

Diet-dependent acid load – the missing link between an animal protein-rich diet and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease?

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Abstract

Introduction Our group recently showed that animal protein was independently associated with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). We hypothesize that this may be explained by a high diet-dependent acid load (DAL).

Methods This cross-sectional study is embedded in a prospective population-based cohort. We estimated DAL-proxies via food-frequency questionnaires using potential renal acid load (PRAL; using dietary protein, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, and magnesium intake), net endogenous acid production (NEAP; using protein and potassium intake), and animal-protein-to-potassium-ratio (A:P). We defined NAFLD using ultrasound after excluding secondary steatogenic causes. We used logistic regression models –adjusted for socio-demographic, lifestyle, and metabolic traits– on categorized (Q1-Q4) and continuous DAL-proxies (allowing for non-linearity) and NAFLD.

Results We included 3882 participants of which 1337 had NAFLD. All DAL-proxies were higher, meaning more acidic, in individuals with NAFLD (PRAL: -2.9 vs -5.5 mEq/day; NEAP: 37.0 vs 35.1 mEq/day, and AP: 13.3 vs 12.4 ; all $P < 0.001$). The highest quartile of DAL-proxies was associated with NAFLD independent of socio-demographic and lifestyle confounders, but significance dissipated after correction for metabolic confounders and multiple testing. However, the P -value for non-linearity was significant in all DAL-proxies ($P < 0.001$). Natural cubic splines performed better with than without DAL-proxies in the fully adjusted model (all $P \leq 0.038$). The highest probability of NAFLD was found for an acidic diet.

Conclusions This study showed an independent non-linear association between an acidic diet and NAFLD. Further studies with acid-base biomarkers are needed, but our findings might provide a mechanistic explanation for the harmful association between an animal protein-rich diet and NAFLD.

Introduction

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is the most common liver disease worldwide with an estimated prevalence of 25% in the adult population.²⁸⁰ Its occurrence closely parallels the obesity epidemic. Obesity and insulin resistance are therefore reckoned as novel risk factors for liver disease in absence of the traditional risk factors, i.e. alcohol misuse or viral hepatitis.²⁸¹ NAFLD can progress to more severe liver disease with hepatic fibrosis or cirrhosis potentially leading to need for transplantation or even liver-related death.²² In addition, NAFLD is a major risk factor for incidence cardiovascular disease,³⁰ and indeed the most common cause of death in NAFLD is related to cardiovascular events.²⁸² Given the above, it is of great public health interest to unravel NAFLD pathophysiology in order to improve understanding and treatment thereof.

Adhering to a healthy lifestyle, in terms of implementing a well-balanced diet and effectuating adequate physical activity, is the cornerstone of treatment of NAFLD across the entire spectrum of the disease.^{283,284} Our contemporary Western diet, on the other hand, is related with an increased risk of NAFLD development.²⁸⁵ This Western diet typically consists of a high intake of animal-based food products and sugar-containing beverages, and by low intake of fruit, vegetables and whole grains.²⁸⁶ Our group recently showed that animal protein was the only (subtype of) macronutrient that was independently associated with higher prevalence of NAFLD in an elderly population-based cohort.²⁸⁷ Interestingly, others have found that red meat intake was associated with increased overall mortality, and in particular with liver-related mortality.²⁶⁰ However, the underlying mechanisms that contribute to this association remain elusive.

It has been previously postulated that a Western diet may cause low-grade metabolic acidosis, which may subsequently lead to metabolic disturbances such as type 2 diabetes²⁸⁸ and cardiovascular diseases.²⁸⁹ The rationale for this hypothesis is that this diet is rich in food items that supply acid precursors (i.e. non-carbonic acids such as sulfuric acid from meat and fish) and low in food items that supply base precursors (i.e. alkali salts from organic acids such as citrate and bicarbonate from vegetables and fruits), leading to a disturbance in acid-base balance.^{290,291} Two preceding studies have suggested an association between diet-dependent acid load (DAL) and NAFLD, independent of body mass index (BMI).^{259,275} Amongst them, Krupp et al. showed that potential renal acid load (PRAL, a proxy of DAL), was associated with alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and steatosis, as defined by a surrogate diagnostic algorithm, in a small study of healthy adolescents.²⁷⁵ Moreover, Chan and colleagues demonstrated that net endogenous acid production (NEAP, another proxy of DAL) but not PRAL, was associated with MRI-diagnosed NAFLD in a Chinese population (n=793).²⁵⁹ In addition, two recent Japanese studies have showed an association between low urine pH (indicator of metabolic acidosis) and incident NAFLD.^{292,293}

To date, however, there has been no large-scale study on the association of diet-dependent acid load and NAFLD in Western adults. We therefore aimed to evaluate if DAL (as assessed by PRAL, NEAP, and animal protein-to-potassium ratio [A:P]), was independently associated with ultrasound-defined NAFLD in an elderly Western population.

Subjects and Methods

Study Population

This study is embedded in The Rotterdam Study, a prospective cohort study, that was initiated in the mid-1980s in order to study our aging population in more detail.²⁴⁸ The design and rationale behind The Rotterdam Study have been described in more detail previously^{248,287} and is also described in the *Supplementary Methods 1*.²⁹⁴ In short, all participants of The Rotterdam Study reside in Ommoord, a suburb of Rotterdam, the Netherlands, and all participants were aged 45 or 55 years or above at time of first enrolment. The Rotterdam Study consists of three different cohorts (RS I, RS II, and RS III) that each visited the research centre multiple times. From 2009 onwards the Hepatology department joined this research initiative by expanding the extensive physical work-up with liver imaging (this comprises cohort RS I-5, RS II-3, and RS III-2). The Rotterdam Study has been approved by the institutional review board (Medical Ethics Committee) of the Erasmus MC University Medical Centre Rotterdam and by the review board of The Netherlands Ministry of Health, Welfare, and Sports. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Dietary data and diet-dependent acid load

We requested all participants to complete an externally validated, semi-quantitative, 389-item food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) that was developed for Dutch adults.^{98,249} Habitual dietary intake was assessed by means of detailed questions on food item consumption over the last month that addressed not only type of food, but also quantity, portion size, and preparation methods. Servings were estimated in grams or in milligrams per day using standardised household measures.²⁵⁰ We extracted macronutrient intake from the questionnaires using the Dutch Food Composition Table (NEVO v2011) that contains information on nutrient content per gram or serving per product. DAL was calculated using three previously defined algorithms, which we will refer to as DAL-proxies from this point forward. The DAL-proxies included: 1) potential renal acid load (PRAL),²⁹⁵ 2) net endogenous acid production (NEAP),²⁹¹ and 3) animal protein-to-potassium ratio (A:P).²⁹⁶

Remer and Manz developed PRAL to proxy the renal net acid excretion using nutrient intake data.²⁹⁵ PRAL was validated against urine pH in 24 hour urine samples from 63 healthy volunteers.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PRAL (mEq/day)}^{295} = & 0.4888 \times \text{protein [g/day]} + \\ & 0.0366 \times \text{phosphorus [mg/day]} - \\ & 0.0205 \times \text{potassium [mg/day]} - \\ & 0.0125 \times \text{calcium [mg/day]} - \\ & 0.0263 \times \text{magnesium [mg/day]} \end{aligned}$$

Shortly after, Frassetto et al. developed a simplified algorithm (NEAP) using dietary protein as acid precursor and potassium only, as base precursor from organic anions.²⁹¹ This algorithm was validated in 141 healthy men and women consuming 20 different diets, and NEAP accounted for over 70% of the variation in renal net acid excretion.

$$\text{NEAP (mEq/day)}^{291} = (54.5 \times \text{protein [g/day]} / \text{potassium [mEq/day]}) - 10.2$$

Finally, Zwart and colleagues suggested the use of the ratio between animal protein intake and potassium intake instead of total dietary protein, as animal protein is considered to be the main contributor to diet-dependent acid load.^{296,297}

$$A:P^{296} = \text{animal protein [g/day]} / \text{potassium [g/day]}$$

We assessed adherence to the Dutch Dietary Guidelines 2015, using a predefined index that describes a general advice to follow a balanced and healthy dietary pattern,²⁹⁸ in order to assess dietary quality (DQ). Briefly, this guideline comprises specified recommendations on I) vegetables (≥ 200 g/day), II) fruit (≥ 200 g/day), III) whole-grain products (≥ 90 g/day), IV) legumes (≥ 135 g/week), V) unsalted nuts (≥ 15 g/day), VI) fish (≥ 100 g/week), VII) dairy (≥ 350 g/day), VIII) tea (≥ 150 mL/day), IX) whole grains $\geq 50\%$ of total grains, X) unsaturated fats and oils $\geq 50\%$ of total fats, XII) red and processed meat < 300 g/week, XIII) sugar-containing beverages (≤ 150 mL/day), XIV) alcohol (≤ 10 g/day), and XV) salt (≤ 6 g/day). Incomplete FFQs were excluded as well as FFQs with unreliable energy intake (i.e. < 500 calories/day or ≥ 7500 calories/day).

Assessment of steatosis

Abdominal ultrasound was performed by a certified and experienced technician on a Hitachi HI VISION 900 (PvW). Ultrasound images were stored digitally so re-evaluation by an experienced hepatologist (RdK) was possible. All FFQs were filled in prior to liver

imaging, so participants were unaware of the ultrasound results when completing the FFQ. Diagnosis of steatosis was determined dichotomously,¹⁰⁴ measuring the hyper-echogenicity of liver parenchyma. In order to define NAFLD, we first excluded participants that used steatogenic drugs (i.e. systemic corticosteroids, methotrexate, tamoxifen or amiodarone). This was identified through linkage with pharmacy data. Second, participants with viral hepatitis were excluded, based on hepatitis B surface antigen and anti-hepatitis C virus serology which was assessed using an automatic immunoassay (Roche Diagnostic GmbH). And third, we excluded participants with excessive alcohol consumption (>30g/day for men and >20 g/day for women, based on the FFQ).

