

Nutrición Hospitalaria



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Sociedad Española de Nutrición Clínica y Metabolismo ■ Sociedad Española de Nutrición ■ Federación Latino Americana de Nutrición Parenteral y Enteral ■ Federación Española de Sociedades de Nutrición, Alimentación y Dietética

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La importancia de los lácteos en la dieta: más allá del hueso

The importance of dairy products in the diet: beyond bone

Numerosos trabajos han demostrado los beneficios sobre el metabolismo óseo del consumo de lácteos en las poblaciones, por su aporte en calcio, vitamina D y proteínas que favorecen la mineralización ósea (1). Los estudios observacionales indican que el consumo de lácteos se asocia a un riesgo disminuido de obesidad tanto en población infantil como adulta y a un efecto entre neutro y beneficioso sobre el riesgo cardiometabólico (2-4). En España, la ingesta de lácteos se relaciona con una menor prevalencia de obesidad e hipertensión en la población general (5).

Por otra parte, los ensayos clínicos controlados con dietas hipocalóricas han hallado que la ingesta de lácteos ayuda a disminuir de peso, mientras que con dietas sin restricción calórica el efecto es el contrario, aunque el aumento de peso, en este caso, se hace a expensas de la masa magra (6).

En cuanto a los efectos de los lácteos sobre la salud infanto-juvenil, ya desde estas páginas Santaliesstra-Pasías y cols. (7) se preguntaban en 2016 si el consumo de lácteos durante la infancia y la adolescencia protegía del riesgo cardiometabólico. Debido a la existencia de estudios con resultados no concluyentes o contradictorios, llegaron a la conclusión de que eran necesarios más estudios, especialmente ensayos clínicos controlados, para poder llegar a conclusiones válidas al respecto.

A pesar de la existencia de varios mecanismos por los cuales los lácteos podrían modificar la adiposidad y la composición corporal, la mayor parte de los ensayos clínicos realizados en niños no encuentran cambios en estos parámetros (1). Sin embargo, muchos de estos estudios tienen tamaños muestrales reducidos o no comprueban la ingesta efectiva de lácteos en la cantidad aconsejada, por lo que el tema dista mucho de estar resuelto.

En este contexto, el trabajo de Radilla Vázquez y cols. (8), que pueden encontrar en las páginas de este número de Nutrición Hospitalaria, plantea un ensayo clínico comunitario aleatorizado con un elevado número de adolescentes a los que, por medio de una intervención educativa, se les induce a aumentar el consumo de lácteos. La monitorización de la intervención por medio de encuestas de consumo mide la efectividad del programa y aporta fuerte evidencia de que los resultados son efecto de la intervención: el aumento del consumo de lácteos disminuye la probabilidad de ser obeso en población juvenil.

Este estudio, junto con toda la evidencia epidemiológica y experimental acumulada en los últimos años, pone de manifiesto la importancia de los lácteos en una dieta saludable, en un contexto como el presente, en el que han surgido multitud de productos que intentan sustituirlos como opciones más saludables sin base científica alguna.

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Trabajo Original

Nutrición artificial

Nutritional profile and mortality in patients undergoing percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy

Perfil nutricional y mortalidad en pacientes sometidos a gastrostomía endoscópica percutánea

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Abstract

Background: malnutrition is a common problem in hospitalized patients, being associated with increased morbidity, mortality and costs. Multiple factors contribute to a deficient nutritional status, making malnutrition the cause or consequence of severe diseases. Percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy (PEG) is a minimally invasive procedure indicated for long-term administration of enteral nutrition in patients with limited ability for oral intake who have an intact, functional gastrointestinal tract. The aim of this study was to determine the profile of patients undergoing PEG in a tertiary hospital in southern Brazil.

Methods: single-center retrospective study of all patients who underwent PEG from January 1st to December 31st, 2016, in a private tertiary hospital located in southern Brazil. Data were collected retrospectively from the patients' medical records, including nutritional status, indications, complications and outcomes.

Results: one hundred and thirty-three patients underwent PEG at our institution and were eligible for inclusion in the study. Median patient age was 82 years, and 57.9% were females. The main indication for PEG was dementia syndrome, followed by stroke. As much as 68.4% were diagnosed as severely malnourished and 23.0% had procedure-related complications.

Conclusions: PEG tubes are being increasingly used for enteral nutrition in patients with dysphagia or inability to maintain adequate nutritional intake. The findings of the present study highlight the importance of regular nutritional risk screening by a multidisciplinary team, paying special attention to the patient's nutritional status and conditions that may place the patient at risk of developing dysphagia, with the implementation of measures to minimize malnutrition in hospitalized patients.

Key words:

Percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy.
Enteral nutrition.
Nutritional support.
Complications.

Resumen

Introducción: la desnutrición es común en pacientes hospitalizados y se está convirtiendo en causa o consecuencia de enfermedades graves, asociándose a morbilidad, mortalidad y costos aumentados. Múltiples factores contribuyen a un estado nutricional deficiente. La gastrostomía endoscópica percutánea (PEG) es un procedimiento mínimamente invasivo para la administración de nutrición enteral en pacientes con capacidad limitada de ingesta oral que tengan el tracto gastrointestinal intacto y funcional. El objetivo de este estudio fue determinar el perfil de pacientes sometidos a PEG en un hospital terciario del sur de Brasil.

Métodos: estudio retrospectivo unicéntrico de todos los pacientes sometidos a PEG del 1 de enero al 31 de diciembre de 2016 en un hospital terciario privado del sur de Brasil. Se recolectaron los datos retrospectivamente en los registros médicos, incluyendo estado nutricional, indicaciones, complicaciones y evolución.

Resultados: ciento treinta y tres pacientes se sometieron a PEG en nuestra institución y fueron elegibles para el estudio. La edad mediana fue de 82 años y el 57,9% eran mujeres. Las principales indicaciones para PEG fueron demencia y accidente cerebrovascular. El 68,4% fueron diagnosticados con desnutrición grave y el 23,0% presentaron complicaciones relacionadas al procedimiento.

Conclusiones: se utilizan cada vez más tubos de PEG para nutrición enteral en pacientes disfágicos o incapaces de mantener una ingesta nutricional adecuada. Nuestros hallazgos señalan la importancia del cribado para riesgo nutricional por un equipo multidisciplinario, con atención especial al estado nutricional del paciente y a condiciones que pueden ponerlo en riesgo para disfagia y la implementación de medidas para minimizar la desnutrición.

Palabras clave:

Gastrostomía endoscópica percutánea.
Nutrición enteral.
Apoyo nutricional.
Complicaciones.

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INTRODUCTION

Malnutrition is a common problem in hospitalized patients, being associated with increased morbidity, mortality and costs (1,2). Multiple factors contribute to a deficient nutritional status, making malnutrition the cause or consequence of severe diseases. In the hospital setting, the suboptimal prescription of oral, enteral or parenteral nutrition as well as its recognition by the care team have become a matter of concern. Critical clinical conditions predispose individuals to a variety of metabolic and immune responses, leading to lean mass loss, delayed healing, immobility, susceptibility to infections and cognitive impairment (3).

In addition to critical illness, there has been a progressive increase in the age of hospitalized patients, as well as an increase in the diagnosis of neurological diseases and their complications. In 2010, the worldwide prevalence of dementia was estimated at 35.6 million people, and this number is expected to double every 20 years. It is estimated that 4.4 million people live with dementia in the United States, and one million people in Brazil (4). Loss of appetite and dysphagia are characteristics of advanced dementia, placing these patients at increased risk of dehydration, malnutrition, and aspiration of food and liquids, thus requiring intervention (5,6).

Furthermore, besides dementia syndrome, cases of stroke are commonly reported in hospitalized patients. Despite the advances in medical therapies and rehabilitation programs, stroke remains a leading cause of disability in these patients, requiring extensive care. Dysphagia is a common consequence in stroke patients, increasing the risk of malnutrition, which is directly related to increased morbidity and mortality (7-9).

In addition to the complex debate over the terminal nature of dementia and other advanced diseases, there are moral, ethical, religious and medical issues related to the risks and benefits of alternative feeding methods in these patients. In selected cases, maintaining oral nutrition may be the option of choice for comfort care. However, for patients with longer life expectancy and at increased risk of aspiration pneumonia or other complications, enteral feeding may be an option (10-12).

Regular nutritional risk screening allows early identification of patients who are unable to meet their nutritional needs by oral intake alone, thus guiding nutritional support measures. Patients with inadequate oral intake (<60% of the energy and protein requirements for two days) should be monitored and referred for complementary diagnosis. The interaction between members of multidisciplinary nutrition support teams has proven highly valuable in the assessment, diagnosis and prevention of complications in hospitalized patients (13,14).

Percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy (PEG) is a minimally invasive procedure indicated for long-term administration of enteral nutrition in patients with limited ability for oral intake, who have an intact, functional gastrointestinal tract (15).

The aim of this study was to determine the profile of patients undergoing PEG in a tertiary hospital in southern Brazil.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This was a single-center retrospective study of all patients who underwent PEG from January 1st to December 31st, 2016, at a private tertiary hospital located in Porto Alegre, southern Brazil. Data were collected retrospectively from the patients' medical records. Patients with a PEG tube who underwent the procedure during the study period for tube replacement were excluded.

The PEG technique used in all patients was the pull method described by Gauderer-Ponsky in 1980 (16). Commercially available PEG kits from different manufacturers were used. All patients received antibiotic prophylaxis with first-generation cephalosporin (cefazolin 1 g intravenously), given up to 30 minutes prior to the procedure, except when patients were already receiving broad-spectrum antibiotics for the treatment of other infections (17).

The following data were collected for analysis: length of hospital stay, subjective global assessment (SGA) of nutritional status, indication for PEG, assessment by a speech therapist prior to the indication for the PEG procedure, previous use (and duration of use if applicable) of nasogastric feeding tubes, time to start enteral feeding after the PEG procedure, occurrence (and time to the development if applicable) of complications, and outcome (discharge or death).

Complications occurring until the outcome (discharge or death) were evaluated and classified as major (buried bumper syndrome, necrotizing fasciitis, peritonitis, bronchoaspiration, metastatic implantation at the stoma site, perforation of hollow viscera or solid organs, major bleeding, extensive or massive hematomas of the gastric or abdominal wall, gastrocutaneous fistula, and early accidental dislodgement of the PEG tube) or minor (peristomal infection, puncture site pain, extravasation of gastric contents, stoma enlargement, dermatitis, overgranulation, minor bleeding, small hematomas, temporary ileus, gastric outlet obstruction, late accidental dislodgement of the PEG tube, and persistent gastrocutaneous fistula after removal of the PEG tube), and as early (within 15 days of PEG) or late (after 15 days of PEG).

