

1 **Nutrition and health or nutrients and health?**

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21 **Abstract**

22           Diet is an important contributor to human health and public health bodies are issuing  
23 guidelines aimed at favouring healthy food choices. Aim of our paper is to discuss the  
24 aspects underlying the concept of nutrient profiles, i.e. defining levels of energy, some  
25 macronutrients, or salt which should not be exceeded in individual foods, according to the  
26 available evidence, to help understanding to what extent such approach may actually be  
27 useful for improving nutrition and quality of life of European consumers. We list several  
28 pitfalls and oversimplifications of the current approaches to nutrient profiling and of the  
29 dichotomic classification of foods into 'healthy' and 'unhealthy' products. In view of the  
30 current "Facilitating healthier food choices – establishing nutrient profiles" EU initiative, we  
31 believe that further debate among all stakeholders is warranted and must consider all the  
32 limitations outlined in this paper.

33  
34 **Keywords:** nutrient profiles; public health; diet; food; regulations.

35

## 36 **Introduction**

37           The importance of diet in the maintenance of human health is supported by a large  
38 body of evidence: according to the latest results from the ongoing Global Burden of Disease  
39 Study, one in five deaths in the world, mainly from cardiovascular diseases and cancers,  
40 can be attributed to an unhealthy diet (The Global Burden of Disease Diet Collaborators  
41 2019). This is why prevention of diet-related non-communicable diseases has become one  
42 of the main global objectives of health policies, aimed at creating healthy environments and  
43 empowering people to choose healthy foods.

44           Among them, the Farm-to-Fork Strategy is one of the key pillars of the European  
45 Green Deal (Purnhagen et al. 2021; The European Commission 2020), aiming also at  
46 developing a fair, healthy, and environmentally-friendly food system, in turn boosting the  
47 transition to a more sustainable food system. This transition would be difficult to achieve  
48 without a shift in people's diets, considering the current double burden of  
49 malnutrition/overnutrition - with a growing rate of overweight and obesity - and  
50 undernutrition, with million people still suffering from stunting and ~20% of food being  
51 wasted (FUSIONS 2016; National Academies of Sciences 2020).

52           In this context, the European Commission highlights the role that food processors,  
53 food service operators, and retailers can play in contributing to improve consumers' dietary  
54 choices via ameliorating the nutritional characteristics of the food they produce or sell.  
55 Therefore, the European Commission will seek: i) commitments from food companies and  
56 organizations to take concrete actions on health and sustainability of their products, and ii)  
57 opportunities to facilitate the shift to healthier diets and stimulate product reformulation. This  
58 set of strategies includes the setting up of a system of nutrient profiles, to restrict the  
59 promotion of foods high in fat, sugar, and salt, and in perspective to become the reference  
60 for nutritional information to the general population, which should be achieved by Q4 2022.

61 In fact, the development of a nutrient profile model as a common tool for use or adaption by  
62 Member States across Europe (on a voluntary basis and taking into account national  
63 conditions and peculiarities) has since been identified as a key activity in the European Food  
64 and Nutrition Action Plan 2015–2020, for the purposes of restricting the marketing to children  
65 of foods with possible unfavourable nutritional effects (WHO Regional Office for Europe  
66 2014).

67 Whether such strategy can effectively impact not only on consumers' choices, but  
68 also, above all, on their health, is still a matter of debate and should probably undergo a  
69 thorough evaluation process. Interestingly, in 2008 the definition of nutrient profiles has been  
70 addressed by the experts of the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), who critically  
71 evaluated the theoretical bases of the nutrient profile system, concluding that this approach  
72 has a number of inherent weaknesses, which need to be carefully considered (EFSA Panel  
73 on Dietetic Products 2008). The whole proposed system must in any case take in adequate  
74 consideration the large body of evidence which has emerged in recent years about the  
75 impact of nutrition, including both nutrient intake and food consumption, on human health,  
76 without neglecting aspects related to consumer science and public health.