Other Covariates

We obtained data on demographics, physical activity, and education level by means of an extensive home interview by qualified interviewers. Briefly, physical activity was assessed using the LASA Physical Activity Questionnaire and expressed in metabolic equivalent of task (MET)hours/week.²⁹⁹ Blood pressure was measured at a single visit using two successive measurements in a sitting position, and blood samples were collected after overnight fasting. Automatic enzyme procedures were used to measure blood lipids, platelet count, glucose, ALT, aspartate aminotransferase, and gamma-glutamyltransferase (Roche Diagnostic GmbH, Mannheim, DE). An automatic immunoassay was used to determine insulin (Roche Diagnostic GmbH). Estimated glomerular filtration rate (GFR in [ml/min/1.73 m²]) was based on calibrated creatinine levels using the CKD-EPI Creatinine Equation (2009). Creatinine levels were calibrated by aligning mean values of serum creatinine from our cohort with those of the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES III) in different age and sex specific categories.³⁰⁰ Anthropometrics were measured by well-trained research assistants. The presence of hypertension was diagnosed if either systolic (≥ 140 mmHg) or diastolic (≥ 90 mmHg) blood pressure was increased or the participant was on anti-hypertensive medication. Diabetes was defined as fasting glucose above 7.0 mmol/L (≥ 126 mg/dL) or drug treatment for elevated blood glucose. Metabolic syndrome was diagnosed if three out of five of the following traits were present: 1) high waist circumference (≥ 102 cm for men and ≥ 88 cm for women), 2) high blood pressure ($\geq 130/85$ mmHg), 3) HDL below 1.0 mmol/L (≤ 40 mg/dL) in men and below 1.3 mmol/L (≤ 50 mg/dL) in women or the use of lipid-lowering drugs, 4) triglycerides above 1.7 mmol/L (≥ 150 mg/dL) in both sexes or the use of lipid-lowering drugs, and finally 5) fasting glucose above 5.6mmol/L (≥ 100 mg/dL).²⁸ Insulin resistance was calculated using the homeostasis assessment model of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR): (fasting glucose [mmol/L] x fasting insulin [mU/L]) / 22.5.¹⁰⁶

Statistical Analyses

We excluded all participants with missing or unreliable FFQs, and participants with more than 30% missing study variables. Variables were imputed using multiple imputation under the fully conditioned specification to reduced bias due to missing data.³⁰¹ A more detailed description on the imputation process can be found in the *Supplementary Methods II*.²⁹⁴ Population characteristics of both the original and imputed data were described using the mean (standard deviation, SD), median (25th and 75th percentile, P25-P75), or percentage. We carried out analyses of variance (ANOVA) to compare means for different strata (NAFLD vs no NAFLD and quartiles of DAL) and Kruskal-Wallis tests to compare medians for different strata. Chi-square tests were used to compare categorical variables across strata. We calculated Spearman rank correlation coefficients in order to give more insight in the correlations of DAL with dietary macronutrients, dietary micronutrients, and DQ. We used logistic regression models to assess the association between DAL-proxy categories and NAFLD for comparability with other dietary-acid load studies that used categorical analyses²⁷⁵ and to facilitate clinical interpretation. Then we assessed linearity, fitting models with splines to allow for non-linearity using natural cubic splines. Thereafter, we tested the need for the non-linear terms and optimal degrees of freedom by comparing the spline model against linear models with the Akaike Information Criterion. And lastly, we tested the relevance of DAL as predictor for NAFLD by comparing the spline model to a model without DAL using a likelihood ratio test.

We adjusted all analyses for potential confounders using 4 models. In model 1, we adjusted for potential socio-demographic confounders, i.e. age, sex, education level (low/moderate/high), study cohort (RSI/RSII/RSIII), and for energy intake (kilocalories). In model 2, we adjusted for lifestyle confounding factors such as alcohol use (in units, one units is 10grams), physical activity (MET equivalent hours/week), and smoking (current/past or never). In model 3 (the main model) we adjusted for metabolic variables, i.e. HDL-cholesterol (in mmol/L), triglycerides (in mmol/L), presence of metabolic syndrome, estimated GFR (in ml/min/1.73m²), presence of diabetes mellitus and BMI (in kg/m²). And finally, in model 4 we tested the potential confounding effect of DQ on the association between DAL and NAFLD. The selection of covariates was based on previous literature.⁶ Results were expressed as predicted probability or odds ratio (OR) per quartile, both with the accompanying 95% confidence interval (CI). In addition, we tested all models for multicollinearity (VIF>5.0). Furthermore, in order to test the robustness of our results we performed several sensitivity analyses. First, to account for potential measurement error in dietary intake and to remove extraneous variation arising from total energy intake, all DAL-proxies were adjusted for energy intake using the residual method: that part of the DAL-proxies that was not explained by total energy intake.³⁰² Second, in order to test the robustness of our results, we performed several stratified analyses. We stratified by sex, as gender-differences

in DAL have been previously suggested.^{275,288} We stratified by cohort, as participants from various cohorts differ in terms of age (mean age RSIII: 62, RS II: 72, and RS I: 79 years old) and because there was a median time-gap of 5.5 years between completing the FFQ and performance of ultrasound in cohort three (RS-III, see *Supplementary Methods I*).²⁹⁴ But as dietary data are known to be stable over time,¹⁰⁹ RS-III was included in the main analysis. We also stratified by GFR, using 60 ml/min/1.73m² as cut-off to distinguish between a normal and impaired renal function (as the kidneys play a crucial role in maintaining acid-base balance in the body).³⁰³ We stratified by age (using 65 as cut-off), as DAL-associations have been previously observed particularly in young individuals.³⁰⁴ And finally, we stratified by BMI at a cut-point of 25kg/m², as participants with a normal BMI (lean) could have a different pathophysiological pathway compared to overweight participants.^{288,305} Third, we replaced presence of diabetes with the continuous proxy for insulin resistance, HOMA-IR, in model 3, in order to test the hypothesis that the mechanistic explanation behind DAL associations are mediated by insulin resistance.^{276,306} And lastly, we alternately excluded the Q1 or the Q4 from the continuous spline analyses in order to assess whether it was the alkaline component or the acidic component (respectively), or both, that drives the association between DAL-proxies and NAFLD.

To correct for the inflated type I error that arises due to multiple testing we applied the method proposed by Sidák,²⁵⁶ adapted as described in Galwey et al.,²⁵⁷ using the effective number of tests ($n=1.8$) instead of the actual number of tests ($n=3$). This adaptation is necessary to take into account that dietary exposures inter-correlate instead of being independent from each other. The resulting corrected significance level for all DAL-proxy analyses was $P<0.028$. All analyses were performed using R version 3.5.1.

Results

Participant Characteristics

In total, 5967 participants were eligible for this study. We excluded unreliable FFQs ($n=98$; 1.6%) and missing FFQs ($n=1075$; 18%). These participants were significantly younger (68.5 vs 69.6 years; $P<0.01$), less often of European descent (95% vs 98%; $P<0.01$), and had a higher BMI (27.5 vs 26.9 kg/m²; $P<0.01$), but there was no difference in steatosis prevalence (37.2% vs 35.5%; $P=0.27$) and sex (55.8% vs 57.5%; $P=0.27$). Subsequently, we excluded 40 participants (0.8%) that had >30% of missing data on study variables. Lastly, we excluded 872 participants (18.3%) with potential secondary causes for steatosis ($n=123$ steatogenic drug use, $n=691$ alcohol misuse, $n=31$ viral hepatitis, $n=27$ combination of the aforementioned factors; *Supplementary Methods I*). Hence, the total study population consisted of 3882 participants of which 1337 individuals had NAFLD (34.4%).

The median DAL-proxies in this population were as follows: PRAL -4.7 mEq/day (-15.4 ; 4.4), NEAP 35.7 mEq/day (29.6 – 42.3), and A:P 12.7 (10.2 – 15.4). Population characteristics on both original and imputed data are shown in *Supplementary Table 1*. In short, mean age was 69.7 years (8.8), median BMI was 26.9 (24.5 – 29.7), 58.3% was female, and the majority was of European descent (97.6%). In *Supplementary Table 2* population characteristics are shown according to NAFLD stratum. Median DAL-proxies were significantly higher in participants with NAFLD than in participants without NAFLD, i.e. for PRAL -2.9 vs. -5.5 mEq/day ($P=4.97e^{-6}$), for NEAP 37.0 vs. 35.1 mEq/day ($P=2.74e^{-6}$), and for A:P 13.3 vs. 12.4 ($P=1.70e^{-10}$).

Characteristics of diet-dependent acid load

Population characteristics per PRAL-quartile are given in *Table 1*. The median PRAL of Q4 was 11.1 (7.4 ; 17.6) mEq/day. In addition, characteristics per NEAP and A:P quartile are depicted in *Supplementary Table 3 A–B*. The median NEAP in the Q4 of NEAP was 47.5 (44.6 – 53.0) mEq/day, and the median A:P in the Q4 of A:P was 17.8 (16.4 – 20.1). Similar characteristics for Q4 in all DAL-proxies were found, being lower proportion of females,

Table 1: Characteristics per quartile PRAL

	PRAL				P-value
	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4	
DAL					
PRAL	-24.4 (-33.7 ; -19.1)	-9.7 (-12.5 ; -7.2)	-0.33 (-2.3 ; 1.9)	11.1 (7.4 ; 17.6)	n/a
NEAP	25.6 (21.9 – 28.4)	32.7 (30.9 – 34.3)	38.7 (37.0 – 40.7)	47.4 (44.1 – 52.9)	<0.001
A:P	9.2 (7.6 – 10.5)	11.7 (10.4 – 13.2)	13.9 (12.4 – 15.4)	17.2 (15.0 – 19.9)	<0.001
Demographics					
Age	70.2 (8.8)	69.8 (8.6)	69.8 (8.8)	69.1 (9.2)	0.057
Female (%)	67.6	62.5	54.9	48.2	<0.001
Caucasian (%)	97.6	97.9	97.8	97.2	0.804
<u>Education Level (%)</u>					
Low	48.4	49.7	47.9	47.7	0.167
Intermediate	27.7	29.4	31.6	32.5	
High	23.9	20.9	20.5	19.8	
<u>Smoking status (%)</u>					
Never	39.5	37.7	34.5	32.6	0.009
Current / Former	60.5	62.3	65.5	67.4	
Alcohol (units/d)	0.45 (0.04 – 1.16)	0.49 (0.08 – 1.22)	0.45 (0.07 – 1.22)	0.43 (0.03 – 1.17)	0.203
Physical Activity (METH/wk)	46.4 (18.5 – 84.5)	43.0 (17.0 – 78.8)	37.0 (14.3 – 74.5)	34.6 (13.5 – 73.2)	<0.001
Energy intake (kcal/d)	2175 (1823 – 2667)	1929 (1557 – 2363)	1891 (1488 – 2360)	2105 (1700 – 2668)	<0.001

Table 1 (continued)

	PRAL				P-value
	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4	
Physical examination					
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.5 (24.3 – 29.4)	26.8 (24.5 – 29.4)	27.0 (24.6 – 29.9)	27.2 (24.7 – 30.0)	0.010
Biochemistry					
AST (U/L)	24 (21 – 28)	24 (21 – 28)	24 (21 – 28)	25 (21 – 29)	0.125
ALT (U/L)	18 (14 – 24)	18 (14 – 23)	18 (14 – 24)	20 (15 – 25)	<0.001
GGT (U/L)	21 (16 – 30)	22 (16 – 32)	23 (17 – 34)	25 (18 – 37)	<0.001
Platelets (*10 ⁹ /L)	269 (232 – 309)	263 (224 – 305)	259 (220 – 303)	257 (218 – 303)	0.002
HOMA-IR	2.4 (1.7 – 3.7)	2.5 (1.7 – 3.9)	2.6 (1.7 – 4.2)	2.9 (1.8 – 4.6)	<0.001
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.6 (1.1)	5.5 (1.1)	5.4 (1.1)	5.3 (1.1)	<0.001
HDL-C (mmol/L)	1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)	1.4 (0.4)	<0.001
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.8)	0.482
GFR	76 (66 – 86)	76 (66 – 86)	75 (66 – 85)	76 (65 – 86)	0.796
Comorbidities					
<u>Metabolic Syndrome</u>	48.4	52.6	54.2	57.1	0.003
- Waist circumference	40.2	43.2	43.8	45.6	0.112
- Triglycerides	41.6	45.4	48.4	48.5	0.007
- HDL-Cholesterol	40.1	44.7	46.5	47.2	0.007
- Blood pressure	84.6	85.0	83.7	83.7	0.794
- Fasting Glucose	41.8	45.1	46.6	53.5	<0.001
Diabetes Mellitus (%)	11.1	11.6	12.5	17.3	<0.001
Hypertension (%)	73.8	75.7	72.1	74.3	0.363
NAFLD	30.9	31.8	35.2	39.9	<0.001

Data is expressed as mean (SD), median (P25-P75) or percentage. *P-value is based on ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test or Chi-square test.

