

Journal of **Nutrition and Food Security**

Shahid Sadoughi University of Medical Sciences School of Public Health Department of Nutrition Nutrition & Food Security Research Center



eISSN: 2476-7425 pISSN: 2476-7417 JNFS 2020; 5(2): 178-186 Website: jnfs.ssu.ac.ir

The Healthy Eating Index 2005 among 13-17 Year-Old Students in Iran

Khadijeh Yaghoobloo; MSc¹, Leila Azadbakhat; PhD², Mojgan Nourian; PhD *3 & Behzad Mahaki; PhD⁴

¹ School of Nutrition and Food Sciences, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.

ARTICLE INFO

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Article history:

Received: 17 Jan 2019 Revised: 18 May 2019 Accepted: 20 Jun 2019

 $*Corresponding\ author$

nourian@hlth.mui.ac.ir
Department of
Community Nutrition,
School of Nutrition and
Food Sciences, Isfahan
University of Medical
Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.

Postal code: 8174673461 **Tel**: +98 9133288088

ABSTRACT

Background: Quality of diet is one of the most important factors in maintaining and improving the children's health; whereas, the quality of children's diet has not been studied in Isfahan City of Iran. This study was conducted to assess the adequacy of diet using healthy eating index (HEI)-2005 among 13-17 year-old students in Isfahan during 2014. **Methods:** The empirical data on dietary intakes were collected after three-days of food record. Later, a valid and reliable standard questionnaire was administered to measure the participants' physical activities. The participants' dietary intakes, daily energy, and nutrients were recorded by four researchers and were analyzed using SPSS 22by running ANOVA and Tukey tests. **Results:** The mean score of HEI in adolescents was 67.72. The correlation of calorie intake and mother's career with the HEI score was statistically significant (P < 0.05). **Conclusion:** Adults taking care of adolescents are recommended to improve the quality of diet among teenagers. They should also apply relevant methods to correct the adolescents' nutritional habits.

Keywords: Healthy eating index; Healthy diet; Adolescence; Daily diet modification; Nutritional status

Introduction

Inappropriate nutrition can contribute to the development of non-epidemic diseases. According to the literature, certain dietary patterns form 4, of 10, causes of death (i.e., cardiovascular disease, certain types of cancers, stroke, and type 2 diabetes). Healthy diets have been proved to reduce the risk factors of non-epidemic diseases such as obesity, hypertension, and hypercholesterolemia (Lake *et al.*, 2006). Several studies pointed out the effect of improper eating habits and inappropriate

food models in incidence of obesity and overweight mortality. Today, the prevalence of obesity and weight-related problems are frequently reported in adolescents (Hann *et al.*, 2001). Given that most nutritional habits get form during the adolescence period, inappropriate food habits continue to the adulthood (Lake *et al.*, 2006).

Unfortunately, a considerable number of adolescents follow diets that are not in line with nutritional recommendations; these nutritional

This paper should be cited as: Yaghoobloo Kh, Azadbakhat L, Nourian M, Mahaki B. The Healthy Eating Index 2005 among 13-17 Year-old Students in Iran. Journal of Nutrition and Food Security (JNFS), 2020; 5 (2): 178-186.

² Food Security Research Center, Department of Community Nutrition, School of Nutrition and Food Science, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.

³ Department of Community Nutrition, School of Nutrition and Food Sciences, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.

⁴Department of Biostatistics and Epidemiology, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.

habits can transmit to the adulthood, so that they would significantly influence the health condition of their future families and children (Katz, 2014). Adolescence is characterized by changing attitudes, personality development, independence, and social acceptance; so it is expected to have a potential impact on nutrition (Vaughn, 1996). Epidemiological studies over the relationship of diet with non-epidemic diseases have mostly addressed the role of taking just one nutrient in developing a disease. However, most foods contain numerous nutrients, so that taking a certain nutrient is associated with consumption of other nutrients. To address this challenge, some scholars have changed their attitude from the relationship between a nutrient and the risk of a disease towards the association of a dietary pattern with the risk of a disease development (Wirt and Collins, 2009).