77 Aim of this paper is to discuss the aspects underlying the concept of nutrient profiles  
78 (i.e. defining levels of some macronutrient, energy, or salt which should not be exceeded in  
79 individual foods) (Drewnowski, Amanquah, and Gavin-Smith 2021), according to the  
80 available evidence, to help understanding to what extent such approach may actually be  
81 useful for improving nutrition and quality of life of European consumers.

82

### 83 **The framework: Positive vs. Negative Nutrition**

84 The role of evidence-based information in the communication of food and health  
85 information to the consumer has been recognised by all international organisations which

86 have taken a position on this issue. Even the European Commission Regulation 1924/2006  
87 (The European Parliament 2006), promoting nutrient profiles as a criterion to regulate the  
88 use of nutrition or health claims for food products, clarifies that principles underlying nutrient  
89 profiles should consider scientific evidence relative to the relationship between diet, nutrition  
90 and health as well as dietary recommendations and public health considerations.

91 Such evidence is rapidly evolving, and new concepts to be used as framework of new  
92 recommendations are emerging in recent years.

93 Traditionally, nutrition sciences have focused on the health risks associated with the  
94 consumption of excessive amounts of energy (leading, especially if combined with a  
95 sedentary lifestyle, to overweight and its sequelae such as type 2 diabetes), of fats  
96 (particularly saturated fats that increase plasma cholesterol levels and, hence, the risk of  
97 cardiovascular diseases), and of sodium, the high intake of which may lead to increased  
98 blood pressure and eventually to an increased risk of stroke and other cardiovascular  
99 disorders (The Global Burden of Disease Diet Collaborators 2019).

100 The scientific literature on nutrition and health of the last decade, on the other hand,  
101 strongly supports a different approach based on the priority of promoting the consumption  
102 of favourable nutrients such as vitamins, minerals, and fibre (The Food and Agriculture  
103 Organization of the United Nations 2007 (updated 2018)) and to recommend the  
104 consumption of specific food groups, such as fruit and vegetables (Yip, Chan, and Fielding  
105 2019), wholegrain (Zhang et al. 2018), legumes (Viguioliouk et al. 2019), and nuts (de Souza  
106 et al. 2020), which have been associated with protective and beneficial effects on human  
107 health if included in appropriate dietary patterns, rather than limiting nutrient consumption  
108 with possible adverse effects.

109 This is very relevant, because nutrient profiles and, as a consequence, some of the  
110 most popular labelling systems proposed to provide additional nutritional information on the

111 front-of-pack of food products, are, conversely, based on setting limits aimed at reducing  
112 the intake of such untoward nutrients.

113 High consumption of many of the aforementioned salubrious foods is typical of the  
114 Mediterranean diet (Martini and Bes-Restrollo 2020), which is a plant-based dietary pattern  
115 characterized by high amounts of fruit and vegetables, cereal-based foods (consumed  
116 preferably as wholegrain), with moderate amount of animal foods, and olive oil as the  
117 preferred source of fats (Russo et al. 2021; Visioli et al. 2018). The Mediterranean diet has  
118 been shown to exert the strongest beneficial effect on anthropometric parameters and  
119 cardiometabolic risk factors (Esposito et al. 2015; Dinu et al. 2020) and has been associated  
120 with a reduced risk of overall mortality and of developing several chronic diseases (Bonaccio  
121 et al. 2018; Soltani et al. 2019; Dinu et al. 2021).

122 These beneficial effects can be attributed to the set of foods that is consumed in  
123 adequate amounts - in terms of serving size and frequency of consumption - in this diet and,  
124 in turn, to their manifold components such as fibre, vitamins and minerals, but also to a  
125 plethora of bioactive compounds like (poly)phenols, that positively act through several  
126 mechanisms, including protection from low-grade inflammation (Calder et al. 2017) and  
127 modulation of the gut microbiota (Shortt et al. 2018), further explaining the health benefits  
128 of the Mediterranean diet (Wang et al. 2021).