Abbreviations ALT: alanine aminotransferase; A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; AST: aspartate aminotransferase; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; GGT: gamma-glutamyltransferase; HDL-C: high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

lower physical activity, more current or former smokers, higher BMI and higher gamma glutamyltransferase. In addition, there were more comorbidities, in particular higher prevalence of NAFLD and diabetes (*Table 1* and *Supplementary Table 3 A - B*).

PRAL, NEAP and A:P correlations with other dietary parameters are depicted in *Table 2*. All DAL-proxies correlated inversely with DQ, meaning that the higher the DAL-proxy the lower dietary quality ($r_s = -0.29$ for PRAL, $r_s = -0.29$ for NEAP, and $r_s = -0.32$ for A:P). In particular fruit intake had a strong inverse correlation with DAL ($r_s = -0.51$ for PRAL, $r_s = -0.50$ for NEAP, and $r_s = -0.37$ for A:P). Also, mono and disaccharides and fiber intake were inversely correlated (*Table 2*). As expected, all DAL-proxies correlated positively with animal protein ($r_s = 0.26$ for PRAL, $r_s = 0.32$ for NEAP, and $r_s = 0.51$ for A:P).

Table 2: Correlations between DAL-proxies and diet

	PRAL	NEAP	A:P
	r_s	r_s	r_s
Total protein (g)	0.17	0.23	0.21
Animal protein	0.26	0.32	0.51
Vegetable protein	-0.08	-0.03	-0.31
Total carbohydrates (g)	-0.27	-0.23	-0.32
Mono-and disaccharides	-0.45	-0.42	-0.35
Polysaccharides	0.02	0.06	-0.20
Fiber	-0.40	-0.36	-0.48
Total fat (g)	0.20	0.25	0.12
Saturated fat	0.24	0.27	0.21
Mono-unsaturated fatty acids	0.20	0.25	0.12
Poly-unsaturated fatty acids	0.11	0.16	-0.04
Trans fatty acids	0.23	0.24	0.18
Minerals (mg)			
Vitamin E	-0.03	0.03	-0.09
Magnesium	-0.23	-0.18	-0.26
Potassium	-0.44	-0.39	-0.30
Phosphorus	0.05	0.08	0.08
Calcium	-0.05	-0.03	0.06
DQ score (points)	-0.29	-0.29	-0.32
↑ Vegetables	-0.27	-0.23	-0.24
↑ Fruit	-0.51	-0.50	-0.37
↑ Whole grain products	0.09	0.10	-0.12
↑ Legumes	-0.03	-0.01	-0.08
↑ Nuts	0.03	0.04	-0.09
↑ Dairy	-0.02	-0.04	0.09
↑ Fish	0.04	0.08	0.14
↑ Tea	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05
↑ Whole/Refined grains	-0.04	-0.06	-0.13
↑ Unsaturated fats/oils	-0.06	-0.05	-0.06
↓ Red and processed meat	-0.17	-0.22	-0.32
↓ Sugar containing drinks	0.07	0.06	0.06
↓ Alcohol	-0.02	-0.01	-0.02
↓ Salt	-0.22	-0.25	-0.13

By Spearman's rank correlation. DQ score can theoretically vary from 0–14 points. DQ subtypes are dichotomous.

Legend Spearman correlation:

negative			positive		
moderate	weak	very weak	very weak	weak	moderate
-0.59 to -0.40	-0.39 to -0.20	-0.19 to -0	0 to 0.19	0.20 to 0.39	0.40 to 0.59

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; DAL: dietary acid load; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL: potential renal acid load.

Categorized diet-dependent acid load and NAFLD

The highest quartile (Q4) of PRAL was associated with higher prevalence of NAFLD (using Q1 as reference), in all models (Table 3). However, after correction for multiple testing, the association between PRAL and NAFLD was no longer significant in model 3 (OR_{Q4vsQ1} 1.26, 95%CI 1.01–1.58; $P = 0.041$). A similar association was seen for NEAP, in which the Q4 of NEAP was only significantly associated with NAFLD in model 1 and 2 (model 3: OR_{Q4vsQ1} 1.24, 95%CI 0.99–1.56; $P=0.058$). Lastly, the Q4 of A:P had a more pronounced

Table 3: Logistic regression analyses of DAL-proxies with NAFLD as dependent variable

	Total population (n=3882)		
	Q2 (n=970)	Q3 (n=971)	Q4 (n=970)
PRAL n per quartile			
NEAP n per quartile			
A:P n per quartile			
Model 1 (sociodemographic)			
PRAL	0.99 (0.81 – 1.20)	1.14 (0.94 – 1.38)	1.42 (1.17 – 1.72)†
NEAP	1.02 (0.84 – 1.24)	1.24 (1.02 – 1.50)	1.40 (1.15 – 1.69)†
A:P	1.14 (0.94 – 1.39)	1.36 (1.12 – 1.65)†	1.63 (1.35 – 1.97)†
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	0.98 (0.81 – 1.19)	1.12 (0.92 – 1.36)	1.38 (1.14 – 1.67)†
NEAP	1.03 (0.85 – 1.25)	1.22 (1.01 – 1.48)	1.36 (1.12 – 1.65)†
A:P	1.14 (0.94 – 1.39)	1.33 (1.09 – 1.61)†	1.58 (1.31 – 1.92)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.97 (0.77 – 1.21)	1.09 (0.87 – 1.36)	1.26 (1.01 – 1.58)
NEAP	0.97 (0.78 – 1.22)	1.18 (0.94 – 1.47)	1.24 (0.99 – 1.56)
A:P	0.96 (0.77 – 1.21)	1.09 (0.87 – 1.36)	1.22 (0.97 – 1.52)
Model 4 (metabolic + DQ)			
PRAL	0.97 (0.77 – 1.21)	1.09 (0.87 – 1.37)	1.27 (1.01 – 1.60)
NEAP	0.98 (0.78 – 1.22)	1.18 (0.94 – 1.47)	1.25 (0.99 – 1.57)
A:P	0.96 (0.77 – 1.21)	1.09 (0.87 – 1.37)	1.22 (0.97 – 1.54)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals taking quartile 1 as reference. Bold values indicate $P < 0.05$.

† Indicates significant values using $P < 0.028$ as determined by Sidák.

Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for age, gender, education level, energy intake and study cohort.

Model 2 (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity.

Model 3 (metabolic) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides, metabolic syndrome, GFR, diabetes mellitus and BMI.

Model 4 (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for DQ.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein-potassium ratio; DQ: Dietary Quality; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL: potential renal acid load; Q: Quartile.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; HDL: high density lipoprotein; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL: potential renal acid load.

association with NAFLD than PRAL and NEAP in the first two models, but this association was confounded by metabolic factors –in particular by the metabolic syndrome, BMI, and diabetes mellitus– in model 3 (OR_{Q4vsQ1} 1.22, 95%CI 0.97–1.52; $P=0.089$).

Continuous diet-dependent acid load and NAFLD

Logistic regression with natural cubic splines for DAL showed a clear non-linear effect of DAL (P for non-linearity for PRAL: $6.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$, NEAP: $3.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$, and A:P: $2.7 \cdot 10^{-5}$). The predicted probability of NAFLD in model 3 (metabolic) was lowest within the alkaline PRAL range -45 to -4 mEq/day, with a minimum predicted probability of NAFLD that was 29%. Whereas the predicted probability of NAFLD increased to 36% for acidic PRAL-values 9 to 11 mEq/day (equals Q4; *Figure 1A*). A similar shape was seen for NEAP and A:P (*Figure 1B – C*). For NEAP Q1 and Q2 NAFLD probability was low (<33%), but increased for towards 37% (*Figure 1B*). For Q1 and Q2 of A:P probability of NAFLD was low (again <33%), and the highest predicted probability of NAFLD (36%) was seen at an A:P of 17 in (again equals Q4; *Figure 1C*). The shape of the splines for models 1 and 2 were very similar to that of model 3, but generally with higher predicted probabilities of NAFLD and more pronounced differences between high and low DAL (*Supplementary Figure 1 A – B*). All models performed better with DAL in the model than without DAL, this even remained significant for NEAP and A:P after multiple comparison correction (log-likelihood ratio test: $P = 0.038$ for PRAL; $P = 0.015$ for NEAP; $P = 0.012$ for A:P).

Diet-dependent acid load and potential confounding by dietary quality

We assessed whether DAL was confounded by DQ in a separate model 4. Categorical analyses of DAL-proxies with NAFLD adjusted for DQ are depicted in *Table 3; model 4*. Although the results were not statistically significant, the associations hardly attenuated after adjustment of DQ. Hence, DQ could not fully explain the association between DAL and NAFLD. The same effect of DQ was seen on the splines (*Supplementary Figure 1C*: PRAL $P=0.043$, NEAP $P=0.017$; and A:P $P=0.014$, comparing the models with and without DAL-proxies).