Food guidelines are designed to improve the individuals' health status, reduce the risk of non-epidemic diseases, and to balance the food pyramid that directs people about food intake strategies. Among these strategies, the Healthy Eating Index (HEI), designed in 1995, was the first effort to assess the overall quality of ary compliance diet through food guidelines and food pyramid (McCullough et al., 2000). The recent HEI-2005, containing some modifications and improvements, was released to meet the increasing emphasis on diverse aspects of the diet quality such as whole grains, varieties of vegetables, specific types of fats, and introduction of the new concept of excess calories (Guenther et al., 2013).

Torres et al. (Torres *et al.*, 2014) concentrated on the relationship between socio-environmental factors and the quality of a weight gain diet on 114 participants with 12 years of age. This study, carried out using a 24-hour recall, revealed that 75% of those with a normal weight compared to 57.5% of those with overweight or obesity were more likely to consume homemade foods. Most participants of this study had a normal weight, but suffered from a poor quality diet, so that 55% of the individuals with poor diet and 45% of the

remaining participants needed to change their diets.

AssumpçãoI et al. (Assumpção et al., 2012) carried out a research on Brazilian people (205 girls and 204 boys with 12-19 years old) using a 24-hour recall to measure the overall quality and adequacy of the diet components based on demographic, socio-economic, and body mass information data. In their study, the average HEI score for adolescents was reported as 59.7 (58.59 and 60.5 for girls and boys, respectively). In this regard, scores lower than 5 were obtained for fruits, milk, and dairy, while scores of higher than 8 were achieved for meat and eggs. The rest dietary patterns obtained a score between 5 and 8. The limitations of this research suggested a crosssectional study and application of a self-reporting information questionnaire for measuring participants' height and weight. Considering the above-mentioned issues, authors determine the quality of diet based on the HEI -2005 among 13-14 years old students in Isfahan city in 2014.

Materials and Methods

Study design and participants: This crosssectional descriptive-analytic study was conducted on 326 schoolchildren within the age range of 13-17 years in Isfahan selected by multi-stage (cluster) method. In this regard, the city regions were classified as levels, schools as clusters, and classes in each school as a class. The inclusion criteria were being in the age range of 13 to 17 years, having agreement to participate in the study, having no disease and intake of dietary supplements or certain drugs, and no following a particular diet. The exclusion criteria included being on a specific diet during implementation of the study. Moreover, participants or parents who lacked consent to participate in the study were removed. Children's parents were fully informed about the study objectives and methods. Adolescents and their parents were also required to sign an informed consent and Fill the demographic information questionnaire (containing age, gender, education, medical and pharmaceutical history).

Measurements: A three-day dietary questionnaire record was applied to assess the dietary intake. The participants were asked to record all foods and drinks consumed by adolescents for 3 days (two working days and one weekend). To familiarize students with the correct recording method, video tutorials including the food album were utilized to exemplify sizes of the estimated food portions they consumed along with the meal recording sample. In order to ensure that the food is properly recorded, the information entered by students was checked in a registration sheet indicating whether the required information was fulfilled or not. Mothers were also supposed to help the researchers in the case that the adolescents filled the registration form task less accurately. Eventually, the gathered data from this questionnaire were analyzed by four nutritionists in terms of nutrition, dietary intake, and nutrient intakes.

The HEIs were classified into three categories of "good diet", "need satisfaction", and "poor diet". The HEI-2005 encompasses 12 items, including fruits, whole fruits, vegetables, dark green and orange vegetables as well as legumes, total grains, whole grains, milk (dairy and soy drinks), meat (poultry, fish, eggs, soy products, cereals and seeds), oils (non-hydrogenated vegetable oils, fish oil and nuts and seeds), saturated fat, sodium and calories from solid fats, alcoholic beverages, and added sugars. More consumption of the first nine above-mentioned nutrients increased the responsdents' score, while lower intake of the latter three nutrients leads to a relatively higher score (Bowman *et al.*, 2008).

