat to feel instant gratification [69].

394

395 **4.2. Strengths and limitations**

396 This study utilizes a biopsychosocial conceptual understanding of the relationship
397 between exposure and outcome and the inclusion of confounding variables that goes beyond a
398 narrow biomedical approach. The present study builds on previous studies on this topic.
399 Nevertheless, in order to eliminate temporal ambiguity, confounding, and response biases, more
400 sophisticated study designs are needed in future investigations.

401 The relatively small sample size and the associated lack of power means that some effects
402 of the explanatory variables may have remained uncovered in this study and that an

403 underestimation for these effects was likely present. This may have been amplified by the
404 finding that self-reported data on diet typically leads to an underestimation of associations [58].

405 In this present study, all participants were undergraduate students. The external validity
406 of this study beyond the student population is thus limited as university students differ from their
407 non-student peers and the general population in several characteristics, e.g., in terms of
408 socioeconomic backgrounds, lifestyle behaviours, or substance use [70,71]. In relation to the
409 general population of undergraduates at the university, this sample was, however, fairly
410 representative as its sociodemographic composition was comparable with that of the overall
411 undergraduate student population. It is also important to note that across the continuum of
412 depressive and anxiety symptoms, eating behaviours may differ (e.g., individuals with major
413 depressive disorder often suffer from very reduced appetite and their overall food intake may be
414 severely decreased). Thus, the findings of this study may not apply to individuals suffering from
415 major depressive and anxiety disorders as this study was not conducted on a clinical sample.

416 All collected information was exclusively self-reported which introduces non-response,
417 reporting, and recall biases. In this study, the primary interest was to assess diet patterns rather
418 than exact nutrient intake. Self-reported diet data have been deemed adequate and superior to
419 non-self-reported measures such as biomarkers especially when analyzing diet patterns as they
420 provide more complete information on the composition of the overall diet [58]. Given that
421 dietary screeners are less burdensome on participants than methods like repeated 24-hr recalls
422 while still providing sufficient information on food intake, we chose to use the DSQ as measure
423 for diet [48]. Its limitations include that it does not allow for conclusions about the actual amount
424 of food intake nor does it capture the full range of foods in one's diet. To mitigate the
425 subjectivity and biased information from self-reported mental health issues, this study included

426 validated screening instruments (one-item QoL scale, PHQ-9, GAD-7). While answers are still
427 self-reported, these measures have been extensively validated.

428 It is also important to note that the different measures in this study assessed variables
429 with different time frames. More specifically, the DSQ asked about food intake within the past
430 30 months whereas the PHQ-9 and GAD-7 assessed symptoms in the past two weeks. Other
431 items evaluating covariables did not consider a specific time frame. Hence, based on the time-
432 frames of the measures and the cross-sectional study design, inferences can only be made about
433 the prevalence of the exposures and the outcomes and their degree of association at one point in
434 time.

435

436 **4.3. Conclusions and future directions**

437 We show that plant foods are positively associated with mental health outcomes but this
438 association is attenuated after adjusting for other variables in our biopsychosocial model. We
439 further found no relationship between categories of certain diet preferences such as vegetarian or
440 vegan and mental health. These findings support approaches in nutritional epidemiology that
441 employ dietary pattern analyses. By taking a more sophisticated approach to covariate selection
442 and dietary assessment, our findings add to the evidence that contrasts a widely accepted, albeit
443 outdated, perception of vegetarians and vegans as unhealthy individuals at risk for nutrient
444 deficiency [72,73]. This study provides a preliminary indication that the ‘win-win’ situation for
445 planetary and somatic health of predominantly plant-based diets is not a ‘win-win-lose’ situation
446 for mental health. Further research will be needed to confirm or refute this finding and would
447 benefit from the inclusion of socioeconomic and cultural determinants as additional covariates of
448 interest. For example, the issue of food security greatly impacts one’s ability to access healthy

449 foods and has been associated with major depressive disorder in US women [74]. In addition, the
450 ability to procure culturally-appropriate foods, which has been nearly eliminated by a colonial
451 food system, is an issue of great extent for Indigenous communities and food traditions across
452 the globe. How this may interact with mental health is of great importance and has been
453 neglected in the public health literature at this point. Moreover, most of the studies on this topic
454 have thus far have been conducted in North America, Europe, or Australia. Insights from
455 countries and cultures other than Western nations would be helpful in understanding cross-
456 cultural differences. Integrating research from social sciences, community action and
457 participatory research, and findings from qualitative studies would also play a pivotal role in
458 understanding the complex relationships under investigation.

459

460

461

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469

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