Sensitivity analyses

To test the robustness of our findings we carried out multiple sensitivity analyses. First, we used the residual method to account for extraneous variation in DAL arising from total energy intake. The associations with PRAL attenuated slightly, but the results for NEAP and A:P were similar to the main analysis (*Supplementary Table 4*). Second, we stratified

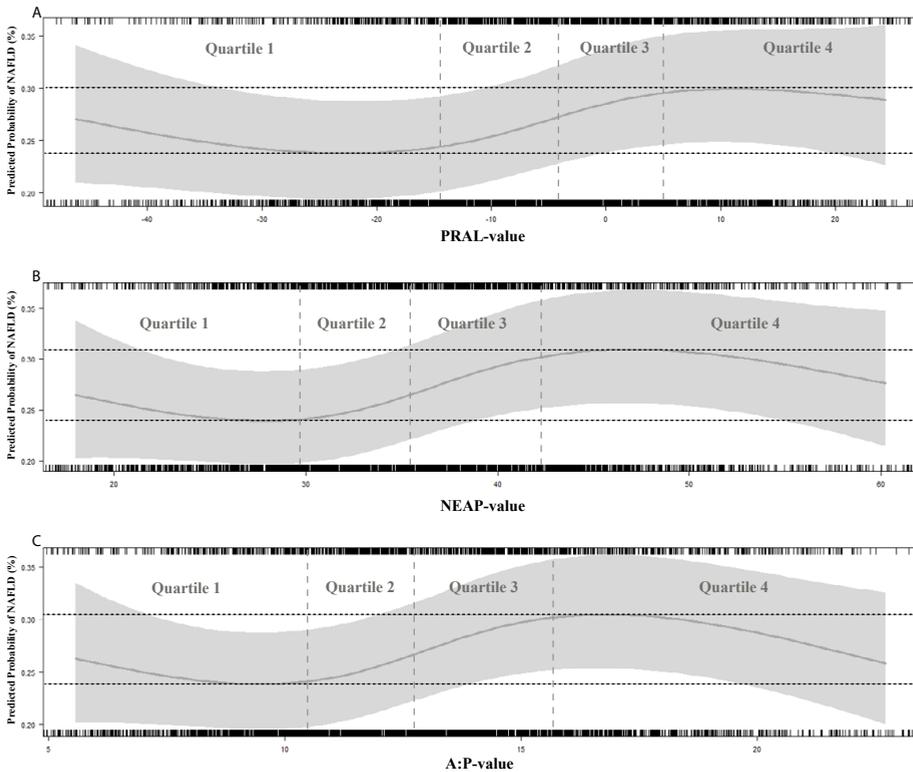


Figure 1: Natural cubic splines for the association of A: PRAL, B: NEAP, and C: A:P with the predicted probability of NAFLD in (metabolic) model 3

A: Model with PRAL vs. model without PRAL ($P=0.038$). B: Model with NEAP vs. model without NEAP ($P=0.015$).

C: Model with A:P vs. model without A:P ($P=0.012$).

Y-axis represents predicted probability of NAFLD in (metabolic) model 3: $\text{NAFLD} \sim \text{DAL-proxy} + \text{age} + \text{gender} + \text{education level} + \text{energy intake} + \text{study cohort} + \text{smoking} + \text{units of alcohol} + \text{physical activity} + \text{HDL-cholesterol} + \text{triglycerides} + \text{metabolic syndrome} + \text{GFR} + \text{diabetes mellitus} + \text{BMI}$.

X-axis represent values of PRAL, NEAP or A:P. The grey-colored bar represents the 95% confidence interval. The upper and lower 2.5th centile were excluded from the graphs.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

by several predefined covariates (*Supplementary Tables 5–9*). All stratified results largely resembled the original analyses (*Figure 2*). Interestingly, PRAL was nominally significant associated with higher NAFLD prevalence in participants with an impaired kidney function after full adjustment in the metabolic model ($\text{OR}_{\text{Q4vsQ1}} 1.81$ 95%CI 1.01–3.24, $P = 0.047$, *Supplementary Table 7*). Third, we have additionally adjusted model 3 for insulin resistance (instead of diabetes presence, using HOMA-IR) and found that the association dissipated, indicating the mediating role of insulin resistance in this association ($\text{OR}_{\text{Q4vsQ1}}$ for PRAL: 1.19, 95%CI 0.95–1.50; for NEAP 1.15 95%CI 0.88–1.38; for A:P 1.12 95%CI

Stratified analyses in (metabolic) model 3

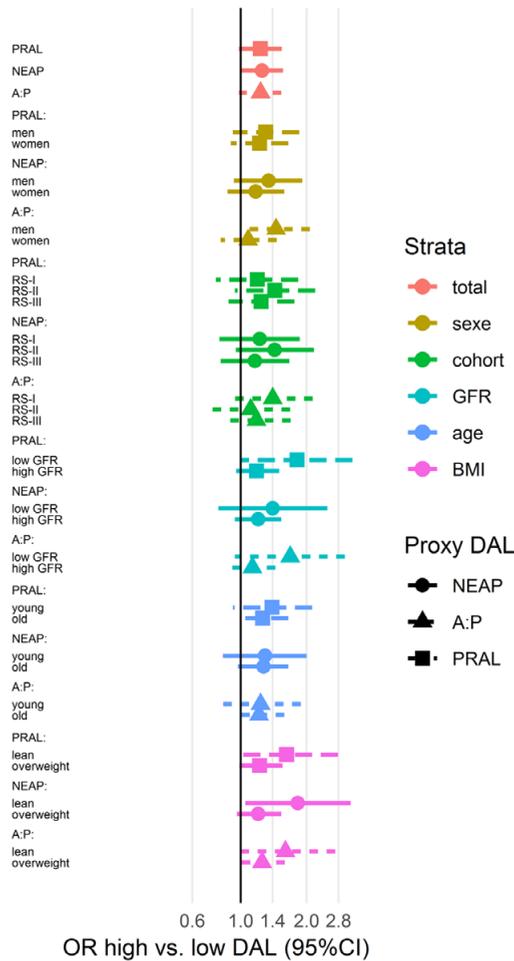


Figure 2: Associations of DAL-proxies with NAFLD stratified by various covariates in the metabolic model

Values are odds ratios of the fourth quartile with 95% confidence intervals taking the first quartile as reference. All strata are analysed within modified (metabolic) model 3: NAFLD ~ DAL-proxy + (age) + (gender) + education level + energy intake + (study cohort) + smoking + units of alcohol + physical activity + HDL-cholesterol + triglycerides + metabolic syndrome + (GFR) + diabetes mellitus + (BMI).

This figure represents data that can also be found in more detail in Supplementary Table 4 – 9.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL: potential renal acid load.

0.89–1.41). And fourth, in order to assess whether it is the acidic component or the alkaline component that drives the association between DAL-proxies and NAFLD, we alternately excluded the alkaline component (Q1) and the acidic component (Q4) from the analyses. All models with DAL-proxies performed better than models without DAL-proxies only when

the alkaline component was excluded, but not when the acidic component was excluded (log-likelihood ratio test excluding Q1: $P=0.032$ for PRAL; $P=0.015$ for NEAP; $P=0.010$ for A:P; log-likelihood ratio test excluding Q4: $P=0.310$ for PRAL; $P=0.115$ for NEAP; $P=0.253$ for A:P) This may indicate that it is the acidic component drives the association between DAL-proxies and NAFLD.

Discussion

In this largest population-based cohort study to date, we found that diet-dependent acid load, as assessed by net-endogenous acid production and animal protein-to-potassium ratio, was independently associated with NAFLD. This association was not linear; but the highest probability of NAFLD (36–37%) was found for an acidic diet and the minimum predicted probability of NAFLD (29%) for an alkaline diet. Indeed, the association was driven mainly by the acidic component of the diet. Models with NEAP and A:P performed significantly better in predicting NAFLD than without these indices of DAL, importantly, even after correction for numerous confounders such as BMI and overall dietary quality. Moreover, the association between DAL-proxies and NAFLD was tested for in different subgroups of the population which showed overall consistent results.

Despite all ongoing pharmacological studies, lifestyle intervention remains the only available treatment for NAFLD today.³⁰⁷ Recently, several studies found detrimental associations between high animal protein intake^{247,287} and NAFLD. Amongst them, a recent study from Zelber-Sagi and colleagues found that high red and processed meat consumption was associated with NAFLD and insulin resistance.²⁶¹ This is in line with another recent study from Etemadi et al. that showed that a diet rich in red meat was associated with higher incidence of liver-related mortality.²⁶⁰ Food items from the Western dietary pattern, such as red meat, generally contribute to a higher diet-dependent acid load.³⁰³ Indeed, animal protein had the highest positive correlation with all DAL-proxies in our study as well. Interestingly, the highest inverse correlation with DAL-proxies was found for mono- and disaccharides. This is in line with our previous study in which we found an inverse association of mono- and disaccharides with NAFLD, though this was not independent from metabolic confounders. We also know that fruit was by far the most contributing group to this macronutrient. And fruits have indeed an alkalinizing potential.³⁰³

In this study we show that in particular an acidic diet was associated with higher NAFLD prevalence, and we therefore hypothesize that diet-dependent acid load may (partially) explain the link between an animal protein-rich diet and NAFLD. Interestingly, our findings are in line with two previous studies on DAL and NAFLD.^{259,275} A study in German adolescents found that PRAL was associated with ALT, fatty liver index and hepatic steatosis index in girls but not in boys.²⁷⁵ However, the study population was small ($n=145$), the study only

included adolescents and young adults (mean age 20 years old), and steatosis algorithms were assessed only continuously (but prevalence was most probably low as median FLI was ± 10). Another elegant study analysed PRAL and NEAP in association with NAFLD (assessed by MRI-PDFF), in 793 Chinese adults.²⁵⁹ The authors found an association between NEAP and NAFLD in multivariable analysis. However, linearity of PRAL and NEAP was not assessed in these two studies,^{259,275} which makes direct comparison (along with major sociodemographic differences) to our Western adult population difficult. Of note, mean diet-dependent acid load in the latter study was rather high (PRAL 24 mEq/day and NEAP 77 mEq/day)²⁵⁹ in comparison to our study and that of others which was relatively more alkaline (i.e. the Rotterdam Study: PRAL -4.7 mEq/day and NEAP 36 mEq/day; Nurses' Health Study: PRAL -3.1 mEq/day and NEAP: 44 mEq/day; and Health Professionals' Follow-up Study: PRAL 5.7 mEq/day and NEAP 48 mEq/day).²⁸⁸

Diet-dependent acid load has also been implicated in other health outcomes that are related to NAFLD, such as type 2 diabetes and hypertension.³⁰³ An interesting Swedish study examined whether PRAL was associated with overall mortality in over 80,000 individuals followed for 13 years.³⁰⁸ Similar to our study, the authors found a non-linear association between PRAL and all-cause mortality but rather a U-shaped spline. Thus, both dietary acid and alkali excess were associated with increased mortality risk. We did not observe a clear U-shape in our splines, but the predicted probability of NAFLD was indeed also higher in the distinct alkaline diets. To date, there is no study that showed that a diet high in alkaline load is detrimental for health, however, one could speculate that a one-sided, unbalanced diet might be unhealthy anyway – possibly also via other mechanisms than diet-dependent acid load alone. Rightfully so, the authors of this Swedish study argued whether the low impact (HR 1.06) of PRAL on mortality risk is important in terms of public health. Indeed, there are studies that found no association between diet-dependent acid load and health.^{309,310} Differences in sociodemographic factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, and dietary habits could have contributed to these contrasting results. We have therefore performed several predefined subgroup analyses. Most subgroup analyses were not statistically significant, but should be interpreted in light of lower statistical power, and generally confirmed the main results. Yet, the highest quartile of PRAL was nominally significant in participants with an impaired renal function (estimated GFR < 60 ml/min/1.73m²) and, albeit not significant, the same trend was seen for both NEAP and A:P. The results were not significant after multiple testing correction, but again, they should be interpreted in light of lower power (n=597). This finding is not surprising as the kidney plays a crucial role in maintaining acid-base balance.³¹¹ Likewise, a long-term high diet-dependent acid load could also contribute to the development of chronic kidney disease by increasing endothelin-1, angiotensin-II, and aldosterone production to meet the demand for hydrogen excretion³¹².