In order to determine the measurement units in the USDA's new pyramid, a regular glass was applied for groups of vegetables, fruits, and milk, while ounces (equivalent to 30 grams) were considered for grains and meat groups. Furthermore, the foods were categorized into food groups and the equivalent of each foodstuff group was obtained for each person (Bowman *et al.*, 2008). Given the energy level of each participant, the next step was calculating the amount of received energy in each group of food per 1000 kcal. The final scoring method was done as follow:

1. Fruits (whole fruit and juice): more than or equal to 0.8th equivalent glasses per 1000 kcal intake

- = 5 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake values were divided by 0.8 and then multiplied by 5 to calculate the fruit's score.
- 2. Whole Fruits: More than or equal to 0.4th equivalent glasses per 1000 kcal intake = 5 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake amounts were divided by 0.4 and then multiplied by 5 to give total fruits score.
- 3. Grains (whole and refined grains): more than or equal to 3 equivalent of ounces per 1000 kcal = 5 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake amounts were divided by 3 and then multiplied by 5 to calculate the grains score.
- 4. Whole grains: more than or equal to 1.5 equivalent of ounces per 1000 kcal intake = 5 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake values were divided by 1.5 and then multiplied by 5 to calculate the total grains score.
- 5. Milk (i.e., all dairy products): more than or equal to 1.3 equivalents of glasses per 1000 kcal intake = 10 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake values were divided by 1/3 and then multiplied by 10 to calculate the milk score.
- 6. Meat and beans: more than or equal to 2.5 equivalent of ounces per one thousand kcal intake = 10 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake values were divided by 2.5 and then multiplied by 10 to calculate meat and beans scores. This section of the HEI -2005 includes four subcategories: 1. Red meat, poultry and fish; 2. Eggs; 3. Peanuts and seeds; 4. Soybean products. Note that the subgroup of beans is located into the meat and beans category in addition to the fourth sub-groups.
- 7. Vegetables (all types of vegetables and legumes): more than or equal to 1/1 equivalents of glasses per 1000 kcal intake = 5 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake values were divided by 1/1 and then multiplied by 5 to calculate the vegetables score.
- 8. Dark green and orange vegetables, and legumes: more than or equal to 0.4 equivalent of glasses per 1000 kcal intake = 5 points, not intake = zero points. Otherwise, the intake values were divided by 0.4 and then multiplied by 5 to score these points.

9- Vegetable oils: More than or equal to 12 grams per 1000 kcal intake = 10 points, not intake = zero points, otherwise the intake quantities were divided by 12, and then multiplied by 10, to calculate the oils score.

10. Saturated fat: Less than or equal to 7% of the intake energy = 10 points, more than or equal to 15% of the intake energy = zero points, 10% of the intake energy = 8 points. If the percentage of intake values was greater than 10 and less than 15 percent, it was calculated by the following equation: = (5/(10- saturated fat)*(8) - 8, and if the percentage was greater than 7 and less than 10%, it was calculated using this equation: = (3.7- intake saturated fat)*(2) - 10.

11. Sodium: To calculate the sodium within diet, the amounts of sodium in the diet (by four nutritionists) and sodium table were evaluated in this way: Less than or equal to 0.7 grams per 1000 kilocalories = 10 points, greater than or equal to 2 grams per 1,000 kilocalories = zero points and equal to 1.1 grams per 1,000 kcal = 8 points. If the intake was more than 0.7 and less than 1.1, then the sodium score = (0.4 / (0.7 - intake sodium) * 2) - 10, and if the intake was more than 1.1 and less than 2, the sodium score = (0.9)/(1/1 - intake sodium) * 8) - 10.