All collected data were stored in a password-protected database accessible only to the researchers in the study. Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS, version 20.0. Continuous variables were expressed as mean and standard deviation (SD) or median and interquartile range (IQR). Categorical variables were expressed as numbers and percentages. Continuous variables were compared using Student's *t* test or Mann-Whitney test. The Chi-square test or Fisher's exact test were used to assess potential associations between categorical variables. A *p*-value < 0.05 was considered as significant for all analyses.

The study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee. Informed consent was waived due to the non-interventional design of the study and retrospective nature of data collection.

RESULTS

During the study period, 133 patients underwent PEG at our institution and were eligible for inclusion in the study. Median patient age was 82 years (IQR, 76-89 years), and most participants (57.9%) were females. The main indication for PEG was dementia syndrome, followed by stroke (Table I).

A total of 91 (68.4%) patients were diagnosed as severely malnourished, i.e., were classified as SGA-C, and 39 (29.3%) were diagnosed as mildly malnourished (SGA-B).

The median time from hospital admission to the PEG procedure was < 30 days both for severely malnourished patients and for mildly malnourished or well-nourished patients. Patients developed procedure-related complications in 23.0% of cases, most of which (77.0%) within 15 days of PEG. The most common complication was peristomal infection (23.0%), followed by extravasation of gastric contents (20.0%) and accidental dislodgement of the PEG tube (17.0%) (Fig. 1). Only seven patients had major complications: two cases of aspiration of gastric contents, four cases of buried bumper syndrome, and one case of necrotizing fasciitis. None of these cases resulted in death. There was no difference in the rate of complications between patients who started feeding within four hours and after four hours of the PEG procedure.

The median follow-up was 45 days (IQR, 24-104 days). There were 28 deaths, which were secondary to complications of the underlying disease. When severely malnourished (SGA-C) patients were compared with all others, there was a significant difference in mortality: 26.0% of patients classified as SGA-C died, against 9.5% of patients classified as SGA-A or SGA-B ($p = 0.04$) (Table I). Time from the PEG procedure to death did not differ between the groups.

DISCUSSION

PEG tubes are being increasingly used for enteral nutrition in patients with dysphagia or inability to maintain adequate nutritional intake. However, despite this perception, there is a paucity of data from the Brazilian population (18-21).

Although it is known that aging causes varying degrees of anorexia, resulting from the cumulative effects of comorbidities, medications, lifestyle changes, and social and environmental factors (23), we observed that the process of malnutrition in older patients has not been given the same attention as that given to the treatment of other organic diseases. Because not all outpatients are routinely assessed by a nutritionist and their nutritional status is a poorly explored topic in medical evaluations, there is a delay in the identification of insufficient dietary intake in most cases, which also delays the initiation of nutritional intervention. Likewise, malnutrition identified in the hospital setting is often neglected and may adversely affect the outcome of hospitalization, worsening the

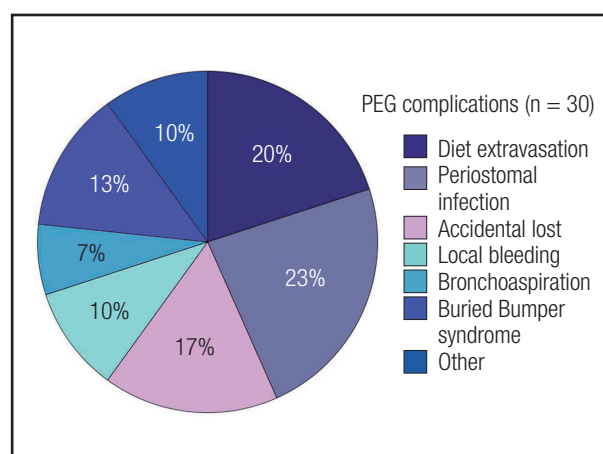


Figure 1. Complications of the use of percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy.

Table I. Characteristics of patients who underwent percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy

Variables	Total n = 133	Well-nourished OR Suspected of being malnourished (SGA A o B) n = 42	Severe malnourished (SGA C) n = 91	p
Age, years	82 (76-89)	82 (76-89)	82 (75-88)	0.98
Gender, male (%)	56 (42)	16 (38)	40 (44)	0.57
Main indications for percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy (%)				0.17
Dementia	63 (47)	18 (43)	45 (49)	
Stroke	34 (26)	15 (36)	19 (21)	
Prior use of enteral tube feeding > 30 days (%)	95 (71)	32 (82)	63 (79)	0.80
Prior speech-language pathologist assessment (%)	99 (74)	36 (86)	63 (69)	0.05
Hospitalization length until procedure, days	26 (13-41)	29 (19-48)	27.5 (13-37)	0.11
Enteral feeding resumption < 4h (%)	47 (35)	20 (49)	27 (31)	0.05
Complications (%)	30 (23)	7 (17)	23 (25)	0.37
Complications < 15 days (n = 30)	23 (77)	4 (57)	19 (83)	0.31
Death (%)	28 (21)	4 (9.5)	24 (26.4)	0.04
Time, in days, between PEG and death	30 (13.2-71.7)	28.5 (14.2-105)	31.5 (13.2-71.7)	0.97

PEG: percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy; SGA: subjective global assessment.

immune response, delaying the healing process, and increasing the risk of surgical complications (32).

In the present study, 68.4% of patients were severely malnourished before the PEG procedure, while 29.3% were mildly malnourished. In a recent systematic review of 66 studies on disease-related malnutrition in Latin America, the prevalence of malnutrition was 40-60% on hospital admission, with increases in this rate during the course of hospitalization (33). In Brazil, data from the Brazilian National Survey on Hospital Nutritional Assessment (IBRANUTRI), a large multicenter, cross-sectional study assessing the prevalence of malnutrition in hospitalized patients, show rates similar to those of worldwide studies, with 48.1% of patients diagnosed as malnourished and 12.5% as severely malnourished (36). Older adults, as well as critically ill and surgical patients, are at increased risk of malnutrition, which also increases the costs of care, thus underscoring the need for early nutritional intervention and supporting the suggestion that the timing of introduction of enteral nutrition via PEG should be revisited (34,35).

In our sample, dysphagia secondary to dementia syndrome was the main indication for PEG, accounting for 47% of cases, followed by stroke in 26% of cases. These results are similar to those reported in two other Brazilian cohorts (21,22). This is also consistent with national and international research, which identifies these two conditions as the main indications for PEG, although the representativeness of each condition may vary according to the study population (15,18-20).

Dysphagia, whether transient or persistent, is a common manifestation during the natural course of dementia and following a stroke. In both settings, it represents an important risk factor for the aggravation of malnutrition, reducing the chances of rehabilitation and survival (9). In dementia syndromes, patients show progressive difficulty in swallowing, becoming more evident in the advanced stages of the disease (12). Although international guidelines do not recommend the placement of feeding tubes for artificial administration of nutrition in patients with advanced dementia (24,25), this issue remains controversial in clinical practice. In Brazil, the family decision to place or not to place a PEG tube in the patient usually involves cultural, social and religious issues and outweighs the lack of scientific evidence of clinical benefit or improvement in survival.

The PEG tube placement is considered as a safe procedure with a low rate of complications, which are usually of low morbidity and can be easily resolved (26). The rate of minor complications varies widely in the literature, ranging from 2 to 55%, while major complications (aspiration, peritonitis, bleeding and pneumoperitoneum) occur in 5 to 25% of cases (32). In our sample, 23% of patients developed complications. Similar to international studies, peristomal infection, extravasation of gastric contents and accidental dislodgement of the PEG tube were the main complications in our sample (28).

Time to start enteral feeding after PEG tube placement is still a matter of debate among teams that perform the procedure. In our practice, opinions differ as to the best time to start PEG tube nutrition, which occurred within four hours of the procedure

in only 35% of cases. Numerous studies, both in the adult and pediatric population, have demonstrated that starting enteral feeding within three to six hours of the PEG procedure is safe and associated with shorter hospital stay and lower costs of care (29-31).

Regarding mortality, none of the deaths in our sample were directly related to the PEG procedure. However, there was a higher incidence of death in severely malnourished patients (classified as SGA-C) ($p = 0.04$), which supports literature reports of a higher mortality rate (12.4% vs 4.7% [RR: 2.63]) in malnourished patients (37). From these data, we can speculate that the deaths in our sample were more closely related to the patient's condition prior to the PEG procedure than to the procedure itself.

CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study highlight the importance of regular nutritional risk screening by a multidisciplinary team, paying special attention to the patient's nutritional status and conditions, which may place the patient at risk of developing dysphagia, with the implementation of measures to minimize malnutrition in hospitalized patients. Further studies assessing the risks and benefits of PEG for older patients are required before an effective strategy for early nutritional intervention can be devised.

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Trabajo Original

Nutrición artificial

Accidental enteral feeding tube dislodgement with the use of a dedicated feeding tube attachment device *versus* adhesive tape as the securing method: a randomized clinical trial

Desplazamiento accidental de la sonda de alimentación enteral con el uso de un dispositivo de fijación de sonda de alimentación dedicado versus cinta adhesiva como método de aseguramiento: un ensayo clínico aleatorizado

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Abstract

Introduction: accidental dislodgement of enteral feeding tubes has been considered as an important quality indicator of the efficacy of enteral nutrition therapy. However, in clinical practice, the use of feeding tube attachment devices (FTADs), as an alternative to the traditional method of adhesive tape alone, has not yet been evaluated for its effectiveness in reducing inadvertent tube dislodgement.

Objective: to evaluate the impact of using a dedicated FTAD compared with the traditional securing method with adhesive tape on the occurrence of accidental enteral feeding tube removal.

Methods: a randomized clinical trial comparing two strategies for enteral feeding tube securement: use of traditional adhesive tape vs FTAD. The primary endpoint was the percentage of accidental enteral feeding tube dislodgement after randomization.