Mechanistically, it is thought that consumed proteins, in particular sulphur-containing amino-acids (e.g. methionine and cysteine) found in animal proteins, form sulphate after

oxidation.³⁰³ This is a non-volatile acid that can be neutralized by bicarbonate but forms a hydrogen-bond as end product. In contrast, plant protein often contains glutamate which can be metabolized without this formation. Fruit on the other hand, is potassium-rich and often accompanied by citrate and malate, which consume hydrogen-bonds to become neutral and hence are alkalinizing.³¹³ This low-grade or subclinical metabolic acidosis has been associated with various metabolic alterations.³¹⁴ Amongst others, a change in glucose homeostasis has been found, being a lower insulin response to high glucose in the presence of a low pH.²⁷⁶ Also, long-term subclinical metabolic acidosis may increase adrenal cortisol production (modulated by the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis) and subsequently may lead to visceral obesity and insulin resistance.^{306,315} In our study, adjustment for insulin resistance, as assessed by HOMA-IR, weakened the association between DAL and NAFLD, confirming our hypothesis that the association between DAL and NAFLD is mediated via insulin resistance.^{276,306} Based on experimental studies, it has been proposed that low-grade metabolic acidosis influenced the growth hormone/ insulin growth factor 1 system, leading to hepatocellular growth hormone resistance and subsequent hepatic lipid accumulation.^{316,317} Opponents of the diet-dependent acid load hypothesis argue that DAL-proxies are merely a different way of scoring adherence to a healthy diet. Although we cannot exclude this possibility, separate correction for adherence to dietary quality did not fully explain the association between DAL and NAFLD. Indeed, food items can effectuate health changes without affecting acid-base balance. For example, fruits and vegetables also contain dietary fiber that is beneficial for glycaemic control.³¹⁸ Also, it has been suggested that the metabolization of sulphur-containing amino-acids (i.e. methionine and cysteine found in animal protein) in the liver can directly cause liver injury.³¹⁹ Lastly, an experimental rat study found that a high protein diet upregulated mRNA expression of genes encoding proteins involved in amino acid uptake and enhanced lipid synthesis.³²⁰ In this study, hepatic mRNA and protein levels of heat shock protein 90, a marker of liver injury, were markedly increased in these rats fed a high-protein diet. Of note, high protein intake did not result in elevated hepatic lipid concentrations in these rats.

Our study has several strengths, including a large sample size, availability of a great number of well-defined covariates, the (predefined) subgroup analyses to confirm the robustness of our findings, the evaluation of linearity and subsequent use of natural cubic splines, and the correction for multiple testing. Nonetheless, there are several considerations that need to be addressed. First, this study comprises a large predominantly elderly and Caucasian population, with a relatively alkaline diet. Despite the reassuring similar results in several subgroups of participants, caution on generalizability should be exercised. Second, due to the cross-sectional design of this study it is not possible to draw any conclusions on causality. Third, although we have corrected for a large number of different traits, we cannot exclude the possibility of residual confounding. Fourth, as with any self-administered questionnaire, the FFQ is susceptible for recall and reporter bias. Nonetheless, we have

tried to limit this bias by excluding potential unreliable FFQs and by performing a sensitivity analyses with DAL-proxies corrected by the residual method to account for extraneous variation in energy intake. Fifth, one of the three included cohorts (RS III) completed the FFQ 5.5 years prior to liver imaging. We assumed that dietary data was stable over time,⁹⁸ which was indeed recently shown in another paper from The Rotterdam Study.³²¹ Nonetheless, we used study cohort as covariables in all regression models, moreover, we performed sensitivity analysis per study cohort. All the separate cohorts showed results that were comparable to the main analysis. Sixth, we used ultrasonography to assess steatosis, which has a good sensitivity to detect moderate steatosis but is poor in detecting mild steatosis and in grading steatosis. Moreover, the golden standard to assess NAFLD –and its advanced subtype non-alcoholic steatohepatitis– is a liver biopsy. However, it is unethical to perform this invasive procedure on a large scale in presumed healthy individuals. Finally, we had no dispose of acid-base biomarkers to estimate actual metabolic acidosis. However, NEAP and PRAL have been previously validated in healthy individuals and accounted for 71% of the variation in renal net acid excretion.^{291,295} And, although A:P has not been validated as of yet, results of A:P were very comparable to NEAP and PRAL.

In conclusion, this study shows that an acid-base (un)balanced diet is associated with NAFLD and that differences in sociodemographics, lifestyle, metabolic factors, and dietary quality did not fully explain the observed associations. Though the results should be interpreted in context of a relatively alkaline diet, our findings might explain the previously observed association of an animal protein-rich diet with NAFLD. Future research initiatives should use acid-base biomarkers, such as urinary ammonium,³²² to study low-grade metabolic acidosis more objectively. Nevertheless, dietary recommendations that are in agreement with an acid-base balanced diet, i.e. a diet rich in fruit and vegetables and poor in animal protein, are generally considered beneficial for health. Therefore, adherence to such a diet low in animal protein while awaiting the results of future studies seem justifiable.

Supplementary Methods: details on the multiple imputation process

Variables (range missing values per variable: 0.02 to 10.79%) were imputed using multiple imputation under the fully conditioned specification to reduced bias due to missing data.³⁰¹ Thirty imputed datasets were created using the R package mice,³²³ and analysed separately. Results from these analyses were pooled using Rubin's rules in order to take into account the added uncertainty due to the missing data.²⁵⁴

Supplementary Methods: details on the multiple imputation process

	Multiple imputation
Software used	R version 3.5.0
Imputation method and key settings	Fully conditional specification (package mice version 3.1.0); maximum iterations: 20
No. of imputed data sets created	30
Analyses variables	total cholesterol; triglycerides; calcium intake; high density lipoprotein cholesterol; body mass index; glucose; weight; physical activity; smoking status; systolic blood pressure; diastolic blood pressure; ethnicity; education level; alcohol consumption; fat intake; waist circumference; kilocalorie intake; Dietary Quality; age; anti-diabetic drugs; lipid-lowering drugs; antihypertensive drugs; fibre intake; study cohort; gender; steatosis; protein intake; carbohydrate intake; vitamin E intake; potassium intake; magnesium intake; phosphorus intake; glomerular filtration rate
Auxiliary variables	aspartate transaminase; alanine transaminase; homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; hip circumference; heart rate; spleen size; creatinine; gamma-glutamyltransferase
Treatment of not normally distributed continuous variables	Predictive mean matching
Treatment of normally distributed variables	Linear regression
Treatment of binary/categorical variables	(Proportional odds) logistic regression
Population	For the imputation we used reliable and completed FFQs. In addition participants had to have less than 30% missing on study variables. Imputed population (n=4.754).

Supplementary Table 1: Imputation Characteristics

	Original Data n=3882	After imputation
Demographics		
Age (years)	69.7 (8.8)	no missing data
Female (%)	58.3	no missing data
Caucasian (%)	97.7	97.6
<u>Education Level (%)</u>		
Low	48.4	48.4
Intermediate	30.3	30.3
High	21.3	21.3
<u>Smoking status (%)</u>		
Never / Past or Current	36.7 / 63.3	36.1 / 63.9
Alcohol (units/d)	0.45 (0.05 – 1.19)	no missing data
Physical Activity (METh/wk)	41.3 (15.8 – 78.5)	40.5 (15.8 – 77.7)
Caloric Intake (kcal/day)	2031 (1621 – 2514)	no missing data
DQ	7 (6 – 8)	no missing data
PRAL	-4.7 (-15.4; 4.4)	no missing data
NEAP	35.7 (29.6 – 42.3)	no missing data
A:P	12.7 (10.2 – 15.4)	no missing data
Physical examination		
<u>BMI (kg/m²)</u>	26.9 (24.5 – 29.7)	26.9 (24.5 – 29.7)
Lean (%)	30.2	30.2
Overweight (%)	69.8	69.8
<u>WC (cm)</u>		
Men	98.2 (10.6)	98.2 (10.6)
Women	89.2 (12.2)	no missing data
Biochemistry		
AST (U/L)	24 (21 – 28)	24 (21 – 28)
ALT (U/L)	18 (15 – 24)	18 (15 – 24)
GGT (U/L)	23 (17 – 33)	23 (17 – 34)
Platelets (*10 ⁹ /L)	262 (223 – 305)	262 (223 – 305)
HOMA-IR	2.6 (1.7 – 4.1)	2.6 (1.7 – 4.1)
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.4 (1.1)	5.4 (1.1)
HDL-C (mmol/L)	1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)
GFR	76.1 (65.7 – 85.8)	76.1 (65.6 – 85.8)
Comorbidities		
<u>Metabolic Syndrome (%)</u>		
- WC>88cm (♀) or >120cm (♂)	53.2	53.2
- Triglycerides >150mg/dL	43.2	43.2
- Triglycerides >150mg/dL	46.2	46.0
- HDL-C <40mg/dL (♂) or 50mg/dL (♀)	44.8	44.7

Supplementary Table 1 (continued)

	Original Data n=3882	After imputation
- Blood pressure \geq 130/85mmHg	84.3	84.3
- FG>100mg/dL	46.8	46.8
Diabetes Mellitus (%)	13.2	13.1
Hypertension (%)	74.0	74.0
NAFLD (%)	34.4	no missing data

Data is expressed as mean (SD), median (P25-P75) or percentage.