12. Intake calories of solid fat, alcoholic beverages, and added sugar (SoFAAS): Less than or equal to 20 percent of calories intake = 20 points, more than or equal to 50% of the intake calories = zero; otherwise, the values will be calculated from this equation, Calorie Score of SoFAAS = (30 / (20% Calories of SoFAAS) * 20) - 20.

Measuring the participants' weight, height, and abdominal variables were performed by a trained person to ensure more accuracy. The standard and validity of the questionnaire were confirmed by Faghihimani et al. (Faghihimani et al., 2010) in a study that was basically designed for the 14-19 year-old group to measure adolescents physical activities (A-PAQ)(Tardivo et al., 2010).

Data analysis: The data were recorded, tabled as descriptive statistics, and finally analyzed by SPSS software through ANOVA and Tuckey tests at a significant level of 0.05.

Results

Table 1 illustrates the demographic and anthropometric characteristic of the students. The total average score of HEI was 67.72; for boys and girls, the HEI was 72.84 and 72.52, respectively. Based on the results, none of the variables such as age, weight, abdominal circumference, body mass index (BMI), and calorie intake in HEI categories differed significantly (P < 0.05). The relevant percentage of people in different category of HEI is given in **Table 2**. Accordding to the findings, mother's job and participants' calorie intake had a statistically significant relationship with HEI (**Table 3**).

Table 4 provides the dietary intake of participants according to different categories of HEI. Their consumption amounts of whole fruits, whole vegetable, dark green and orange vegetables, and legumes, whole grains, and meat in "good diet" category were significantly higher than those of "need satisfaction" and "poor diet" categories (P = 0.01). Sodium and saturated fatty acids were significantly lower in "good diet" category compared to other categories (P = 0.01). However, no correlation was found between intake of total grain, dairy, oils, and SoFAAS with HEI category.

Table 1. Demographic and anthropometric characteristics of participants

Variables	Poor diet (n=107)	Need imrovment (n=109)	Good diet (n=110)	P-value ^b
Age (year)	14.44 ± 1.55^{a}	14.47 ± 1.48	14.70 ± 1.56	0.40
Weight (kg)	57.01 ± 14.50	55.16 ± 11.44	57.17 ± 12.94	0.50
Abdominal circumference (cm)	75.59 ± 10.12	74.37 ± 8.33	75.90 ± 8.92	0.74
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	21.44 ± 4.67	20.68 ± 3.40	24.46 ± 3.88	0.42
Energy intake (kcal)	2185.51 ± 643.92	2173.10 ± 659.44	2191.27 ± 703.45	0.95

^a: Mean ± SD; b: ANOVA test

Table 2. Descriptive indicators of adolescents in different groups of HEI

Variables	levels	Poor diet N(%)	Need imrovment N(%)	Good diet N(%)	Total N(%)
Father's education	Illiteracy	3(25.0)	6(50.0)	3(25.0)	12(4.0)
	Elementary, Cycle	30(33.3)	31(34.4)	29(32.2)	90(27.6)
	Diploma	45(36.0)	43(34.0)	38(30.0)	126(38.5)
	Bachelor, Master	32(33.3)	30(31.2)	34(35.4)	96(29.3)
	P.H.D	-	1(50.0)	1(50.0)	2(0.6)
Mother's education	Illiteracy	8(40.0)	5(25.0)	7(35.0)	20(6.1)
	Elementary, Cycle	30(31.0)	38(38.0)	30(31.0)	99(30.4)
	Diploma	45(34.0)	42(32.0)	47(34.0)	131(40.2)
	Bachelor, Master	29(39.1)	25(33.8)	20(27.0)	74(22.7)
Father's job	Freelancer	49(35.3)	48(34.5)	42(30.1)	139(42.6)
v	Employee	31(30.0)	36(35.0)	36(35.0)	103(31.6)
	Retired	14(32.0)	14(32.0)	16(36.0)	44(13.4)
	Others	17(42.5)	10(25.0)	13(32.5)	40(12.4)
Mother's job	Housewife	83(33.0)	80(32.2)	86(34.7)	249(76.3)
· ·	Employee	14(33.3)	18(42.8)	10(23.8)	42(12.9)
	Retired	1(14.3)	3(43.0)	3(43.0)	7(2.1)
	Freelancer	13(46.4)	7(25.0)	8(28.6)	28(8.6)