Results: a total of 104 inpatients (mean age: 61.4 ± 17.5 years) were included (52 patients per group). Most were women with cerebrovascular disease (35.6%), diabetes (28.8%) and neoplasia (27.9%). There were 39 (37.5%) cases of accidental tube removal, 30.8% in the FTAD group and 44.2% in the adhesive tape group ($p = 0.22$). During follow-up, patients in the FTAD group received a mean of 60.0% of the volume of enteral nutrition prescribed, while patients in the adhesive tape group received 57.0% ($p = 0.61$). There was no difference in skin lesions between the groups.

Conclusion: the strategy of using a dedicated FTAD as the method for securing enteral feeding tubes did not reduce the risk of accidental tube dislodgement compared with the traditional securing method with adhesive tape.

Key words:

Intubation.
Gastrointestinal.
Enteral nutrition.
Nutrition therapy.
Quality indicators.
Health care.

Resumen

Introducción: la expulsión accidental de sondas de alimentación enteral se ha considerado un indicador importante de la calidad de la eficacia de la terapia de nutrición enteral. Sin embargo, en la práctica clínica, el uso de dispositivos de fijación de tubos de alimentación (FTAD, por sus siglas en inglés), como una alternativa al método tradicional de cinta adhesiva exclusivamente, aún no se ha evaluado por su eficacia para reducir el desprendimiento accidental de sondas.

Objetivo: evaluar el impacto de usar un FTAD dedicado en comparación con el método tradicional de aseguramiento con cinta adhesiva en caso de que se produzca una extracción accidental de la sonda de alimentación enteral.

Métodos: se realizó un ensayo clínico aleatorizado que comparó dos estrategias para asegurar la sonda de alimentación enteral: el uso de cinta adhesiva tradicional frente a FTAD. El punto final primario fue el porcentaje de desplazamiento accidental del tubo de alimentación enteral después de la aleatorización.

Resultados: se incluyó un total de 104 pacientes hospitalizados (edad media $61,4 \pm 17,5$ años) (52 pacientes por grupo). La mayoría eran mujeres con enfermedad cerebrovascular (35,6%), diabetes (28,8%) y neoplasia (27,9%). Hubo 39 casos (37,5%) de extracción accidental de tubos, 30,8% en el grupo FTAD y 44,2% en el grupo de cinta adhesiva ($p = 0,22$). Durante el seguimiento, los pacientes del grupo FTAD recibieron una media del 60,0% del volumen de nutrición enteral prescrito, mientras que los pacientes del grupo de cinta adhesiva recibieron el 57,0% ($p = 0,61$). No hubo diferencia en las lesiones de la piel entre los grupos.

Conclusión: la estrategia de utilizar un FTAD dedicado como método para asegurar las sondas de alimentación enteral no redujo el riesgo de retiradas accidentales en comparación con el método tradicional de sujeción con cinta adhesiva.

Palabras clave:

Intubación
gastrointestinal.
Nutrición enteral.
Terapia nutricional.
Indicadores de
calidad de la atención
de salud.

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INTRODUCTION

Enteral nutrition therapy, defined as nutrition provided through the gastrointestinal tract via a tube, catheter, or stoma that delivers nutrients distal to the oral cavity (1), is indicated for individuals with preserved gastrointestinal tract function in clinical situations when oral intake is insufficient or contraindicated (2). At the bedside, the feeding tube is inserted through the nose or mouth into the stomach or duodenum (3). Prior to using the tube, correct positioning should be confirmed by an abdominal radiograph to ensure that the distal end is in the gastrointestinal tract (4,5). The main complications of enteral tube feeding include tube displacement, inadvertent respiratory placement of feeding tubes, and microaspiration (6). In addition, tube displacement may lead to delayed feeding and increased costs due to time spent in tube repositioning and radiographic confirmation (7).

The frequency of accidental tube dislodgement is an important indicator of quality of care. It is defined as an unintentional removal of the tube by the patient due to psychomotor agitation, coughing, nausea, or vomiting, by the nursing staff during manipulation of the patient to perform procedures or examinations and administer medication, or by the patient's companion (8). In our institution, audits conducted in 2016 indicated that, on average, 41.3% of feeding tubes were accidentally removed. The recommended international targets are up to 10% in the ward (9,10). To prevent dislodgement, feeding tubes are secured to the skin on the nose or forehead using adhesive tape. Traditionally, the adhesive tape is wrapped around the tube as a "tie" (11) and again attached to the patient's nose. However, the rate of tube dislodgement with this technique can reach up to 62% (12,13). In addition, the use of adhesive tape can cause patient discomfort, nasal tip necrosis, skin lesions and skin sensitivity reactions.

A study conducted in 1995 with a convenience sample of 103 medical intensive care patients evaluated three different methods for securing feeding tubes: pink tape, clear tape and "butterfly". The authors found a significant difference between groups in the mean time until failure of the securing methods, ranging from 30 hours with the "butterfly" to 100 hours with pink tape (14). More recently, the use of nasal bridles, whereby an anchor of the enteral feeding tube is placed around the vomer bone or nasal septum, has been described as more effective in securing enteral feeding tubes in place than the traditional use of adhesive tape (15). However, nasal bridles are not available in Brazil. In our country, only the feeding tube attachment device (FTAD) from Hollister® is available as an alternative to the traditional method of using adhesive tape alone, but its effectiveness in preventing accidental tube removal has not been described in prospective studies.

The current trial was therefore designed to evaluate the impact of using the Hollister® FTAD compared with the traditional securing method with adhesive tape on the occurrence of accidental enteral feeding tube dislodgement. We tested the hypothesis that the rate of inadvertent enteral feeding tube removal would be lower in patients using the dedicated FTAD than in patients using the traditional method with adhesive tape.

METHODS

STUDY DESIGN

This was a single-center, unblinded, randomized clinical trial of hospitalized adult patients in a clinical ward. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and the Research Ethics Committee of the hospital institution approved the research protocol. All patients gave their written informed consent before study enrollment. The trial is registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (<http://clinicaltrials.gov>), number NCT03262493.

PARTICIPANTS

Potentially eligible patients were selected from clinical wards (sixth floor south and seventh floor north) at a tertiary care university hospital in Southern Brazil, from June to December 2017. All adults aged 18 years and older in an open enteral feeding system were eligible for inclusion. The exclusion criterion was enteral nutrition by gastrostomy or jejunostomy.

RANDOMIZATION AND BLINDING

Participants were randomly assigned to the dedicated FTAD group or the adhesive tape group using a randomization sequence created on the website <http://www.randomization.com>. Due to the nature of the intervention, it was not possible to blind the investigators, staff or patients in this study.

INTERVENTIONS

The intervention group had the enteral feeding tube secured with the FTAD (stock number 9786; Hollister Inc., Libertyville, IL, USA), which consists of a layer of hydrocolloid adhesive material over the skin on the back of the nose and a polyurethane clamp for attachment around the enteral feeding tube. The placement of the FTAD followed the manufacturer's instructions. The device was placed in all patients by a research nurse who was previously trained by the manufacturer. The manufacturer provided free of charge the total number of devices needed to perform the study. Replacement of the device occurred every seven days or in the presence of dirt, oiliness, detachment or material deterioration.

The control group had the enteral feeding tube secured with adhesive tape alone placed according to the "tie" technique, as recommended by the hospital standard operating protocol. Replacement of the adhesive tape occurred every 24 hours or in the presence of dirt, oiliness, or detachment. This group was followed by the research nurse regarding the adhesive tape replacement that was routinely performed by the nursing assistants of the institution.

OUTCOMES

The primary endpoint was the number (percentage) of inadvertent enteral feeding tube removal per patient from randomization until the end of follow-up. As secondary outcomes, we evaluated the number (percentage) of patients receiving an enteral nutrition volume $\geq 70\%$ of the prescribed volume and evidence of complications related to each type of intervention (adhesive tape or FTAD), such as nasal necrosis, skin lesions and skin sensitivity reactions.

STUDY LOGISTICS

Patients listed in the hospital management system as receiving enteral nutrition were assessed daily in the clinical wards. These data were tabulated in an eligibility screening worksheet. After inclusion in the study, the investigator informed patients of their allocation group. Sociodemographic and clinical data were collected using a structured questionnaire: age, sex, reason for current hospitalization, comorbidities, use of mechanical restraint, and enteral tube feeding (type of tube, place and date of insertion, securing method, and date when the tube was last attached to the skin).

The incidence rate of accidental enteral feeding tube removal per patient was assessed by reviewing daily records on the patient's electronic medical record, enteral feeding tube re-insertion records, and confirmatory/control radiographs. The volume of enteral nutrition prescribed was collected from the "diet map", available in the hospital management system. This map shows the volume of enteral nutrition prescribed by the dietitian. The actual volume of enteral nutrition delivered was obtained from the records made by the nurse on the patient's electronic medical record.

Patients were followed until the discontinuation of enteral feeding, discharge, or death. Therefore, the follow-up period was the duration of the use of the enteral feeding tube.

SAMPLE SIZE

Sample size was calculated using WinPepi based on a systematic review that compared the effectiveness of nasal bridles with the traditional method of adhesive tape alone and found a rate of accidental tube removal of 40.7% (odds ratio, 0.16) in the adhesive tape group (15). For a power of 80% and a significance level of 5%, a sample size of 52 patients per group was required.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Continuous variables were expressed as mean and standard deviation (SD); those with asymmetrical distribution, as median (25th and 75th percentiles). Categorical variables were expressed as counts and percentages. The analysis followed the intention-

to-treat principle. Regarding baseline characteristics and intervention effects, Student's *t* test or Mann-Whitney test were used for continuous variables and the Chi-square test was used for categorical variables. The incidence rate of accidental enteral feeding tube removal was calculated according to the following formula: [(number of accidental tube removals / total number of patients * mean duration of tube use)*100] (16). A two-sided *p* value < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Analyses were performed using PASW (SPSS Inc., Quarry Bay, Hong Kong, China), version 20.0.

RESULTS

POPULATION STUDIED

Of the 137 patients who were screened, 104 met the inclusion criteria and consented to participate in the study (Fig. 1), being evenly distributed in both groups for intervention. The main reason for exclusion was the use of gastrostomy. After randomization, two patients died in the FTAD group and three in the adhesive tape group. Deaths during the follow-up period were not related to accidental tube removal, but to the patient's clinical complications. Therefore, these deaths were not attributed to effects related to the research protocol.