Abbreviations ALT: alanine aminotransferase; A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; AST: aspartate aminotransferase; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; GGT: gamma-glutamyl-transferase; HDL-C: high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 2: Characteristics of the study population

	No NAFLD n=2545 (65.6%)	NAFLD n=1337 (34.4%)	P-value*
Demographics			
Age (years)	69.6 (9.2)	70.0 (8.2)	0.180
Female (%)	59.1	56.8	0.195
Caucasian (%)	97.4	98.1	0.237
Education Level (%)			
Low	45.0	54.9	<0.001
Intermediate	31.4	28.2	
High	23.6	16.9	
Smoking status (%)			
Never	38.2	32.0	<0.001
Past or Current	61.8	68.0	
Alcohol (units/d)	0.45 (0.06 – 1.21)	0.43 (0.05 – 1.19)	0.422
Physical Activity (METh/wk)	43.7 (17.5 – 81.6)	34.6 (13.5 – 70.3)	<0.001
Energy intake	2052 (1642 – 2537)	1996 (1579 – 2456)	0.003
PRAL (mEq/d)	-5.5 (-16.1; 3.4)	-2.9 (-13.7; 6.1)	<0.001
NEAP (mEq/d)	35.1 (29.2 – 41.6)	37.0 (30.2 – 43.6)	<0.001
A:P (mEq/d)	12.4 (10.0 – 15.0)	13.3 (10.6 – 16.0)	<0.001
Physical examination			
BMI (kg/m ²)	25.8 (23.7 – 28.1)	29.3 (27.0 – 32.3)	<0.001
lean (%)	40.9	9.9	<0.001
overweight (%)	59.1	90.1	
Waist Circumference (cm)	89.1 (11.1)	100.3 (11.4)	<0.001
Biochemistry			
AST (U/L)	24 (21 – 28)	25 (21 – 29)	<0.001
ALT (U/L)	17 (14 – 22)	21 (16 – 29)	<0.001
GGT (U/L)	21 (15 – 30)	28 (20 – 39)	<0.001

Supplementary Table 2 (continued)

	No NAFLD n=2545 (65.6%)	NAFLD n=1337 (34.4%)	P-value*
Platelets (*109/L)	260 (222 – 303)	266 (225 – 310)	0.053
HOMA-IR	2.1 (1.5 – 3.1)	4.1 (2.7 – 6.1)	<0.001
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.5 (1.1)	5.4 (1.1)	0.002
HDL-C (mmol/L)	1.5 (0.4)	1.3 (0.4)	<0.001
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.2 (0.9 – 1.5)	1.6 (1.2 – 2.1)	<0.001
GFR	76 (65 – 85)	76 (66 – 86)	0.272
<60/>60 (%)	15.7 / 84.3	14.9 / 85.1	0.544
Comorbidities			
Metabolic Syndrome	41.7	75.0	<0.001
- Waist Circumference	29.1	69.9	<0.001
- Triglycerides	38.9	59.4	<0.001
- HDL-Cholesterol	38.3	56.7	<0.001
- Blood pressure	80.5	91.4	<0.001
- Fasting Glucose	36.3	66.6	<0.001
Diabetes Mellitus (%)	7.5	23.7	<0.001
Hypertension (%)	68.9	83.7	<0.001

Pooled data based on 30 imputations represent % for categorical variables and for continuous variables mean (SD) or median (P25-P75). *P-value is based on ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test or Chi-square test and is the comparison between the no NAFLD and NAFLD columns.

Abbreviations ALT: alanine aminotransferase; A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; AST: aspartate aminotransferase; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; GGT: gamma-glutamyl-transferase; HDL-C: high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL: potential renal acid load

Supplementary Table 3A: Characteristics per quartile NEAP

	NEAP				P-trend*
	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4	
DAL					
PRAL	-24.1 (-33.6 ; -17.7)	-9.8 (-13.2 ; -6.8)	-0.33 (-2.5 ; 2.2)	10.9 (6.8 ; 17.6)	<0.001
NEAP	25.3 (21.9 – 27.8)	32.7 (31.1 – 34.1)	38.7 (37.2 – 40.4)	47.5 (44.6 – 53.0)	n/a
A:P	9.0 (7.5 – 10.4)	11.7 (10.5 – 13.1)	13.9 (12.5 – 15.3)	17.4 (15.3 – 20.0)	<0.001
Demographics					
Age	71.0 (8.7)	69.6 (8.5)	68.8 (8.8)	69.5 (9.2)	<0.001
Female (%)	68.5	60.8	54.0	49.9	<0.001
Caucasian (%)	97.8	98.2	97.9	96.7	0.160
Education Level (%)					
Low	49.9	49.1	45.2	49.6	0.022
Intermediate	28.2	27.8	33.7	31.5	
High	21.9	23.1	21.1	18.9	

Supplementary Table 3A (continued)

	NEAP				P-trend*
	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4	
Smoking status (%)					0.002
Never	40.8	36.4	34.7	32.5	
Current / Former	59.2	63.6	65.3	67.5	
Alcohol (units/d)	0.36 (0.03 – 1.08)	0.55 (0.09 – 1.25)	0.52 (0.09 – 1.25)	0.39 (0.03 – 1.16)	<0.001
Physical Activity (METh/wk)	43.2 (17.3 – 78.9)	47.1 (18.0 – 84.0)	38.1 (15.0 – 76.0)	33.3 (13.5 – 70.6)	<0.001
Energy intake (Kcal)	2019 (1613 – 2457)	2037 (1665 – 2491)	2066 (1626 – 2532)	2015 (1588 – 2551)	0.525
Physical examination					
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.6 (24.3 – 29.4)	26.6 (24.4 – 29.5)	27.0 (24.6 – 29.7)	27.3 (24.7 – 30.0)	0.012
Biochemistry					
AST (U/L)	24 (21 – 28)	24 (21 – 28)	24 (21 – 28)	25 (21 – 29)	0.357
ALT (U/L)	18 (14 – 23)	18 (14 – 24)	19 (15 – 24)	19 (15 – 25)	<0.001
GGT (U/L)	21 (16 – 30)	22 (17 – 32)	23 (17 – 34)	25 (18 – 37)	<0.001
Platelets (*10 ⁹ /L)	267 (232 – 312)	265 (220 – 303)	259 (220 – 300)	259 (220 – 306)	0.002
HOMA-IR	2.4 (1.7 – 3.6)	2.6 (1.7 – 4.0)	2.6 (1.8 – 4.1)	2.9 (1.9 – 4.7)	<0.001
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.6 (1.1)	5.5 (1.1)	5.4 (1.1)	5.3 (1.1)	<0.001
HDL-C (mmol/L)	1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)	1.4 (0.4)	<0.001
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.2 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.8)	0.708
GFR	76 (65 – 85)	77 (66 – 86)	76 (66 – 86)	76 (65 – 86)	0.898
Comorbidities					
Metabolic Syndrome	49.9	51.1	54.9	56.6	0.009
- Waist Circumference	40.6	42.6	43.8	45.8	0.131
- Triglycerides	43.1	44.5	48.3	48.1	0.045
- HDL-Cholesterol	41.9	43.2	46.0	47.5	0.050
- Blood pressure	86.2	83.8	82.5	84.6	0.150
- Fasting Glucose	40.4	46.6	46.6	53.5	<0.001
Diabetes Mellitus (%)	11.2	12.5	11.7	17.1	<0.001
Hypertension (%)	75.9	72.9	71.8	75.3	0.131
NAFLD	31.0	31.5	35.8	39.4	<0.001

Data is expressed as mean (SD), median (P25-P75) or percentage. *P-value is based on ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test or Chi-square test.

Abbreviations ALT: alanine aminotransferase; A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; AST: aspartate aminotransferase; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; GGT: gamma-glutamyl-transferase; HDL-C: high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL: potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 3B: Characteristics per quartile AP-ratio

	A:P				P-trend*
	Quartile 1	Quartile 2	Quartile 3	Quartile 4	
DAL					
PRAL	-21.4 (-32.4 ; -13.0)	-10.4 (-16.4 ; -3.9)	-1.7 (-6.8 ; 3.1)	9.2 (3.5 ; 16.4)	<0.001
NEAP	26.1 (21.9 – 30.2)	32.4 (29.5 – 36.0)	37.7 (34.6 – 41.1)	46.2 (42.2 – 52.1)	<0.001
A:P	8.5 (7.2 – 9.5)	11.4 (10.8 – 12.0)	13.9 (13.3 – 14.6)	17.8 (16.4 – 20.1)	n/a
Demographics					
Age	69.9 (8.9)	69.2 (8.6)	69.4 (9.0)	70.4 (8.9)	0.009
Female (%)	63.5	57.3	57.1	55.3	0.001
Caucasian (%)	96.6	98.3	97.6	97.9	0.116
<u>Education Level (%)</u>					
Low	49.0	45.2	45.6	53.9	<0.001
Intermediate	28.1	31.7	31.2	30.2	
High	22.9	23.1	23.2	15.9	
<u>Smoking status (%)</u>					
Never	40.1	38.2	35.7	30.4	<0.001
Current / Former	59.9	61.8	64.3	69.6	
Alcohol (units/d)	0.38 (0.03 – 1.11)	0.52 (0.09 – 1.22)	0.45 (0.07 – 1.24)	0.45 (0.04 – 1.18)	0.002
Physical Activity (METh/wk)	45.0 (18.0 – 82.8)	44.4 (18.0 – 82.2)	36.8 (14.5 – 74.5)	32.2 (13.5 – 73.2)	<0.001
Energy intake (kcal)	2099 (1702 – 2598)	2063 (1686 – 2505)	2022 (1611 – 2526)	1940 (1504 – 2405)	<0.001
Physical Examination					
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.0 (23.9 – 28.9)	26.9 (24.5 – 29.4)	27.0 (24.8 – 29.8)	27.5 (24.9 – 30.5)	<0.001
Biochemistry					
AST (U/L)	24 (21 – 28)	24 (21 – 28)	24 (21 – 29)	24 (21 – 28)	0.605
ALT (U/L)	18 (14 – 23)	18 (14 – 23)	19 (15 – 24)	19 (15 – 25)	0.004
GGT (U/L)	21 (16 – 31)	22 (16 – 31)	24 (17 – 35)	25 (18 – 36)	<0.001
Platelets (*10 ⁹ /L)	268 (228 – 308)	261 (225 – 304)	259 (219 – 304)	261 (221 – 305)	0.054
HOMA-IR	2.3 (1.6 – 3.5)	2.5 (1.8 – 3.8)	2.7 (1.8 – 4.2)	2.9 (1.8 – 4.7)	<0.001
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.5 (1.1)	5.5 (1.1)	5.4 (1.1)	5.3 (1.1)	<0.001
HDL-C (mmol/L)	1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)	1.5 (0.4)	1.4 (0.4)	0.012
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.2 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.7)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.8)	1.3 (1.0 – 1.8)	0.053
GFR	77 (66 – 86)	77 (66 – 85)	75 (66 – 86)	75 (64 – 85)	0.241
Comorbidities					
<u>Metabolic Syndrome</u>					
- Waist Circumference	45.3	52.0	55.6	59.7	<0.001
- Triglycerides	35.0	41.4	45.7	50.5	<0.001
- HDL-Cholesterol	40.9	45.3	48.1	49.7	<0.001
- HDL-Cholesterol	39.5	44.7	46.5	48.0	0.001
- Blood pressure	83.4	83.0	84.9	85.9	0.276
- Fasting Glucose	37.7	46.4	49.7	53.3	<0.001
Diabetes Mellitus (%)	10.1	12.1	13.6	16.6	<0.001
Hypertension (%)	71.4	71.5	76.0	77.0	0.005
NAFLD	28.9	31.8	35.7	41.3	<0.001

Data is expressed as mean (SD), median (P25-P75) or percentage. *P-value is based on ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test or Chi-square test.