Table 3. Logistic regression test results in related factors of HEI

Variables		Regression coefficient	SE	Standardized regression coefficient	P-value
Age (year)		-•.•Y	۲٫۳۱	٠.٠٥	٠.٩٧
Sex		-•.٢٩	1. • 1	-•.•Y	•. ٧٧
Abdominal circumference (cm)		٠.۶٣	4.70	• . • 1	٠.٨٧
Weight status	Obesity	-	-	-	-
•	Normal	٠.٤٣	٣.٥٦	-•.• ٢	٠.٩٠
	Overweight	-1.79	٣.٥٦	-•.•٩	٠.٦١
Energy intake (kcal)	high	-	-	-	-
	low	- ٤	1.10	٠٠.٢٣	< 0.001
	moderate	-1.57	1.71	-·.· A	0.27
Father's education	P.H.D	-	-	-	-
	illiteracy	٣.٢٣	٣.٧٩	-•.•Y	0.39
	Elementary, cycle	_٣	7.18	٠.١٦	·.16
	Diploma	۲۲٫۲-	1.97	-•.1٣	0.24
	Bachelor,MA	٠.٤٠	1.99	-·.· ۲	0.84
Mother's education	Bachelor,MA	-	-	-	-
	Illiteracy	7.72	۳.۱۰	·.•Y	0.45
	Elementary, cycle	۲.۸۰	1. 49	•.17	0.12
	Diploma	۲۸.۱	1.08	•.11	0.22
Father's job	Others	-	-	-	-
· ·	Free	7. 21	1.07	.10	0.10
	Employee	7.07	1.79	• . 1 £	0.14
	Retired	٣.١٩	1.92	0.13	0.09
Mother's job	Others	-	-	-	-
	housewife	٦.٥٦	2.27	0.34	< 0.004
	Free	٢٨.٥	3.15	0.14	0.06
	Employee	0.01	2.69	0.22	< 0.04
	Retired	٨.9٣	3.92	0.16	< 0.02

Table 4. The results of ANOVA test (mean±SD) were used to compare the components of healthy nutrition index

Variables (g)	Poor diet n=107	Need improvement n=109	Good diet n=110	P-value
Total fruits	95.09±84.83	152.58±104.39	172.56±93.88	<•.••
Whole fruits	75.83±78.46	129.99±86.54	153.96±91.59	<1
Total vegetables	$\wedge \cdot . \Delta \hat{\tau} \pm \Delta \hat{\tau} . \Delta \wedge$	103.27 ± 69.85	146.32±96.28	<1
Dark green and orange vegetables, and legumes	36.19±44.10	45.88±44.39	82.06±67.07	<1
Total grains	245.86±102.14	264.02 ± 121.88	271.30±120.99	•. 4
Whole grains	10.38 ± 27.27	13.96 ± 24.59	24.77 ± 32.22	<1
Diary	218.20±131.11	218.53±132.82	256.49±139.78	0.02
Meat	67.80±32.42	80.79 ± 29.61	85.71 ± 40.76	<1
Oil	17.22 ± 8.39	17.58±7.37	16.56±6.94	•. ٣۶
SoFAAS ^a	21.97±10.30	20.18±5.16	20.53 ± 4.35	٠.٧۴
Sodium	2.13\±.··	1.79±0.9Y	1.30±0. ⋅ ^ç	<1
Saturated fat	10.96±13.45	8.39 ± 0.08	7.74 ± 0.03	<1

a: intake calories of Solid Fat, Alcoholic beverages and Add Sugar

Discussion

The results of this study made a contribution in quantifying the average HEI of the target group (72.67) and suggested the participants' diet modification. However, our findings contradict with some results fromprevious studies. For instance, the results reported by Azizi et al. (Mirmiran *et al.*, 2004) on 10-18 years old students in Tehran indicated a lower average for HEI. A research on students aged 14-18 years old in Ankara by Acar Tek et al. (Acar Tek *et al.*, 2011) showed a considerably lower average of HEI, which may be a result of their higher consumption of dairy, meat, and oil in comparison to the current study.