Most patients were women with cerebrovascular disease (35.6%), diabetes (28.8%) and neoplasia (27.9%). There were more cases of acute myocardial infarction in the FTAD group, but other baseline clinical characteristics were similar between the two groups, including Charlson comorbidity index, use of mechanical restraint, and duration of enteral feeding tube use (Table I).

EFFECT OF INTERVENTION STRATEGIES ON ACCIDENTAL ENTERAL FEEDING TUBE REMOVAL

Of the 39 (37.5%) cases of accidental tube removal, 16 (30.8%) occurred in the FTAD group and 23 (44.2%) in the adhesive tape group ($p = 0.22$) (Fig. 2). The overall incidence rate of inadvertent enteral feeding tube removal was 1.7%. The rate per group was 1.9% in the adhesive tape group vs 1.4% in the FTAD group. When evaluating the number of times each patient had an inadvertent tube removal, in 50.0% ($n = 8$) of cases in the FTAD group the tube was removed only once; in 37.6% ($n = 6$), twice; in 6.2% ($n = 1$), four times; and in 6.2% ($n = 1$), ten times. In the adhesive tape group, in 56.5% ($n = 13$) of cases the tube was removed only once; in 26.1% ($n = 6$), twice; in 8.7% ($n = 2$), five times; and in 8.7% ($n = 2$), eight times ($p = 0.33$). The number of times the accidental enteral feeding removal was not different between groups ($p = 0.43$). In most cases, the tube was dislodged by the patient (88.0%), followed by dislodgement by the nursing staff during bathing (9.4%) and transportation for examinations (2.6%).

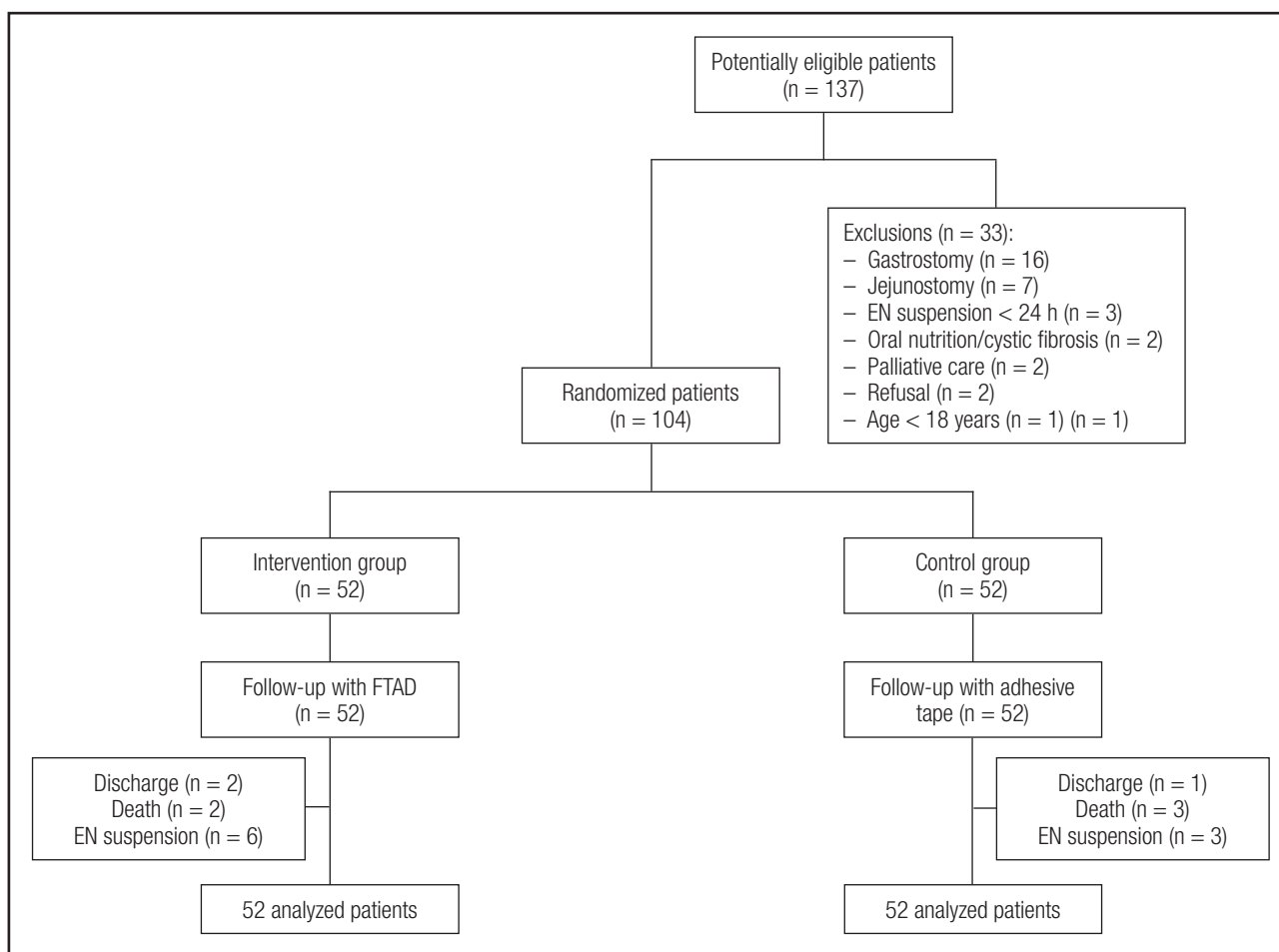


Figure 1.

Consort study algorithm (EN: enteral nutrition; FTAD: feeding tube attachment device).

SECONDARY OUTCOMES

The mean percentage of enteral nutrition delivered to patients was 58.5% (SD, 23.5%) of the prescribed volume. Patients in the FTAD group received a mean of 60.0% (SD, 21.0%) of the prescribed volume, while patients in the adhesive tape group received a mean of 57.0% (SD, 25.0%) ($p = 0.61$). Only 43 patients (41.3%) received a minimum of 70% of the volume of enteral nutrition prescribed, with no significant difference between the groups: 42.3% in the FTAD group vs 40.4% in the adhesive tape group ($p = 0.84$).

Three patients developed skin lesions due to the tube securement practice. One patient developed nasal necrosis in the FTAD group, while in the adhesive tape group, one patient had nasal necrosis and another patient had hyperemia.

DISCUSSION

The present study found an overall rate of 37.5% of accidental enteral feeding tube removal, with no difference between the

FTAD and adhesive tape groups. To our knowledge, this is the first study to evaluate the impact of using the Hollister® FTAD in clinical practice compared with the traditional method of using adhesive tape on the accidental dislodgement of enteral feeding tubes.

A rate of approximately 40% has been reported for accidental enteral feeding tube removal with the use of adhesive tape as the securing method (17,18). In the present study, similar to the findings of Cervo et al. (16) in clinical patients, the rate of accidental tube dislodgement with the use of adhesive tape was 44.2%. Pereira et al. (19), however, found a rate of 56% in critically ill patients. Brandt and Mittendorf (20) reported a reduction from 38.1% to 4.2% in the proportion of accidental tube dislodgement with the use of nasal bridles.

Enteral nutrition therapy plays an important role in preventing malnutrition, which is associated with increased length of hospital stay, mortality, and health care costs (21). Tube dislodgement delays the administration of enteral nutrition due to time spent replacing or repositioning tubes and confirmation of the tube position. Consequently, patients may receive less than prescribed enteral nutrition. Studies of critically ill patients report

Table I. Clinical characteristics of the study population

Clinical variables	All (n = 104)	FTAD group (n = 52)	Adhesive tape group (n = 52)	p
Age, y	61.4 ± 17.5	60.8 ± 17.5	62.0 ± 18	0.63
Female sex (%)	54 (52)	25 (48.1)	29 (55.8)	0.43
<i>Clinical comorbidities</i>				
Cerebrovascular disease (%)	37 (35.6)	4 (26.9)	23 (44.2)	0.06
Diabetes (%)	30 (28.8)	19 (36.5)	11 (21.2)	0.08
Neoplasia (%)	29 (27.9)	16 (30.8)	13 (25.0)	0.51
Renal disease (%)	18 (17.3)	7 (13.5)	11 (21.2)	0.30
Myocardial infarction (%)	16 (15.4)	12 (23.1)	4 (7.7)	0.03
Heart failure (%)	15 (14.4)	9 (17.3)	6 (11.5)	0.40
Peripheral vascular disease (%)	15 (14.4)	8 (15.4)	7 (13.5)	0.78
AIDS (%)	15 (14.4)	10 (19.2)	5 (9.6)	0.16
Charlson comorbidity index (age adjusted)	6 (4-7)	6 (4-7)	5.5 (4-7)	0.29
<i>Enteral feeding tube position</i>				
Gastric (%)	84 (80.8)	44 (84.6)	40 (77)	0.62
Duodenal (%)	14 (13.5)	6 (11.5)	8 (15.4)	
No radiograph control (%)	4 (3.8)	2 (3.8)	2 (3.8)	
Jejunal (%)	2 (1.9)	0 (0)	2 (3.8)	
Duration of enteral feeding tube use, days	16 (8-35)	17 (7-32)	15 (9-36)	0.43
Mechanical restraint (%)	24 (23.1)	10 (19.2)	14 (26.9)	0.35
Length of hospital stay, days	27 (15-58.7)	28 (16-55)	23.5 (12-61)	0.43

Values are expressed as mean ± standard deviation, frequency (%) or median (25th percentile, 75th percentile). FTAD: feeding tube attachment device.

Table II. Comparison of prescribed and delivered enteral nutrition between groups

Variables	All (n = 104)	FTAD group (n = 52)	Adhesive tape group (n = 52)	p
Prescribed volume (ml/day)	1,151 ± 323	1,158 ± 316	1,143 ± 333	0.81
Delivered volume (ml/day)	715 (490-942)	736 (521-914)	662 (442-1,001)	0.69
Percentage of enteral nutrition delivered	59 ± 23	60 ± 21	58.5 ± 25	0.78
Number of patients receiving 70% of prescribed (%)	43 (41.3)	22 (42.3)	21 (40.4)	0.84

Values are expressed as mean ± standard deviation, frequency (%), or median (25th percentile, 75th percentile). FTAD: feeding tube attachment device.

that it is common not to achieve goal feeding rates due to the performance of examinations, procedures, and tube malposition (22,23). A multicenter study found that patients on enteral nutrition received only 59% of their energy needs (24). Other studies reported that, for different reasons, patients received less than 40% of the volume of enteral nutrition prescribed (25-27). Our data showed that fewer than half of the patients (41.3%) received at least 70% of their prescribed enteral nutrition.