Abbreviations ALT: alanine aminotransferase; A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; AST: aspartate aminotransferase; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; GGT: gamma-glutamyl-transferase; HDL-C: high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HOMA-IR: homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 4: Logistic regression analyses of DAL-residuals with outcome variable NAFLD

	Total population (n=3882)		
	Q2 (n=970)	Q3 (n=971)	Q4 (n=970)
PRAL n per quartile			
NEAP n per quartile			
A:P n per quartile			
Model 1 (sociodemographic)			
PRAL	0.98 (0.81 – 1.20)	1.16 (0.96 – 1.41)	1.37 (1.13 – 1.66)†
NEAP	1.03 (0.85 – 1.25)	1.25 (1.04 – 1.52)†	1.40 (1.16 – 1.69)†
A:P	1.16 (0.96 – 1.41)	1.37 (1.13 – 1.66)†	1.61 (1.33 – 1.95)†
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	0.98 (0.81 – 1.19)	1.14 (0.94 – 1.39)	1.33 (1.10 – 1.62)†
NEAP	1.03 (0.85 – 1.25)	1.24 (1.02 – 1.50)	1.36 (1.12 – 1.65)†
A:P	1.16 (0.95 – 1.41)	1.33 (1.10 – 1.62)†	1.56 (1.29 – 1.89)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.97 (0.78 – 1.22)	1.10 (0.88 – 1.38)	1.23 (0.98 – 1.54)
NEAP	0.98 (0.78 – 1.22)	1.19 (0.96 – 1.49)	1.25 (1.00 – 1.56)
A:P	1.01 (0.81 – 1.27)	1.13 (0.90 – 1.41)	1.23 (0.98 – 1.53)
Model 4 (metabolic + DQ)			
PRAL	0.97 (0.77 – 1.22)	1.10 (0.88 – 1.38)	1.23 (0.97 – 1.55)
NEAP	0.98 (0.78 – 1.23)	1.20 (0.96 – 1.50)	1.25 (1.00 – 1.58)
A:P	1.01 (0.81 – 1.27)	1.13 (0.90 – 1.41)	1.23 (0.97 – 1.55)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals taking quartile 1 as reference. **Bold** values indicate $P < 0.05$. † Indicates significant values using $P < 0.028$ as determined by Sidák.

Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for age, gender, education level, energy intake and study cohort **Model 2** (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity **Model 3** (metabolic) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides, metabolic syndrome, GFR, diabetes mellitus and log-transformed BMI **Model 4** (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for DQ.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 5: Logistic regression analyses of DAL associations with outcome variable NAFLD stratified by sex

	Men (n=1619)		
	Q2 (n=364)	Q3 (n=438)	Q4 (n=502)
PRAL n per quartile			
NEAP n per quartile			
A:P n per quartile			
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	0.95 (0.68 – 1.33)	1.20 (0.87 – 1.64)	1.42 (1.05 – 1.93)†
NEAP	1.12 (0.80 – 1.55)	1.34 (0.98 – 1.85)	1.49 (1.09 – 2.04)†
A:P	1.35 (0.98 – 1.85)	1.59 (1.16 – 2.18)†	1.87 (1.37 – 2.55)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.90 (0.61 – 1.33)	1.14 (0.79 – 1.63)	1.30 (0.92 – 1.85)
NEAP	0.97 (0.66 – 1.42)	1.35 (0.94 – 1.94)	1.34 (0.93 – 1.91)
A:P	1.06 (0.74 – 1.52)	1.31 (0.92 – 1.87)	1.45 (1.02 – 2.07)
	Women (n=2263)		
	Q2 (n=606)	Q3 (n=533)	Q4 (n=468)
PRAL n per quartile			
NEAP n per quartile			
A:P n per quartile			
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	1.02 (0.80 – 1.30)	1.05 (0.81 – 1.34)	1.34 (1.04 – 1.72)†
NEAP	1.00 (0.79 – 1.28)	1.15 (0.90 – 1.47)	1.28 (1.00 – 1.65)
A:P	1.05 (0.82 – 1.36)	1.20 (0.93 – 1.54)	1.42 (1.11 – 1.82)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.99 (0.75 – 1.32)	1.04 (0.78 – 1.40)	1.22 (0.90 – 1.65)
NEAP	0.98 (0.74 – 1.30)	1.08 (0.81 – 1.45)	1.17 (0.87 – 1.58)
A:P	0.91 (0.68 – 1.22)	0.94 (0.70 – 1.26)	1.08 (0.81 – 1.46)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals taking quartile 1 as reference. P-trend is calculated across the quartiles. Bold values indicate $P < 0.05$. † Indicates significant values using $P < 0.028$ as determined by Sidák. Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for age, education level, energy intake and study cohort Model 2 (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity Model 3 (metabolic) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides, metabolic syndrome, GFR, diabetes mellitus and BMI Model 4 (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to the previous model adjust for DQ.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 6: Logistic regression analyses of DAL associations with outcome variable NAFLD stratified by study cohort

RS-cohort I (n=1069)			
	Q2 (n=259)	Q3 (n=259)	Q4 (n=263)
PRAL n per quartile	(n=259)	(n=234)	(n=263)
NEAP n per quartile	(n=259)	(n=234)	(n=263)
A:P n per quartile	(n=239)	(n=262)	(n=283)
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	0.93 (0.64 – 1.34)	0.92 (0.63 – 1.34)	1.07 (0.74 – 1.54)
NEAP	1.10 (0.77 – 1.57)	1.08 (0.74 – 1.55)	1.10 (0.77 – 1.57)
A:P	1.21 (0.83 – 1.76)	1.11 (0.77 – 1.60)	1.45 (1.02 – 2.07)
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	1.03 (0.67 – 1.58)	1.00 (0.64 – 1.55)	1.19 (0.77 – 1.83)
NEAP	1.13 (0.74 – 1.72)	1.14 (0.73 – 1.76)	1.22 (0.80 – 1.86)
A:P	1.22 (0.78 – 1.90)	1.05 (0.68 – 1.62)	1.40 (0.92 – 2.13)
RS-cohort II (n=1183)			
	Q2 (n=303)	Q3 (n=315)	Q4 (n=270)
PRAL n per quartile	(n=284)	(n=295)	(n=289)
NEAP n per quartile	(n=284)	(n=295)	(n=289)
A:P n per quartile	(n=297)	(n=281)	(n=316)
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	1.00 (0.70 – 1.42)	1.32 (0.93 – 1.87)	1.73 (1.21 – 2.46)†
NEAP	0.99 (0.69 – 1.40)	1.31 (0.93 – 1.85)	1.65 (1.17 – 2.32)†
A:P	1.10 (0.77 – 1.57)	1.61 (1.13 – 2.29)†	1.70 (1.20 – 2.40)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.75 (0.49 – 1.15)	1.20 (0.80 – 1.82)	1.43 (0.94 – 2.19)
NEAP	0.76 (0.50 – 1.16)	1.14 (0.76 – 1.70)	1.43 (0.95 – 2.16)
A:P	0.77 (0.51 – 1.18)	1.22 (0.80 – 1.86)	1.11 (0.73 – 1.68)
RS-cohort III (n=1630)			
	Q2 (n=408)	Q3 (n=397)	Q4 (n=437)
PRAL n per quartile	(n=427)	(n=442)	(n=418)
NEAP n per quartile	(n=427)	(n=442)	(n=418)
A:P n per quartile	(n=434)	(n=428)	(n=371)
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	1.05 (0.77 – 1.44)	1.10 (0.80 – 1.51)	1.44 (1.07 – 1.95)†
NEAP	1.00 (0.73 – 1.38)	1.24 (0.90 – 1.69)	1.40 (1.02 – 1.92)
A:P	1.12 (0.83 – 1.52)	1.30 (0.96 – 1.77)	1.61 (1.18 – 2.19)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	1.12 (0.79 – 1.60)	1.03 (0.73 – 1.47)	1.24 (0.88 – 1.76)
NEAP	1.01 (0.71 – 1.45)	1.19 (0.83 – 1.69)	1.16 (0.81 – 1.67)
A:P	0.94 (0.66 – 1.33)	1.03 (0.73 – 1.45)	1.18 (0.83 – 1.69)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals taking quartile 1 as reference. Bold values indicate $P < 0.05$.

† Indicates significant values using $P < 0.028$ as determined by Sidák.

Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for age, gender, education level and energy intake Model 2 (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity Model 3

(metabolic) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides, metabolic syndrome, GFR, diabetes mellitus and BMI Model 4 (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to the previous model adjust for DQ. Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 7: Logistic regression analyses of DAL associations with outcome variable NAFLD stratified by GFR (cut-off 60)

GFR < 60 (n=597)			
	Q2 (n=147)	Q3 (n=143)	Q4 (n=162)
PRAL n per quartile	(n=147)	(n=143)	(n=162)
NEAP n per quartile	(n=142)	(n=149)	(n=156)
A:P n per quartile	(n=144)	(n=144)	(n=174)
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	1.00 (0.59 – 1.69)	0.98 (0.58 – 1.68)	1.49 (0.90 – 2.47)
NEAP	0.89 (0.53 – 1.51)	1.09 (0.66 – 1.82)	1.23 (0.75 – 2.02)
A:P	1.08 (0.63 – 1.86)	1.33 (0.78 – 2.26)	1.66 (1.00 – 2.74)
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	1.05 (0.57 – 1.91)	1.01 (0.55 – 1.87)	1.81 (1.01 – 3.24)
NEAP	0.86 (0.47 – 1.56)	1.25 (0.70 – 2.23)	1.40 (0.79 – 2.49)
A:P	1.11 (0.60 – 2.05)	1.39 (0.75 – 2.55)	1.68 (0.94 – 2.99)
GFR > 60 (n=3285)			
	Q2 (n=823)	Q3 (n=828)	Q4 (n=808)
PRAL n per quartile	(n=823)	(n=828)	(n=808)
NEAP n per quartile	(n=828)	(n=822)	(n=814)
A:P n per quartile	(n=826)	(n=827)	(n=796)
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	0.99 (0.80 – 1.22)	1.14 (0.92 – 1.41)	1.37 (1.11 – 1.69)†
NEAP	1.05 (0.85 – 1.30)	1.25 (1.02 – 1.55)	1.38 (1.12 – 1.70)†
A:P	1.16 (0.94 – 1.43)	1.34 (1.08 – 1.65)†	1.56 (1.27 – 1.93)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.96 (0.75 – 1.23)	1.09 (0.86 – 1.39)	1.18 (0.92 – 1.50)
NEAP	0.99 (0.78 – 1.27)	1.16 (0.91 – 1.48)	1.20 (0.94 – 1.53)
A:P	0.93 (0.73 – 1.18)	1.04 (0.82 – 1.33)	1.13 (0.88 – 1.44)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals taking quartile 1 as reference. P-trend is calculated across the quartiles. Bold values indicate $P < 0.05$. † Indicates significant values using $P < 0.028$ as determined by Sidák. Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for age, gender, education level, energy intake and study cohort Model 2 (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity Model 3 (metabolic) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides, metabolic syndrome, diabetes mellitus and BMI Model 4 (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to the previous model adjust for DQ.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 8: Logistic regression analyses of DAL associations with outcome variable NAFLD stratified by age (cut-off 65 years)