Based on our findings, HEI in boys and girls did not have a significant difference, which was confirmed by Acar Tek et al. (Acar Tek et al., 2011). Azizi et al. (Mirmiran et al., 2004) found that the HEI for girls aged 10-14 was higher than boys of the same age, but in the 15-18 age range, This ratio was the opposite.

Similar to Azizi et al. (Mirmiran *et al.*, 2004), we found no relationship between the participants' age and HEI; however, in the study by Acar Tek et al., a correlation was observed between the adolescents' age and their HEI (Acar Tek *et al.*, 2011).

The participants' BMI and abdominal circumferences were not significantly associated

with the HEI based on the results of several studies (Asghari and Mirmiran, 2010, Ervin, 2008, Tande et al., 2010), although the rest of studies reported that HEI had a reverse association with **BMI** and abdominal circumference (Aliabadi et al., 2007, Azadbakht et al., 2005, Gao et al., 2008). Based on some review studies, the causes of these conflicting relationships would be the age of participants, study methods, food research methods, different food patterns in different regions, type and structure of food indices, lack of a gold standard for using these indices in different regions, genetic predisposition to obesity, and the uncontrolled interventional variables (Togo et al.,

In this study, the level of calorie intake was significantly correlated with the HEI, so that in higher scored items within the HEI, the calorie intake was relatively lower, which is consistent with other studies (Acar Tek *et al.*, 2011, Hurley *et al.*, 2008). On the other hand, the positive or negative correlation between energy intake and the HEI score could be related to the methods of assessing quality of the diet- the original HEI or HEI 2005- due to their varied components.

The study by Acar Tek et al. (Acar Tek et al., 2011), found no positive and significant correlation between parent education and HEI. Additionally,

AssumpçãoI et al. (Assumpção et al., 2012) studied 409 adolescents aged 12-19 years in Sao Paulo and implied that the quality of a diet enhanced based on the level of the household head education (from diploma to academic degrees). This is believed to be a result of the prevailing social conditions among adolescence for food options without getting help from parents.

In contrast to father's job, a positive and significant relationship was observed between mother's career and HEI, which can be explained by the high levels of nutritional information and higher contribution in family income by mothers active in the community.

In the present study, the mean score of whole fruits, vegetables, dark green and orange vegetables, as well as legumes' intake was lower than some other studies (Aghanuri et al., 2012, Perkins, 2010). Although the WHO recommends at least 400 grams per day of fruits and vegetables (3), our finding gained a lower amount of fruits and vegetables in adolescents compared to this level. Iran is a rich country in affording fruits and vegetables, but consumption of these foods is extremely lesser than the international recommended level. Perhaps this is the reason of high consumption of fast foods containing high amounts of carbohydrates and lipids by adolescents. Although the mean score of dairy intake was quite high in the research by Acar et al. (Acar Tek et al., 2011), it was smaller than other published studies (Aghanuri et al., 2012, Perkins, 2010).

In this regard, the participants' age, caring and benefiting from enough training regarding dairy consumption, and role of dairy products in building bone density and decreasing the risk of osteoporosis are of great importance (Fisberg *et al.*, 2006).

The average score of oil intake was higher than most studies (Acar Tek *et al.*, 2011, Aghanuri *et al.*, 2012, Perkins, 2010). Moreover, the average score of whole grains' consumption was lower in some studies (Perkins, 2010) and higher in others (Acar Tek *et al.*, 2011, Aghanuri *et al.*, 2012). Taste, texture, appearance, and availability were among the factors that could affect the total grain

consumption. Consumption of total grains on the basis of recommended levels protects us from chronic diseases and contributes to keeping the weight. Increased consumption of whole grains, improves the diet quality in the HEI -2005 (O'Neil *et al.*, 2011). However, in general, consumption of whole grains is low among children and adolescents (Harnack *et al.*, 2003, Larson *et al.*, 2010).