The occurrence of skin-related adverse events at the tube insertion site did not differ between the FTAD and adhesive tape groups. In the study conducted by Cervo et al. (16), the enteral feeding tube was secured in the traditional manner by adhesive tape alone in all patients and no type of skin lesion was reported.

Our study has potential limitations. One is related to the follow-up time and mental status in some patients requiring mechanical restraint to avoid accidental withdrawal of the enteral feeding tube. However, this is the first study to evaluate the use of a dedicated FTAD for securing enteral feeding tubes. In addition, in adults, a dedicated FTAD may be an option for individuals with allergy to adhesive tape or those who are uncomfortable with the traditional securing method with adhesive tape. Finally, because this study is the first to evaluate the performance of the Hollister® FTAD, our findings may be of great value in future studies for comparison purposes and for investigation in other patients, such as surgical patients and intensive care patients.

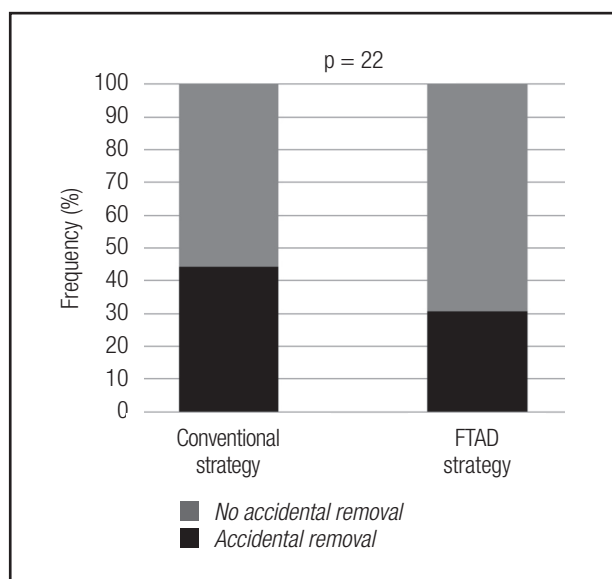


Figure 2.

Percentage of accidental enteral feeding tube removal in both groups. FTAD: feeding tube attachment device.

CONCLUSION

Our data indicate that the use of the feeding tube attachment device did not reduce the risk of accidental enteral tube feeding removal when compared to the traditional mode of attachment with adhesive tape.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Paciente crítico

Evaluación del grado de adherencia a las recomendaciones nutricionales en el paciente crítico

Evaluation of the degree of adherence to the nutritional recommendations of the critical care patient

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Resumen

Objetivo: la aplicación del soporte nutricional especializado (SNE) es difícil a nivel organizativo debido a la complejidad de las guías de práctica clínica y desconocemos el grado de adherencia a las recomendaciones nutricionales publicadas. El objetivo del presente estudio fue valorar el grado de adherencia a las recomendaciones de alto impacto y de "no hacer" en nuestro entorno, con la finalidad de objetivar áreas de mejora.

Métodos: encuesta de nueve preguntas consensuada por expertos y realizada en diferentes UCI de nuestro medio, que reflejaba las recomendaciones nutricionales en SNE. Se recogieron datos relacionados con las características organizativas y el profesional que indicaba el soporte nutricional. Se analizaron las diferencias en relación al grado de adherencia según el nivel asistencial y a la presencia de un experto en dichas unidades.

Resultados: participaron 37 UCI, las cuales pertenecían preferentemente a hospitales de segundo nivel y eran polivalentes, con un SNE indicado por intensivistas. La adherencia a las recomendaciones fue > 80%, con tres excepciones asociadas a ítems relacionados con el síndrome de realimentación (70,3%), al ajuste calórico-proteico de la nutrición según las fases evolutivas del paciente (51,4%) y al ajuste del aporte proteico en pacientes con insuficiencia renal (40,5%). No hubo diferencias en función del nivel asistencial o la presencia de un experto en dichas UCI. Tan solo se objetivó una mayor disponibilidad de protocolos de nutrición locales en aquellas UCI que contaban con un experto.

Conclusiones: existe una alta adherencia teórica a la mayoría de recomendaciones de ámbito nutricional, objetivándose excepciones que se podrían corresponder a áreas en las que hay una oportunidad de mejora.

Abstract

Background: the application of specialized nutritional support (SNE) is difficult at the organizational level due to the complexity of clinical practice guidelines and we do not know the degree of adherence to the published nutritional recommendations. The aim of this study was to assess the degree of adherence to the recommendations of high impact and "do not do" within our environment, in order to show areas for improvement.

Methods: survey of nine questions agreed by experts and carried out in different ICUs of our environment, which reflected the recommendations in SNE. Data related to the organizational characteristics and the healthcare provider that indicated the nutritional support were collected. The differences regarding the degree of adherence between the level of care and the presence of an expert in these units were analyzed.

Results: thirty-seven ICUs participated, which corresponded mostly to second level hospitals and polyvalent ICUs with an SNE indicated by intensivists. The adherence to the recommendations was > 80%, with three exceptions associated with issues related to the refeeding syndrome (70.3%), the caloric-protein adjustment of nutrition according to the patient's evolutionary phase (51.4%) and the adjustment of protein intake in patients with renal failure (40.5%). There were no differences according to the level of care or the presence of an expert in these ICUs. Only a greater availability of local nutrition protocols was observed in those ICUs with an expertise.

Conclusions: there is a high theoretical adherence to the majority of recommendations in the nutritional field, with exceptions that could correspond to areas where there is an opportunity for improvement.

Palabras clave:

Guías de práctica clínica.
Recomendaciones.
Paciente crítico.
Unidades de medicina intensiva.
Soporte nutricional especializado.

Key words:

Clinical practice guidelines.
Recommendations.
Critical care patient.
Intensive care units.
Specialized nutritional support.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Las guías de práctica clínica (GPC) son recomendaciones desarrolladas de forma sistemática para ayudar al profesional en sus decisiones médicas y son publicadas periódicamente por las sociedades científicas como método de homogeneizar y mejorar la asistencia clínica de los pacientes. Un ejemplo son las GPC para el soporte nutricional especializado (SNE) del paciente crítico publicadas en el 2011 por el Grupo de Trabajo de Metabolismo y Nutrición (GTMyN) de la Sociedad Española de Medicina Intensiva, Crítica y Unidades Coronarias (SEMICYUC) y que se actualizarán durante el presente 2018 (1). Sin embargo, debido a la complejidad de las GPC y a los diferentes aspectos clínicos que abarca el paciente crítico, en ocasiones es difícil para el profesional estar al día en todos los aspectos necesarios para un manejo lo más apropiado posible.

Recientemente, los diferentes grupos de trabajo de la SEMICYUC seleccionaron un panel de expertos para elaborar unas recomendaciones para la estandarización de los cuidados requeridos, según la experiencia clínica y la literatura científica publicada, con la finalidad de sintetizar los aspectos más relevantes para el

manejo del enfermo crítico en sus diferentes aspectos. Inicialmente se publicaron cinco recomendaciones que servían de guía para los intensivistas para un mejor manejo de sus pacientes y posteriormente se publicaron otras cinco de lo que no se debe hacer. Entre estas, se incluyeron diez recomendaciones del GTMyN que abordaban aspectos clave del SNE (2,3) (Tabla I).

Hay estudios que cuantifican las diferencias entre las GPC y la práctica clínica como superior al 30% de manera general (4,5). El SNE del enfermo crítico es multidisciplinar (intensivista, farmacéutico, endocrinólogo, dietista) y complejo a nivel organizativo, con aspectos controvertidos y con un bajo nivel de evidencia de las recomendaciones que se realizan por parte de las GPC, pudiendo ser las diferencias entre GPC y práctica clínica aún mayores (1,5). Una mayor adherencia a las GPC en SNE se asocia de manera general a una mejora de la práctica clínica en el área de la nutrición en el paciente crítico (6,7). Sin embargo, no disponemos de datos respecto al grado de adherencia a las GPC de SNE en nuestro entorno. Pocos son los estudios que se han realizado a nivel nacional donde se valora la práctica asistencial en SNE en las UCI (8-10). Además, cualquier intento de mejora de la cali-

Tabla I. Recomendaciones de GTMyN en SNE y preguntas realizadas en la encuesta

Recomendaciones de qué hacer en SNE	Pregunta correspondiente
1. Al ingreso en la UCI identifica a los enfermos que presenten riesgo nutricional y riesgo de desarrollar síndrome de realimentación	¿Se identifican los pacientes en riesgo nutricional o que puedan desarrollar síndrome de realimentación?
2. Calcula los requerimientos calóricos/proteicos ajustados al factor de estrés y a la fase evolutiva del paciente y reevalúalos al menos una vez a la semana	¿Se ajustan las necesidades calóricas/proteicas según la fase evolutiva del paciente?
3. Inicia la nutrición enteral precoz en pacientes estables y considera la nutrición complementaria o total si existen dificultades en el tracto digestivo	¿Se inicia la NE de forma precoz y, si no se tolera, se complementa con nutrición parenteral total o complementaria?
4. Monitoriza los parámetros de uso adecuado de nutrición enteral y parenteral, identifica complicaciones asociadas y aplica los protocolos de actuación	¿Dispones de protocolos de nutrición artificial en tu servicio?
5. Mantén los niveles de glucemia por debajo de 150 mg·dl ⁻¹ con insulino terapia, empleando protocolos que eviten la variabilidad glucémica y la hipoglucemia	¿Dispones de protocolos de control glicémico en pacientes con nutrición artificial?
Recomendaciones de qué NO hacer en SNE	Pregunta correspondiente
6. No retrasar el inicio de la NE en pacientes con estabilidad hemodinámica después de la resucitación de un <i>shock</i> con fluidos y con al menos un fármaco vasopresor o inotrópico	¿Aportas NE en pacientes con drogas vasoactivas/inotrópicas estables hemodinámicamente?
7. No retrasar ni interrumpir la NE por el solo hecho de que el paciente esté en posición de decúbito prono	¿Adminstras NE en decúbito prono?
8. No iniciar soporte nutricional artificial sin haber evaluado la posibilidad de que se desarrolle un síndrome de realimentación y haber tomado las medidas adecuadas para prevenirlo	¿Se identifican los pacientes en riesgo nutricional o que puedan desarrollar síndrome de realimentación?
9. No limitar el aporte proteico en los pacientes críticos con riesgo de desnutrición e insuficiencia renal aguda para controlar el síndrome urémico y retrasar las terapias de depuración renal	¿Ajustas el aporte proteico en pacientes desnutridos con insuficiencia renal para no desarrollar síndrome urémico o iniciar terapias de depuración renal?
10. No esperar a que se auscultan ruidos hidroaéreos para iniciar la nutrición enteral si se considera indicada	¿Inicias la NE en ausencia de ruidos hidroaéreos?