Age <65 years old (n=1160)			
	Q2 (n=281)	Q3 (n=276)	Q4 (n=333)
PRAL n per quartile	(n=289)	(n=318)	(n=319)
NEAP n per quartile	(n=301)	(n=311)	(n=257)
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	1.14 (0.78 – 1.68)	1.32 (0.90 – 1.94)	1.58 (1.10 – 2.28)†
NEAP	1.06 (0.71 – 1.57)	1.33 (0.91 – 1.96)	1.47 (1.00 – 2.16)
A:P	1.14 (0.78 – 1.64)	1.33 (0.93 – 1.92)	1.63 (1.13 – 2.37)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	1.28 (0.83 – 1.98)	1.29 (0.83 – 1.98)	1.39 (0.92 – 2.12)
NEAP	1.12 (0.71 – 1.76)	1.36 (0.88 – 2.09)	1.29 (0.83 – 2.00)
A:P	0.99 (0.65 – 1.50)	1.100 (0.73 – 1.66)	1.23 (0.80 – 1.88)
Age ≥ 65 years old (n=2722)			
	Q2 (n=689)	Q3 (n=695)	Q4 (n=637)
PRAL n per quartile	(n=681)	(n=653)	(n=651)
NEAP n per quartile	(n=669)	(n=660)	(n=713)
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	0.94 (0.75 – 1.18)	1.05 (0.83 – 1.32)	1.34 (1.07 – 1.69)†
NEAP	1.02 (0.81 – 1.28)	1.19 (0.95 – 1.49)	1.34 (1.07 – 1.68)†
A:P	1.14 (0.90 – 1.44)	1.33 (1.06 – 1.68)†	1.56 (1.24 – 1.95)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.87 (0.66 – 1.13)	1.01 (0.77 – 1.32)	1.26 (0.96 – 1.65)
NEAP	0.92 (0.71 – 1.20)	1.10 (0.84 – 1.43)	1.27 (0.97 – 1.65)
A:P	0.94 (0.72 – 1.23)	1.10 (0.84 – 1.44)	1.21 (0.93 – 1.58)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals taking quartile 1 as reference. *P*-trend is calculated across the quartiles. **Bold** values indicate $P < 0.05$. † Indicates significant values using $P < 0.028$ as determined by Sidák.

Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for gender, education level, energy intake and study cohort **Model 2** (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity **Model 3** (metabolic) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides, metabolic syndrome, GFR, diabetes mellitus and BMI **Model 4** (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to the previous model adjust for DQ.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Supplementary Table 9: Logistic regression analyses of DAL associations with outcome variable NAFLD stratified by BMI (cut-off 25)

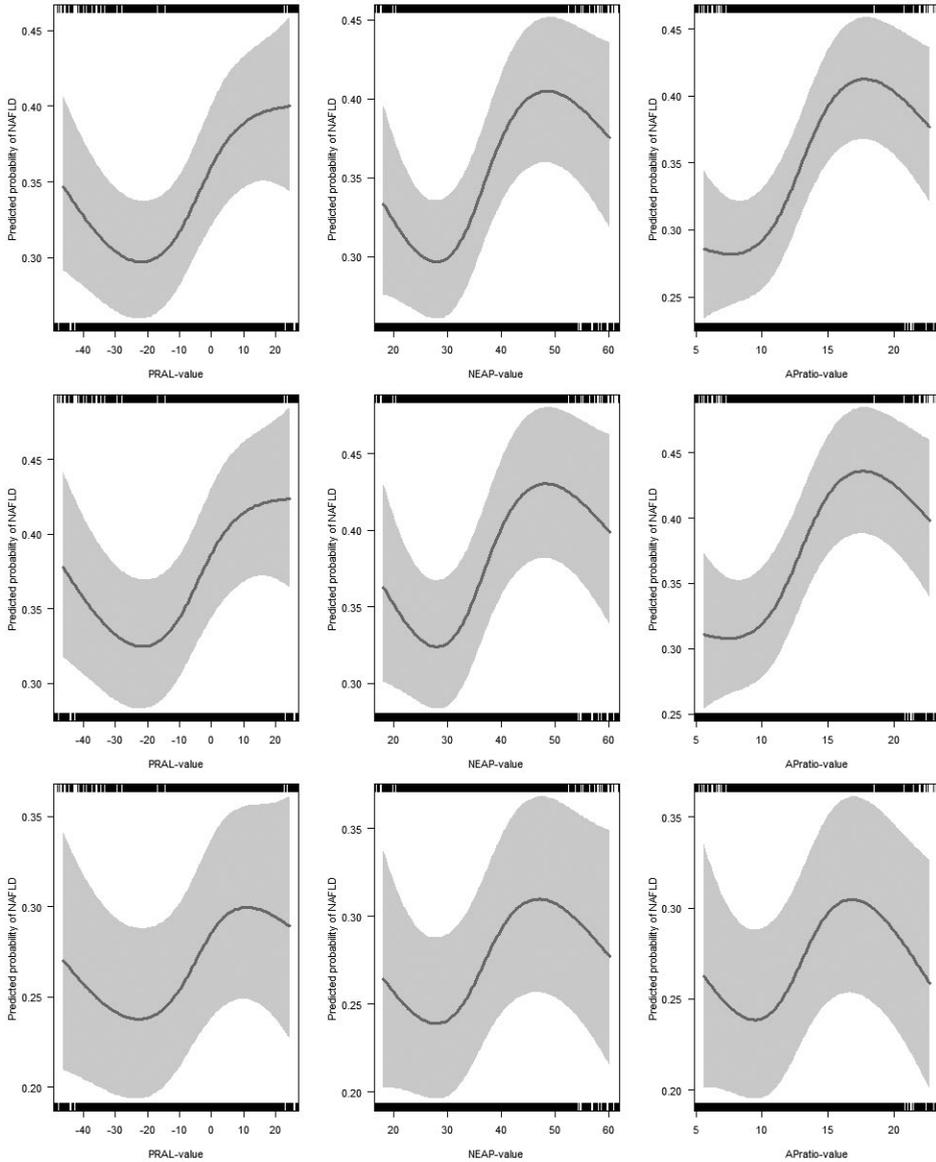
BMI < 25 kg/m ² (n=1174)			
	Q2 (n=296)	Q3 (n=285)	Q4 (n=267)
PRAL n per quartile			
NEAP n per quartile			
A:P n per quartile			
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	1.20 (0.71 – 2.05)	1.11 (0.64 – 1.92)	1.53 (0.91 – 2.58)
NEAP	1.41 (0.82 – 2.41)	1.30 (0.74 – 2.29)	1.70 (0.99 – 2.90)
A:P	1.32 (0.79 – 2.19)	1.18 (0.69 – 2.02)	1.63 (0.98 – 2.70)
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	1.15 (0.67 – 1.99)	1.00 (0.57 – 1.78)	1.62 (0.95 – 2.78)
NEAP	1.35 (0.78 – 2.36)	1.18 (0.66 – 2.12)	1.82 (1.05 – 3.18)
A:P	1.19 (0.70 – 2.03)	1.08 (0.62 – 1.89)	1.60 (0.95 – 2.70)
BMI ≥ 25 kg/m ² (n=2708)			
	Q2 (n=674)	Q3 (n=686)	Q4 (n=703)
PRAL n per quartile			
NEAP n per quartile			
A:P n per quartile			
Model 2 (lifestyle)			
PRAL	0.91 (0.73 – 1.14)	1.10 (0.88 – 1.38)	1.32 (1.06 – 1.65)†
NEAP	0.95 (0.76 – 1.19)	1.16 (0.93 – 1.45)	1.31 (1.05 – 1.64)†
A:P	0.94 (0.75 – 1.18)	1.13 (0.90 – 1.41)	1.34 (1.07 – 1.68)†
Model 3 (metabolic)			
PRAL	0.88 (0.69 – 1.13)	1.11 (0.87 – 1.41)	1.22 (0.96 – 1.55)
NEAP	0.92 (0.72 – 1.17)	1.21 (0.96 – 1.53)	1.20 (0.96 – 1.53)
A:P	0.92 (0.72 – 1.17)	1.10 (0.86 – 1.39)	1.25 (0.98 – 1.59)

Values are odds ratios with 95% confidence intervals taking quartile 1 as reference. *P*-trend is calculated across the quartiles.

Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for age, gender, education level, energy intake and study cohort

Model 2 (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity **Model 3** (metabolic) is in addition to the previous model adjusted for HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides metabolic syndrome, GFR and diabetes mellitus **Model 4** (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to the previous model adjust for DQ.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.



Supplementary Figure 1: Natural cubic splines for the association of DAL-proxies with predicted probability of NAFLD in model 1, 2, and 4

Model 1 (socio-demographic) is adjusted for age, gender, education level, energy intake and study cohort

Model 2 (lifestyle) is in addition previous model adjusted for past or current smoking, units of alcohol, and physical activity

Model 4 (metabolic + DQ) is in addition to model 2 adjusted for BMI, HDL-cholesterol, triglycerides, metabolic syndrome, GFR, diabetes mellitus, and DQ.

Abbreviations A:P: animal protein to potassium ratio; BMI: body mass index; DAL: dietary acid load; DQ: dietary quality; GFR: glomerular filtration rate; NAFLD: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NEAP: net endogenous acid production; PRAL; potential renal acid load.

Comparison model with DAL-proxy vs model without DAL-proxy

- A. (Sociodemographic) model 1 (PRAL: $P=7.4e^{-5}$, NEAP: $P=1.2e^{-5}$, and A:P: $P=1.9e^{-8}$).
- B. (Lifestyle) model 2 (PRAL: $P=2.3e^{-4}$, NEAP: $P=4.0e^{-5}$, and A:P: $P=1.3e^{-7}$)
- C. (Metabolic + DQ) model 4 (PRAL: $P=0.043$, NEAP: $P=0.017$, and A:P: $P=0.014$)