129 The relationship between a nutrition more focussed on foods to be consumed, rather  
130 than on foods/nutrients to be avoided (for sake of simplicity: “positive nutrition”) and the  
131 Mediterranean diet needs to be discussed in detail. It is, in fact, worth underscoring how the  
132 Mediterranean diet, largely considered by the scientific community as the reference dietary  
133 model because of its manifold actions (Godos et al. 2017), is a specific example of the  
134 prevalence of “positive” (more cereals, more fruit and vegetables, more fish, etc.) on  
135 “negative” messages (less meat, less whole milk and dairy products), none of which

136 concerns individual nutrients (Bach-Faig et al. 2011). Many of the studies assessing the  
137 specific contribution of the various dietary components to the association between the  
138 favourable health effects of the Mediterranean pattern (generally assessed by scoring  
139 systems) (Eleftheriou et al. 2018) have confirmed this hypothesis and concluded that the  
140 final protective effect is determined above all by the consumption of vegetables, fruit,  
141 legumes, nuts, sources of fibre (Mente et al. 2009). The PREDIMED study, a randomized  
142 and controlled primary prevention study conducted in a Spanish cohort and comparing the  
143 effect on cardiovascular mortality of a low-fat diet (control arm) with diets supplemented with  
144 either extra virgin olive oil or nuts (intervention arms), found that, in both intervention arms,  
145 cardiovascular events over time were significantly reduced as compared to the control arm  
146 (Estruch et al. 2018). In short, even if the control diet was characterized by a food pattern  
147 with a lower lipid content, which would imply (according to standard systems that penalize  
148 the fat content of foods) a more favourable nutritional profiling than those included in the two  
149 intervention diets, cardiovascular mortality decreased significantly more in the latter than in  
150 the former (Estruch et al. 2018). These data strongly support the view that the nutritional  
151 characteristics of diet rather than compliance with nutrient profiles dictate their overall health  
152 effects.

153         The increasing evidence about the importance of consuming adequate amounts of  
154 “positive foods” is mirrored by the growing debate about the real effect, on human health, of  
155 reducing individual specific nutrients, namely salt, total and/or saturated fats, or sugars,  
156 which are included in the nutrient profiling systems, of which they actually represent the  
157 theoretical basis.

158         The role of salt, for example, is undergoing an, as yet not completed, process of  
159 critical revision based on the available literature performed by leading and independent  
160 groups of experts (see as an example O'Donnell et al. 2020). A recent Cochrane review

161 (Graudal, Hubeck-Graudal, and Jurgens 2020) also showed that the reduction of sodium  
162 consumption to low or very low intakes is effective in reducing blood pressure in  
163 hypertensive subjects, but not in healthy (normotensive) subjects. According to the cited  
164 ongoing revision, moreover, the reduction of blood pressure among hypertensive patients,  
165 was not associated with significant effect on cardiovascular events or on all-cause  
166 mortality. Thus, based on current debate, it appears to be quite complex to set shared  
167 limits for sodium intake for the overall population; the ongoing randomized clinical trials  
168 may, in the near future, help clarify this issue.

169 The role of saturated fats on health, and particularly cardiovascular risk, needs in a  
170 similar way to be reconsidered based on the conclusions of various groups of experts (see  
171 as an example Astrup et al. 2020). According to at least three meta-analyses (Siri-Tarino et  
172 al. 2010; de Souza et al. 2015; Zhu, Bo, and Liu 2019), increasing intakes of saturated fatty  
173 acids are not associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular effects and/or all-cause  
174 mortality. Based on these observations, the authors formally asked for a reassessment of  
175 current restrictive policies suggested by guidelines, which “are not aligned with the current  
176 evidence base” and may potentially lead to unfavourable consequences (Astrup et al. 2020).  
177 In this case, the specific recommendation is to distinguish the different sources of saturated  
178 fats by, e.g. differentiating milk and dairy products from other foods. This will be  
179 cumbersome in the current nutrient profiling systems.

180 The limitation of added sugar consumption to less than 10% of total calories (or even  
181 5%, according to a more restrictive version), on the other hand, was formalized in 2015 in a  
182 WHO document, which contains the textual statement that such recommendation is based  
183 on low or very low to moderate quality evidence from studies specifically referring to the  
184 cariogenic risk related to these intakes of sugars (in the absence of proper oral hygiene or  
185 adequate fluorination) (WHO 2015). Thus, as with sodium, it appears difficult, based on the

186 inconclusive available evidence, to identify and to set shared limits for sugar intake valid for  
187 the whole population.