SNE: soporte nutricional especializado; GTMyN: Grupo de Trabajo de Metabolismo y Nutrición; NE: nutrición enteral.

dad asistencial a partir de recomendaciones realizadas por GPC requiere idealmente una valoración del grado de adherencia a las mismas por parte de los clínicos, y más concretamente, al SNE en el paciente crítico en el caso que nos ocupa (6,7-11).

El objetivo del presente estudio fue valorar el grado de adherencia teórico de las recomendaciones sobre qué hacer y no hacer según la SEMICYUC en el SNE en el paciente crítico en diferentes UCI de nuestro entorno, con la finalidad de evaluar la necesidad de intervenciones educativas en el área de la nutrición que conduzcan a una mayor adherencia a las mismas.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

Para valorar el grado de adherencia de las recomendaciones de SEMICYUC en SNE se elaboró una encuesta consensuada entre los miembros del GTMyN presentes en la 85ª Reunión del GTMyN (Madrid, 26 y 27 de octubre de 2017). La encuesta forma parte del proyecto prospectivo, observacional y multicéntrico de prevalencia de prácticas nutricionales en el enfermo crítico (Evaluation of Nutritional Practices in Intensive Care patients [ENPIC], NCT03634943) y se envió a los participantes del estudio, a todos los miembros del GTMyN y a otros hospitales que mostraron interés en participar. Se diseñó un formulario online mediante la plataforma Research Electronic Database Capture (REDCap®). La encuesta consta de nueve preguntas para dar respuesta al grado de adherencia de las recomendaciones de qué hacer y no hacer. Una de las preguntas se adecuaba simultáneamente a una de las recomendaciones de qué hacer y otra de las de no hacer (Tabla I). La encuesta fue remitida al investigador principal de cada unidad que participó en el estudio. Este debía responder de forma afirmativa o negativa según la práctica clínica habitual de los médicos especialistas de UCI del servicio correspondiente.

Se evaluaron los datos correspondientes a las características de las UCI, incluidos los datos de estructura y organizativos, tales como número de camas, nivel asistencial, etc., quién era el responsable de la nutrición artificial y su pertenencia al GTMyN, y los parámetros de gravedad de los pacientes ingresados en dichas unidades evaluados mediante la estancia media en UCI, la mortalidad intra-UCI y los *scores* pronósticos Acute Physiology y and Chronic Health Evaluation II score (APACHE II) (12) y Simplified Acute Physiology Score II (SAPSII) (13).

Los datos cuantitativos se expresaron como mediana y rango intercuartil o media y desviación típica según la variable y los cualitativos, en número absoluto y porcentaje. Se realizó un análisis estadístico para detectar diferencias entre los participantes miembros de GTMyN y no miembros, así como el grado de nivel asistencial de los diferentes hospitales participantes, mediante Chi-cuadrado con corrección de Fisher si procede.

RESULTADOS

Se invitó a participar a 87 profesionales de 62 centros hospitalarios diferentes. De los 62 hospitales invitados a participar en el estudio ENPIC, aceptaron participar inicialmente 43 hospitales y

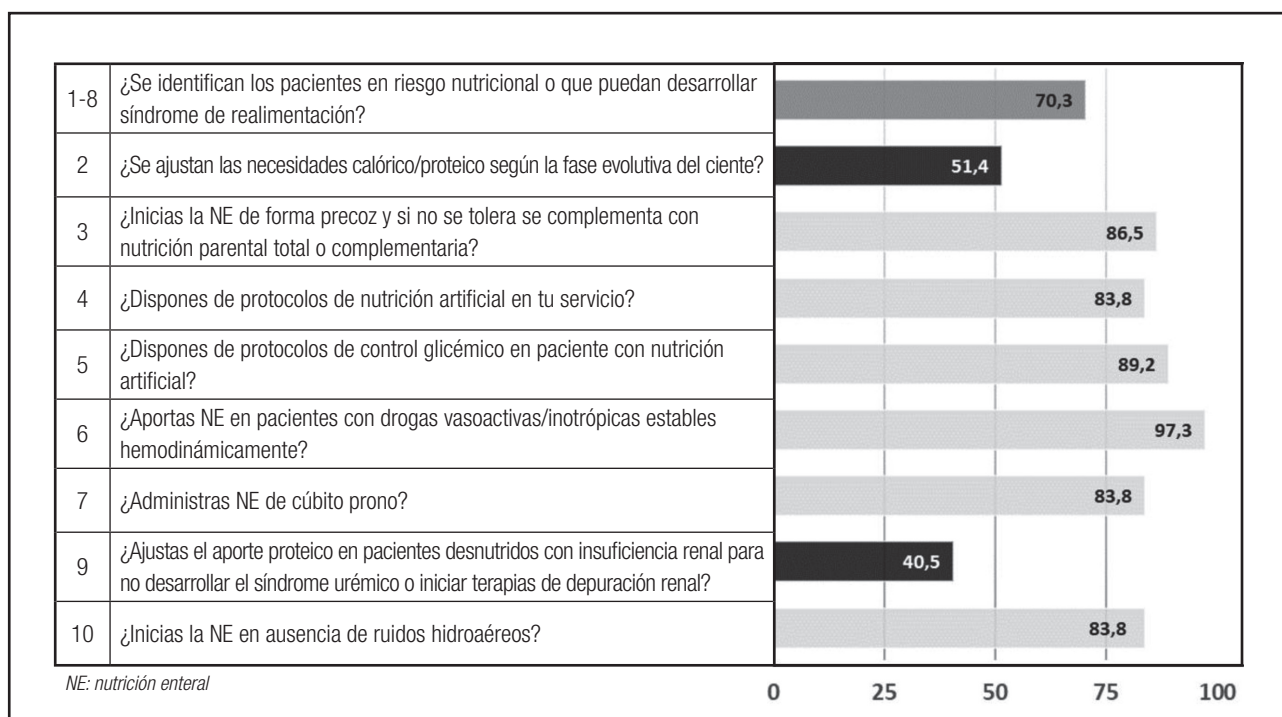
respondieron finalmente la encuesta un total de 37, con una tasa de respuesta del 59% aproximadamente. La mayoría de las UCI participantes correspondían a centros secundarios (hospitales de segundo nivel) y eran unidades polivalentes en las que el SNE era indicado en la práctica clínica por intensivistas. Aproximadamente la mitad eran miembros activos del GTMyN (Tabla II).

Respecto los resultados de la encuesta, se objetivó una adherencia a la mayoría de recomendaciones superior al 80%, con tres excepciones asociadas a ítems relacionados con: el síndrome de realimentación, al ajuste calórico/proteico de la nutrición según las fases evolutivas del paciente y el ajuste del aporte proteico en pacientes con insuficiencia renal para evitar el desarrollo de síndrome urémico y evitar el inicio de la terapias de reemplazo renal (Fig. 1). Cuando se compararon diferencias en las respuestas entre miembros del GTMyN y no miembros (Fig. 2A), así como entre hospitales de segundo y de tercer nivel asistencial (Fig. 2B), solo se objetivó diferencia en relación con una mayor disponibilidad de protocolos de nutrición dentro de las UCI en los centros en los que había un miembro del GTMyN.

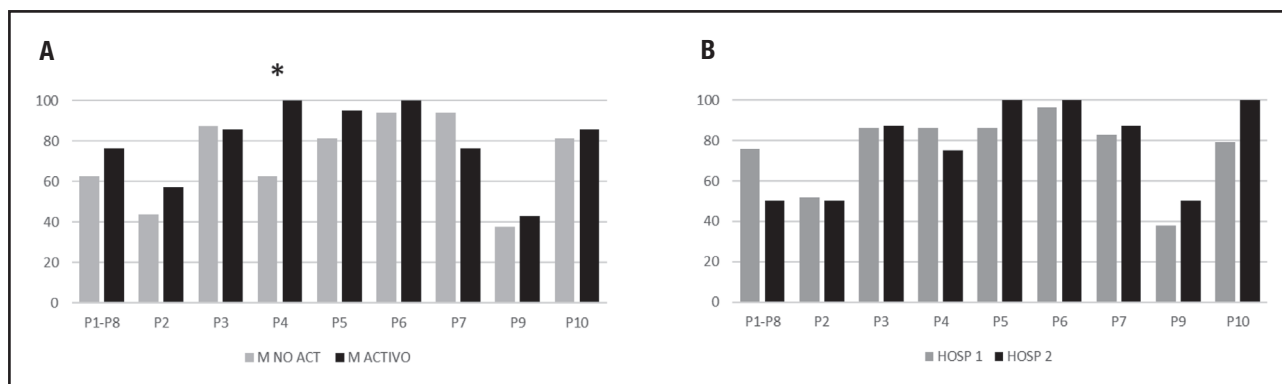
Tabla II. Características de las UCI participantes en el estudio

UCI participantes (n = 37)	
Nº camas	14 (4-34)
Nº ingresos año	648 (187-1.468)
<i>Nivel asistencial</i>	
Secundario	29 (78,4%)
Terciario	8 (21,6%)
<i>Tipo UCI</i>	
Polivalente	34 (91,9%)
Monográfico	3 (8,1%)
– Coronario	1 (2,7%)
– Quirúrgico	1 (2,7%)
– Traumático	1 (2,7%)
Responsable de la nutrición artificial	
Intensivista	34 (91,9%)
Unidad de nutrición	2 (5,4%)
Farmacia	1 (2,7%)
Endocrinología/dietista	0
Miembro activo del GTMyN	
Sí	21 (56,8%)
No	16 (43,2%)
Parámetros de gravedad de los pacientes ingresados	
APACHE II score	15,56 ± 2,44
SAPS II score	43,36 ± 12,16
Estancia media en UCI	6,87 ± 2,05 días
Mortalidad en UCI	13,08 ± 4,31%

GTMyN: Grupo de Trabajo de Metabolismo y Nutrición; APACHE II score: Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation II score; SAPS II score: Simplified Acute Physiology Score II.