The average intake of sodium and saturated fatty acids was high in some studies (Acar Tek et al., 2011, Perkins, 2010) and less in one study (Aghanuri et al., 2012) among adolescents. Our participants' levels of meat and bean consumption were higher than other studies (Acar Tek et al., 2011, Aghanuri et al., 2012, Perkins, 2010), which could be due to the participants' age as an essential factor in the growth stages. However, enough attention was not paid to add up vegetables into diets. The SoFAAS score in this study was higher than some studies (Aghanuri et al., 2012, Perkins, 2010), but lesser than another (Acar Tek et al., 2011). In general, it should be taken into account that students' daily diet needs to be modified to compensate for the low levels of vegetables, dark green and orange vegetables, legumes, whole grains, dairy products, and high salt intakes.

Limitations of this study were its crosssectional design and adolescents'lack of attention to fill out the food record accurately. Future researchers are suggested to apply a higher statistical society.

The present study was the first study conducted in Iran that examined the quality of diet using the HEI-2005 among students aged 13-17 years through a three-day FFQ to evaluate the dietary intake.

By assessing the diet's adequacy through HEI-2005, this study concluded that most participants were required to modify their diet quality. Therefore, in order to improve the quality of their diet, adolescents' nutritional habits should be corrected by taking measures such as educational programs and public advertisements. Schools are the most suitable places for educating families about the risk of developing chronic illnesses through their diet.

Authors' contributions

Nourian M, Azadbakht L designed and developed this study. Mahaki B analyzed the data. Yaghubloo KH conducted the study, wrote the manuscript, and participated in the data collection. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgments

Thanks are owed to all individuals who participated in this study.

Authors' contributins

Nourian M, Azadbakht L designed and developed this article. Mahaki B analyzing the data. Yaghubloo KH conducted, wrote the manuscript and participated in the data collection. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interest.

References

- **Acar Tek N, et al.** 2011. Evaluation of dietary quality of adolescents using Healthy Eating Index. *Nutrition research and practice.* **5** (4): 322-328.
- **Aghanuri A, Mahmoudi M, Salehi H & Jafarian K** 2012. Elderly Healthy Eating Diet-2005 Index Living in Urban Areas of Irans Markazi Province. *Iranian journal of ageing.* **7 (2)**: 26-35.
- Aliabadi M, Kimiagar M, Mobarhan G & Ilati F 2007. Prevalence of malnutrition and factors related to it in the elderly subjects in Khorasan Razavi province, Iran. *Iranian journal of nutrition sciences & food technology.* **2** (3): 45-56.
- Asghari G & Mirmiran P 2010. Role of diet quality scores in predicting the incidence of cardiovascular risk factors in adult population: Tehran Lipid and Glucose Study (TLGS). dissertation], Tehran: Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences.
- **Assumpção Dd, et al.** 2012. Diet quality among adolescents: a population-based study in