188 In light of this ongoing scientific debate, the description of the food by means of a  
189 nutritional profile defined on the basis of arbitrary cut-off levels for nutrients appears even  
190 weaker. Moreover, it is worth observing that one nutrient can be critical, or even noxious, for  
191 specific groups of population, but not for others, and that there is large inter-individual  
192 variability in response to nutrient intakes and dietary patterns due to several factor such as  
193 metabolism, genetic characteristics, and microbiota (Zeevi et al. 2015; Ramos-Lopez et al.  
194 2021).

195 In this context, the emerging concept that “one size does *not* fit all” has led to the  
196 development of new disciplines such as personalized nutrition, that uses information on  
197 groups with shared characteristics or on individuals, respectively, to develop targeted  
198 nutritional advice for the dietary management of specific vulnerable groups, such as people  
199 with specific diseases, or pregnant, or older adults, but also for the development of more  
200 effective tailored interventions for improving public health at individual level (Ramos-Lopez  
201 et al. 2021).

202 Last but not least, our knowledge of the physiological and health effects of a food  
203 item cannot ignore its actual levels of consumption. While it is true that the intake of  
204 excessive amounts of sugar, fat, and salt can contribute to cardiovascular risk and, more  
205 generally, to poor health, it is also true that these amounts should be defined not only in  
206 terms of concentrations of the nutrients in the individual food (as nutrient profiles usually  
207 do), but also on the basis of the size of the unit of consumption (portion) and on the  
208 consequent absolute amount consumed in a day or in even longer time frames. One notable  
209 example is dark chocolate, which is rich in saturated fats and sugars and has a high energy  
210 density. However, it is consumed in small amounts (smaller than the 100 g proposed by

211 most nutrient profiling systems), and it can contribute, according to accumulated literature,  
212 to the intake of specific (poly)phenolic compounds, i.e. flavanols with potentially interesting  
213 favourable health effects (Khawaja, Gaziano, and Djousse 2011; Visioli et al. 2009). Indeed,  
214 such consumption would be penalized by a nutrient profiling system defining limits of specific  
215 nutrients, especially sugars and fat which cannot be exceeded per 100 g of food products.  
216 In a similar way, a moderate cheese intake, which is not associated with untoward health  
217 effect according to recent metanalysis, would be strongly discouraged by a classical profiling  
218 system due to the usually high content in salt and saturated fats in these foods (Chen, 2017).

219 In such complex and rapidly evolving context, both education and dissemination of  
220 correct information on nutrition and health, rather than simple but possibly inaccurate system  
221 of classification based on food profiling, are crucial to help people make informed choices  
222 in relation to the food they consume, to build adequate food patterns, and to understand the  
223 contribution or importance of each food to the energy and nutrient content of a diet  
224 (Schwingshackl, Schunemann, and Meerpohl 2020; Hemrich 2020).

225 At first, food labels can be used as a (in)formation tool, as long as they include all the  
226 necessary characteristics and are able to transmit proper data to the consumer. On the other  
227 hand, both institutional and regulatory documents reaffirm the centrality of education to allow  
228 the general population to make healthy food choices and consume each food product as  
229 part of an overall healthy diet, in terms of both caloric intake, macro- and micro-  
230 micronutrients, as opposed to a system of nutrient profiling of the single product (U.S.  
231 Department of Agriculture and U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2020).

### 232 **Nutrient profiling in the food regulation**

233 It may be useful, with regard to such issues, to reconsider the context and the needs  
234 which promoted the birth and the definition of nutritional profiles.

235           The issue of nutrient profiling was first proposed by Regulation (EC) 1924/2006, to  
236 establish the conditions of use of nutrition or health claims for foods or food categories, by  
237 classifying them on the basis of predefined threshold levels of specific nutrients (essentially  
238 salt, total and/or saturated fat, sugar) (Flynn 2012). The stated aim was (and still is) to avoid  
239 that nutrition or health claims can mask the overall nutritional status of a food product,  
240 possibly misleading consumers looking for healthy options.