**Figura 1.**

Resultados de la encuesta (NE: nutrición enteral).

**Figura 2.**

Diferencias en las respuestas entre miembros del GTMyN y no miembros (A), así como entre hospitales de segundo nivel y de tercer nivel asistencial (B) (M NO ACTIVO: miembro no perteneciente al GTMyN; M ACTIVO: miembro activo perteneciente al GTMyN; HOSP 1: hospital de segundo nivel asistencial; HOSP 2: hospital de tercer nivel asistencial. * $p = 0,003$).

DISCUSIÓN

Actualmente, gracias a la evolución tecnológica, tenemos prácticamente de manera inmediata multitud de GPC tanto internacionales como nacionales, con gran cantidad de información a nuestro alcance. Las recomendaciones de interés elevado y las recomendaciones de qué no hacer de los grupos de trabajo de SEMICYUC son una iniciativa dentro de las sociedades científicas que tiene como objetivo resumir las recomendaciones esenciales

de las GPC y ayudar a los profesionales del paciente crítico en el manejo de los aspectos fundamentales de la práctica clínica diaria, que se promueve desde el Ministerio de Sanidad (2,3). Aunque en estudios iniciales se objetivó una mejoría de los resultados clínicos con la implementación de protocolos nutricionales (14), trabajos posteriores no lo confirmaron (15). Los motivos que pueden explicar este fenómeno son múltiples y se deben fundamentalmente a una baja adherencia a GPC o recomendaciones, a la poca adaptación de las intervenciones nutricionales

a la realidad organizativa de las UCI y a la falta colaboración interdisciplinar (16).

Destaca en nuestra encuesta el alto porcentaje de UCI que no disponen de protocolos propios en sus servicios cuando no cuentan con un miembro activo del grupo de GTMyN. En muchos casos, el exceso de información y la complejidad de las GPC también son contraproducentes y es preferible una adaptación a protocolos locales con mensajes más adecuados a la realidad del entorno clínico, con el objetivo de mejorar los resultados (17). Ello se pone de manifiesto cuando se evalúa el grado de adherencia entre las GPC publicadas por la ASPEN, que incluyen más de 90 recomendaciones basadas en 480 referencias, y evidencia la necesidad de más estudios que den respuesta al gran número de controversias que todavía existen en el SNE (18).

Debido al bajo nivel de evidencia en las recomendaciones del SNE en la UCI, es difícil cambiar “falsas creencias” que impiden la implantación de protocolos locales efectivos para un manejo de calidad en el SNE (11, 19). La necesidad de implantar protocolos locales de SNE en UCI de hospitales en los que no hay un miembro activo del GTMyN es una de las áreas de mejora que se pueden deducir de la presente investigación.

Las recomendaciones con una alta aceptación en la encuesta, tales como el inicio de nutrición enteral (NE) precoz (indicador nº 60) y la disponibilidad de protocolos de control glicémico (indicador nº 55), se corresponden con indicadores de calidad relevantes SEMICYUC 2017 y se asocian a la seguridad del paciente crítico (20). Además, son los dos aspectos de la nutrición clínica y las GPC con mayor base científica y reflejo de la buena praxis en las UCI de nuestro medio (21, 22).

También llama la atención que recomendaciones que aparecen como opinión de expertos o con baja evidencia científica tales como el aporte de NE en pacientes con soporte vasoactivo (97,3%), el inicio de NE en ausencia de ruidos hidroaéreos (83,8%) y el aporte de NE en decúbito prono (83,8%) tengan una alta aceptación. Probablemente, esto se deba en gran medida a que el propio GTMyN, auspiciado por la SEMICYUC, cuenta con un amplio panel de expertos que han estudiado estos aspectos controvertidos y tienen un impacto en las prácticas clínicas del SNE en nuestro medio (11, 23, 24). Todos estos aspectos no dejan de subrayar la importancia del liderazgo en la adherencia a recomendaciones (16, 17).

Hay poca adherencia a recomendaciones relevantes y que deben ser un área de mejora para implementar una acción. En particular, el ajuste de las necesidades calórico-proteicas según la fase evolutiva del paciente (51,4%) y prevenir el síndrome de realimentación y la sobrealimentación. No todos los pacientes deben recibir el mismo aporte nutricional mientras permanecen ingresados en la UCI, ya que la agresión metabólica es un proceso dinámico que obliga a ajustar el aporte calórico-proteico en función de la fase de agresión y el riesgo nutricional del paciente (25, 26). La falta de adherencia a esta recomendación de qué no hacer implica la necesidad de una probable intervención para evitar la desnutrición en un grupo de pacientes especialmente vulnerables.

Respecto al ajuste del aporte proteico en pacientes desnutridos con insuficiencia renal para no desarrollar síndrome urémico o

retrasar el inicio de terapias de depuración renal (40,5%), es una acción que no se recomienda debido al importante catabolismo y pérdida proteica presente en estos pacientes, la cual entraría dentro del ámbito de las “falsas creencias”. De hecho, se recomienda un mayor aporte proteico (por lo menos $2,5 \text{ g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) en pacientes con insuficiencia renal para evitar la desnutrición y mejorar la supervivencia (27). Un estudio reciente concluye que la administración de un máximo de $2 \text{ g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ de proteínas no solo no altera la duración de la disfunción renal sino que mejora la supervivencia de estos pacientes (28).

Si bien es cierto que el presente estudio identifica áreas de mejora, tiene limitaciones relevantes. En primer lugar, es un acercamiento teórico al problema ya que los encuestados nos dicen lo que van a hacer pero no lo que realmente hacen. Hasta que no tengamos un análisis cuantitativo del tratamiento nutricional que se realiza en la UCI en este momento, no podremos evaluar la práctica que se realiza en la clínica diariamente. La información obtenida solo nos da una idea de la situación global de la adherencia a las recomendaciones nutricionales de SEMICYUC y de las áreas en las que hay una oportunidad de mejora. Evaluar el grado de adherencias de las GPC resulta altamente complejo debido al elevado número de ítems a evaluar y encuestas como las del presente estudio podrían suponer una herramienta de fácil aplicabilidad para conocer el grado de adherencia a las recomendaciones de SEMICYUC (2, 3), así como a los indicadores de calidad relacionados con las mismas (20). Otra de las limitaciones del estudio es que las personas que participan en esta encuesta tienen una alta implicación en el SNE del enfermo crítico y en un alto porcentaje son miembros activos GTMyN, lo que podría producir una desviación del grado de seguimiento de las recomendaciones.

En conclusión, existe una alta adherencia de manera general a la mayoría de las recomendaciones de SEMICYUC de ámbito nutricional. Se objetivan dos recomendaciones en las que hay escasa aceptación y que podrían corresponder a áreas en las que hay una potencial oportunidad de mejora: el ajuste a las necesidades calóricas-proteicas según la fase evolutiva del paciente y un correcto aporte proteico en pacientes con insuficiencia renal. Asimismo, la implementación de protocolos locales de SNE debería hacerse extensivo a unidades en las que no hay un miembro activo de GTMyN.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Bone mineral density and biochemical and hormonal indicators in children with quadriplegic cerebral palsy

Densidad mineral ósea e indicadores bioquímicos y hormonales en niños con parálisis cerebral cuadripléjica

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Abstract

Introduction: children with cerebral palsy (CP) have multiple risk factors for low bone mineral density or osteoporosis.

Objective: to explore the association between bone mineral density (BMD) and biochemical and hormonal indicators of bone metabolism in children with quadriplegic cerebral palsy (CP).

Methods: a cross-sectional analytical study included 59 participants from six to 18 years of age with quadriplegic CP. Serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus, 25OHD metabolite, parathyroid hormone (PTH), alkaline phosphatase, and thyroid hormones were determined using standardized methods. The BMD measurement was obtained from the lumbar spine expressed in g/cm² and Z-score. Unpaired Student's t-test, Chi-square test, odds ratio and Pearson's correlation were performed.

Results: participants with CP and malnutrition had lower serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase. Those who had low BMD showed lower serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase. Most participants with low and normal BMD had vitamin D deficiency (27.1% and 10%) and insufficiency (35.4% and 30%), respectively. There was a significant correlation between BMD and serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, vitamin D and thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH). There were no differences in the biochemical and hormonal indicators by level of gross motor function, use of anticonvulsants and oral *versus* enteral feeding method.

Conclusion: malnutrition and alteration of vitamin D nutritional status were associated with low BMD and alterations of biochemical indicators of bone metabolism in pediatric patients with quadriplegic CP. The relationship between BMD and biochemical indicators of bone metabolism in children with quadriplegic CP was also demonstrated.

Key words:

Bone mineral density. Quadriplegic cerebral palsy. Bone metabolism. Vitamin D. Phosphorus. Alkaline phosphatase.

Resumen

Introducción: los niños con parálisis cerebral (PC) presentan múltiples factores de riesgo de densidad mineral ósea baja u osteoporosis.

Objetivo: explorar la asociación entre la baja densidad mineral ósea (DMO) e indicadores bioquímicos y hormonales del metabolismo óseo en niños con PC cuadripléjica.

Métodos: un estudio transversal analítico incluyó a 59 participantes de entre seis y 18 años de edad con PC cuadripléjica. Las concentraciones séricas de calcio, fósforo, metabolito 25OHD, hormona paratiroidea (PTH), fosfatasa alcalina y hormonas tiroideas se determinaron utilizando métodos estandarizados. La medición de DMO se obtuvo de la columna lumbar expresada en g/cm² y puntaje Z. Se realizaron pruebas t de Student no pareada, Chi-cuadrado, razón de momios y correlación de Pearson.

Resultados: los participantes con PC y desnutrición tenían concentraciones séricas más bajas de calcio, fósforo y fosfatasa alcalina. Los participantes con DMO baja tuvieron menor concentración sérica de calcio, fósforo y fosfatasa alcalina. Los participantes con DMO baja y normal tenían deficiencia de vitamina D (27.1% y 10%) e insuficiencia (35.4% y 30%), respectivamente. Hubo una correlación significativa entre DMO y las concentraciones séricas de calcio, fósforo, fosfatasa alcalina, vitamina D y hormona estimulante de la tiroides.