- Campinas, Brazil. *Journal of revista brasileira* de epidemiologia. **15** (3): 605-616.
- Azadbakht L, Mirmiran P, Hosseini F & Azizi F 2005. Diet quality status of most Tehranian adults needs improvement. *Asia Pacific journal of clinical nutrition.* **14 (2)**.
- **Bowman SA, Friday JE & Moshfegh AJ** 2008. MyPyramid equivalents database, 2.0 for USDA survey foods, 2003-2004: Documentation and user guide. US Department of Agriculture.
- **Ervin RB** 2008. Healthy Eating Index scores among adults, 60 years of age and over, by sociodemographic and health characteristics: United States, 1999–2002, Adv Data. pp. 1-16.
- **Faghihimani Z, et al.** 2010. Validation of the Child and Adolescent International physical activity questionnaires in Iranian children and adolescents. *ARYA atherosclerosis*. **5** (4).
- **Fisherg RM, et al.** 2006. Dietary quality and associated factors among adults living in the state of São Paulo, Brazil. *Journal of American dietetic association* **106** (**12**): 2067-2072.
- Gao SK, et al. 2008. Modifications to the Healthy Eating Index and its ability to predict obesity: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis—. *American journal of clinical nutrition.* 88 (1): 64-69.
- Guenther PM, et al. 2013. The Healthy Eating Index-2010 Is a Valid and Reliable Measure of Diet Quality According to the 2010 Dietary Guidelines for Americans1–3. *Journal of nutrition.* **144** (3): 399-407.
- Hann CS, Rock CL, King I & Drewnowski A 2001. Validation of the Healthy Eating Index with use of plasma biomarkers in a clinical sample of women—. *American journal of clinical nutrition.* **74 (4)**: 479-486.
- Harnack L, Walters S-AH & Jacobs Jr DR 2003. Dietary intake and food sources of whole grains among US children and adolescents: data from the 1994-1996 Continuing Survey of Food Intakes by Individuals. *Journal of American dietetic association.* 103 (8): 1015-1019.
- **Hurley KM, et al.** 2008. The healthy eating index and youth healthy eating index are unique, nonredundant measures of diet quality among

- low-income, African American adolescents. *Journal of nutrition.* **139** (2): 359-364.
- **Katz DL** 2014. Nutrition in clinical practice. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Lake AA, Mathers JC, Rugg-Gunn AJ & Adamson AJ 2006. Longitudinal change in food habits between adolescence (11–12 years) and adulthood (32–33 years): the ASH30 Study. *Journal of public health.* 28 (1): 10-16.
- Larson NI, Neumark-Sztainer D, Story M & Burgess-Champoux T 2010. Whole-grain intake correlates among adolescents and young adults: findings from Project EAT. *Journal of American dietetic.* 110 (2): 230-237.
- McCullough ML, et al. 2000. Adherence to the Dietary Guidelines for Americans and risk of major chronic disease in women—. *American journal of clinical nutrition*. **72** (5): 1223-1231.
- Mirmiran P, Azadbakht L & Azizi F 2004. Healthy eating index and its relation with diet quality in Tehrani adolescents: Tehran Lipid and Glucose Study. *Razi journal of medical sciences*. 11 (43): 829-838.
- O'Neil CE, Nicklas TA, Zanovec M, Cho SS & Kleinman R 2011. Consumption of whole grains is associated with improved diet quality and nutrient intake in children and adolescents: the National Health and Nutrition Examination

- Survey 1999–2004. *Public health nutrition*. **14 (2)**: 347-355.
- Perkins AE 2010. The Relationship between Diet Quality and Body Composition in College Women: a Cross-sectional Analysis.
- **Tande DL, Magel R & Strand BN** 2010. Healthy Eating Index and abdominal obesity. *Public health nutrition* **13 (2)**: 208-214.
- **Tardivo AP, et al.** 2010. Associations between healthy eating patterns and indicators of metabolic risk in postmenopausal women. *Nutrition journal.* **9 (1)**: 64.
- **Togo P, Osler M, Sørensen TI & Heitmann B** 2001. Food intake patterns and body mass index in observational studies. *International journal of obesity.* **25** (12): 1741-1751.
- Torres R, Serrano M, Perez CM & Palacios C 2014. Physical environment, diet quality, and body weight in a group of 12-year-old children from four public schools in Puerto Rico. *Puerto Rico health sciences journal.* 33 (1): 14-21.
- **Vaughn I** 1996. Adolescent nutrition: assessment and management. The United State of America: Jones Bartlett Learning.
- Wirt A & Collins CE 2009. Diet quality—what is it and does it matter? *Public health nutrition*. **12** (**12**): 2473-2492.