241           However, several profiling systems have been developed worldwide, by both  
242 governments and other organizations, with a variety of applications, such as to define criteria  
243 for regulating/self-regulating not only marketing but also advertising to children or to promote  
244 innovation and the reformulation of food products to make them healthier. Algorithm based  
245 profile models have been proposed in Australia, Ireland, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden,  
246 the United Kingdom and the United States.

247           In the European region, the UK and its Food Standards Agency (FSA) has been the  
248 regulatory body most active in this area. The first nutritional profile was the UK Coronary  
249 Prevention Group Banding Scheme (Rayner, Scarborough, and Stockley 2004), which was  
250 followed by the Swedish Green Keyhole scheme, launched in 1989 (Larsson, Lissner, and  
251 Wilhelmsen 1999). In 2005, the first FSA conclusions were published (Rayner et al. 2005):  
252 a system based on scores was developed where scores are assigned on the grounds of the  
253 nutritional content of a food item or a beverage. Worth noting, nutrients are assessed on a  
254 per 100 g basis to define and limit the multifaceted issue of recommended portion size.

255           Other systems have been proposed over the years. Noteworthy examples include the  
256 American Heart Association Diet and Lifestyle Recommendations (American Heart  
257 Association Nutrition Committee et al. 2006); Canada's food guide (Katamay et al. 2007;  
258 Health Canada 2019); Tripartite (Scarborough et al. 2007); The Center for Science in the  
259 Public Interest's Guidelines ( U.S. Department of Agriculture and U.S. Department of Health

260 and Human Services 2020); The EFSA Scientific Opinion published in 2008 (EFSA Panel  
261 on Dietetic Products 2008); and FoodProfile (Visioli et al. 2007).

262 Some guidelines, e.g. the American and Canadian ones, do not employ algorithms  
263 to classify individual food items and, rather, provide general advice on how to optimize the  
264 overall diet. A tripartite classification (preferably, middle road, exceptionally) was generated,  
265 based on the nutritional quality of products and indicating favourable and less favourable  
266 choices within the separate subgroups (Quinio et al. 2007).

267 The general approach of nutrient profiling was critically evaluated in 2008 by experts  
268 convened by the EFSA (The EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products 2008) who mainly found “an  
269 inherent difficulty in seeking to apply to individual food products nutrient intake  
270 recommendations that are established for the overall diet”. These conclusions appear to be  
271 still valid today, even in the light of both the scientific literature published on this topic in the  
272 subsequent years and the nutritional guidelines defined by scientific, governmental, and  
273 international organizations.

274 The main criticism is the fact that the human diet is composed of multiple food items,  
275 with different characteristics and composition. Therefore, it does not appear necessary (and  
276 might be perhaps counterproductive) that each food is intrinsically "balanced" in its nutrient  
277 composition, which is at the heart of the nutrient profile system. On the contrary, there is a  
278 need to focus on the combination of the various foods that compose the dietary pattern,  
279 which is the one that needs to be overall balanced.

280 In addition to this, two major considerations should be made: the first is that many  
281 foods, e.g. olive oil are usually consumed in small quantities due to their composition and a  
282 profiling system could wrongly (and uselessly) penalize them; the second consideration is  
283 that we must always take into account the impact on the consumer's psychology and  
284 behaviour of actions that could reasonably seem healthy, such as the product reformulation

285 with decrease of fat, salt and sugar. Multiple evidences in the literature show that  
286 perceptions about healthiness or “fatteningness” of foods may bias estimations of caloric  
287 content (Carels, Harper, and Konrad 2006), with subsequent overconsumption (Cleeren et  
288 al. 2016). Consumers translate health claims as incentives to purchase (and this is well  
289 known by marketing managers) and increases consumption.

290 Moreover, the offer of so-called healthy references, lightened or in some way fortified  
291 or modified in terms of nutritional composition, has been constantly growing in the last 20 or  
292 30 years, but it would not seem to have been actually useful in the fight against obesity,  
293 which indeed is constantly increasing, despite the increase in sales of light products or  
294 products with other nutrition claims or with health claims.

295 Another point raised by the EFSA experts concerns the differences in patterns of food  
296 consumption among the various European countries, also determined by different traditions  
297 and food culture, that make it difficult to define common principles of nutritional evaluation.  
298 Therefore, the critical dietary habits, on which the profile system should necessarily be  
299 based to impact the overall diet, would be different from country to country. The effects of  
300 adopting a unique profiling system throughout the European Union could, therefore, be  
301 positive in some countries and negative in others. Likewise, a system which - on average -  
302 may appear to work well at the population level may work poorly at the individual level: the  
303 aforementioned concept of "one size fits all", on which the idea of nutrient profiling is based  
304 is unlikely to be efficacious because it does not consider the metabolic interindividual  
305 differences.

306 Finally, due to great differences among the various food categories, it would be  
307 probably necessary to adopt specific profiling systems for each individual category, to avoid  
308 an approximate system. For instance, the same sodium limit could not be adopted for  
309 cheeses or foods based on processed meats and products based on vegetables and

310 derivatives. Such an approach would create a very complex system, which would also be  
311 difficult to implement and authenticate. Moreover, as mentioned above, policies aimed at  
312 penalizing foods with marked fat and sugar content, for example through front-of-pack  
313 warning labelling schemes, and/or limiting the possibility of accessing nutritional claims, etc.  
314 conflict with the previously discussed evolution of the scientific literature. A large body of  
315 recent research suggests that dietary policies focusing on the promotion of dietary  
316 components for which current intake is less than optimal might have a greater effect than  
317 those targeted on sugar and fat, highlighting the need for comprehensive food system  
318 interventions (The Global Burden of Disease Diet Collaborators 2019). Nutrient profiles  
319 favour lower consumptions of foods with purported unhealthy compositional characteristics  
320 which is supposed to drive consumption of other ones with more favourable features. This  
321 strategy will, however, be much less effective than the direct promotion of foods with better  
322 nutritional composition.

323 Nutrient profiles of individual food products, additionally, are not in line with Reference  
324 Intakes - which have been defined for energy, macronutrients, vitamins and minerals - on  
325 which the regulation of the use of information on the nutritional and health effects of foods  
326 to the consumer is based (EFSA Panel on Dietetic Products 2008, 2009). The expression  
327 of the energy, macro and micronutrient levels in relation to the relevant reference values  
328 defined for the general population allows comparing the nutritional values of different foods  
329 and can help convey the relative meaning of any individual product in the context of diet.

330 Finally, an approach that includes the use of nutrient profiles would be detrimental for  
331 some specific foods, for which reformulation aimed at reaching the thresholds defined for  
332 the same profiles would not be possible, which therefore could be perceived as "unhealthy"  
333 even though they can play an important and positive nutritional role.

334

335 **Conclusions**

336 According to the most recent scientific evidence any classification of foods into  
337 'healthy' and 'unhealthy' products is a venturesome oversimplification of the complex  
338 relationship between diet and health. In fact, this approach fails to consider that healthiness  
339 is determined not only by the nutrient composition of a product, but also by the quantity  
340 consumed and the contribution of the product to the total diet. The importance of all these  
341 aspects is widely supported by the most recent scientific literature and the most preeminent  
342 food-based guidelines, highlighting the synergistic role of nutrients and foods consumed in  
343 various combinations over time (namely, dietary patterns) in affecting human health (Dietary  
344 Guidelines for Americans, 2020-2025).

345 The approaches involving the definition of nutrient profiles have merits, namely the  
346 intention to trigger both attention and choices of consumers on healthier diet and lifestyle;  
347 however, actual health benefits related to the possibility to distinguish overall 'healthy' from  
348 'unhealthy' products are, at present, based on uncertain science.

349 In view of the current "Facilitating healthier food choices – establishing nutrient  
350 profiles" EU initiative, we believe that further debate among all stakeholders is warranted  
351 and must consider all the limitations outlined in this paper.

352

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