Conclusión: la desnutrición y la alteración del estado nutricional de la vitamina D se asociaron con DMO baja y alteraciones de los indicadores bioquímicos del metabolismo óseo. Se demostró una asociación entre DMO e indicadores bioquímicos y hormonales del metabolismo óseo en niños con PC cuadripléjica.

Palabras clave:

Densidad mineral ósea. Parálisis cerebral cuadripléjica. Metabolismo óseo. Vitamina D. Fósforo. Fosfatasa alcalina.

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INTRODUCTION

Cerebral palsy (CP) is a group of disorders of the development of movement and posture, causing limitation of activity, which is attributed to non-progressive damage of the developing brain, in the fetal period or in the first years of life (1). Children with CP have multiple risk factors for low bone mineral density (BMD) or osteoporosis, including the degree of gross motor impairment, protein-energy malnutrition (PEM), the method of feeding and the use of anticonvulsants (2-6).

Anticonvulsant drugs affect BMD due to their adverse effects on the serum concentration of calcium, phosphorus, vitamin D, parathyroid hormone, alkaline phosphatase and thyroid hormones causing hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia, elevated alkaline phosphatase concentration, decreased vitamin D concentration, alterations in thyroid profile and increase in PTH concentration (4,6,7).

The biochemical markers related to bone metabolism in children and adolescents are involved in bone formation, skeletal growth, and bone resorption. In addition, they are influenced by multiple factors, such as age, pubertal stage, growth rate, hormonal regulation, and nutritional status (8). There is increasing evidence reporting the relationship of BMD with these biochemical markers of bone metabolism in children with CP (9-13). Nevertheless, some studies have reported that the decrease of serum concentrations of phosphorus, calcium, vitamin D, alkaline phosphatase and PTH may not be associated with low BMD (3,12).

The purpose of this study was to explore the association between BMD and biochemical and hormonal indicators of bone metabolism in children with quadriplegic CP treated at a University Hospital in the metropolitan area of Guadalajara, Mexico.

METHODS

Analytical cross-sectional study including 62 participants from six to 18 years of age with quadriplegic CP with or without spasticity who attended the Pediatric Neurology Outpatient Clinic of the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara. The results of the present study are part of a study conducted in the same population of children and adolescents with quadriplegic cerebral palsy (2). The sample size was calculated in 58 participants with an alpha level of 0.05, power of 0.80, an expected frequency of low bone mineral density in children with CP of 42% (14), and a type II error of 0.20. We did not include patients with diagnoses unrelated to CP (autism, Down syndrome, degenerative disorders, hypothyroidism), moderate or severe congenital malformations, CP of postnatal origin and/or other diseases that affect bone mineral metabolism.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The protocol did not expose participants to risk and adhered to the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki in its last correction made during the 64th Annual Assembly organized by the World Medical Association (2013). The persons legally responsible for

the participants signed the informed consent and the research protocol was approved by the Bioethics and Research Committee of the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara with registration number 66/HCJIM-JAL/2016.

DETERMINATION OF BONE MINERAL DENSITY

The measurement of BMD expressed in g/cm² and age-adjusted Z-score was performed by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) using the GE Medical Systems Lunar software by a certified technician. The lumbar spine (L₁-L₄) was used as the region of interest, with the following criteria: low BMD for age, a Z-score defined as bone mass reduction (< -2 Z-score), and osteoporosis defined as bone mass reduction plus the alteration of bone architecture (< -2 Z-score plus a significant fracture history: two or more long bone fractures before ten years of age or three or more long bone fractures before 19 years of age) (15-17).

LABORATORY ANALYSIS

We obtained 5 ml of peripheral blood for the determination of serum concentrations of biochemical indicators and hormones with standardized methods. The 25OHD metabolite and PTH were determined by the chemiluminescence immunoassay method LIAISON® 25OH Vitamin D Total and LIAISON® 1-84 PTH Assay, DiaSorin (USA). The cut-off points for 25OHD metabolite were as follows: deficiency (< 30 nmol/l), insufficiency (30-50 nmol/l), sufficiency (51-75 nmol/l) and optimal (> 75 nmol/l) (14,18); the PTH reference values were 9 to 52 pg/ml.

The serum concentrations of phosphorus, calcium and alkaline phosphatase were determined by spectrophotometry (SYN-CHRON®, Beckman Coulter, USA), with the following reference values: calcium 8.7-10.7 mg/dl, phosphorus 2.4-5.6 mg/dl and alkaline phosphatase 30-400 IU/l. TSH, triiodothyronine (T₃) and thyroxine (T₄) were determined by the chemiluminescence immunoassay method using the Access Immunoassay System (Beckman Coulter, USA) with the following reference values: TSH 0.27-3.1 uIU/ml, T₃ 0.26-0.62 ng/ml, and T₄ 4.5-10.8 µg/ml.

NUTRITIONAL STATUS

The weight/age (W/A) and BMI anthropometric indexes were calculated using the Brooks reference (19). Those participants whose BMI and W/A scores were between the 10th and 90th percentiles were considered as normal and those who were located < 10th percentile were considered as malnourished.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The normality of data distribution was determined with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The unpaired Student's t-test was used

for quantitative variables with normal distribution. The Chi-square test was used for qualitative variables. Odds ratios were used to identify the probability of association and its epidemiological significance. The Pearson's correlation test and the coefficient of determination (R^2) were used to explain the variability of BMD in relation to the biochemical indicators studied. The multiple linear regressions were used to explain the variability between BMD and several independent variables. A p value ≤ 0.05 was considered as significant. Data capture and analysis was done with the SPSS program version 20 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

RESULTS

We included 62 participants from six to 18 years of age (11 ± 4 years) with quadriplegic CP; three were excluded because they presented BMD $< 0.208 \text{ g/cm}^2$ (< -7 SD). Of the 59 participants, 25 (42.4%) were female and 34 (57.6%) were male. By age groups, 61% were school children (six to eleven years old) and 39% were adolescents (12 to 18 years old). According to the Gross Motor Function Classification System (GMFCS), in the total population, 6.8% belong to level III, 20.3% to level IV and 72.9% to level V. Most of the participants with low and normal BMD received anticonvulsants (98% and 90%, respectively).

Biochemical and hormonal indicators according to BMD. The nutritional status of vitamin D was deficient in 27.1% of children with low BMD and 10% of children with normal BMD, while it was insufficient in 35.4% of children with low BMD and 30% in children with normal BMD. Serum calcium and phosphorus concentration were normal in most children with normal and low BMD; only 14.9% of children with low BMD presented hypocalcemia and 10.6% had low serum concentrations of phosphorus. In children with low BMD, 11.4% had elevated PTH concentrations while 4.5% had low PTH concentrations; 13% of children with low BMD had elevated concentrations of T_4 . In contrast, 11.1% of children with normal BMD had low concentrations of T_4 . Serum T_3 concentrations were elevated in all the children with low BMD and normal in all the children with normal BMD. Elevated TSH serum concentrations were found in children with low and normal BMD (Table I).

The serum calcium concentration was lower in children with low BMD vs children with normal BMD ($p = 0.02$). Similarly, there was a trend towards lower concentrations of phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase in children with low BMD ($p < 0.1$) (Table II).

Biochemical and hormonal indicators and malnutrition. According to the BMI, 43% of the total sample had malnutrition and 57% had normal nutritional status. Similarly, using the W/A index, 48% of the children had malnutrition and 52% presented a normal nutritional status. Children with malnutrition, according to BMI, had significantly lower serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus, and alkaline phosphatase vs non-malnourished children. With the W/A index, the serum concentrations of phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase were significantly lower in children with malnutrition (Table III).

The odds of alterations of biochemical and hormonal indicators according to sex, age group, motor impairment, use of anticonvulsants, feeding method and nutritional status are described in table IV.

No significant differences in the biochemical and hormonal indicators by sex, GMFCS, use of anticonvulsants, type of therapy and feeding methods were found. Nevertheless, adolescents had lower serum concentration of phosphorus than school children ($p = 0.004$). According to the GMFCS, 62% children from level V and 44% of children from levels III and IV had lower concentrations than the average of 25OHD metabolite. Males were more likely to have high-

Table I. Serum concentrations of calcium, vitamin D, alkaline phosphatase, phosphorus, PTH and thyroid hormones in participants with quadriplegic CP according to BMD

Variable	Low BMD		Normal BMD	
	n	%	n	%
<i>Vitamin D status (nmol/l) (n = 48)</i>				
Deficiency	13	27.1	1	10.0
Insufficiency	17	35.4	3	30.0
Sufficiency	13	27.1	4	40.0
Optimal	5	10.4	2	20.0
<i>Calcium (mg/dl) (n = 47)</i>				
Low	7	14.9	0	0.0
Normal	40	85.1	10	100.0
High	0	0	0	0.0
<i>Alkaline phosphatase (U/l) (n = 47)</i>				
Low	3	6.4	0	0.0
Normal	41	87.2	10	100
High	3	6.4	0	0.0
<i>Phosphorus (mg/dl) (n = 47)</i>				
Low	5	10.6	0	0.0
Normal	40	85.1	10	100
High	2	4.3	0	0.0
<i>PTH (pg/ml) (n = 44)</i>				
Low	2	4.5	0	0.0
Normal	37	84.1	10	100
High	5	11.4	0	0.0
<i>T_3 (ng/ml) (n = 46)</i>				
Low	0	0	0	0.0
Normal	0	0	9	100
High	46	100	0	0.0
<i>T_4 ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) (n = 46)</i>				
Low	1	2.2	1	11.1
Normal	39	84.8	8	88.9
High	6	13.0	0	0.0
<i>TSH (uIU/ml) (n = 42)</i>				
Low	0	0	0	0.0
Normal	25	59.5	5	62.5
High	17	40.5	3	37.5

¹BMD: bone mineral density; PTH: parathyroid hormone; T_3 : triiodothyronine; T_4 : thyroxine; TSH: thyroid-stimulating hormone.

Table II. Serum concentrations between participants with low BMD vs normal BMD

Biochemical variables	Low BMD			Normal BMD			p
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	
Calcium (mg/dl)	47	9.15	0.45	10	9.51	0.36	0.020
Phosphorus (mg/dl)	47	4.30	0.84	10	4.58	0.25	0.063
Alkaline phosphatase (U/l)	47	151	62	10	188	60	0.088
PTH (pg/ml)	44	28.4	18.7	10	23.0	8.1	0.162
Vitamin D (nmol/l)	48	47.0	29.8	10	55.1	20.8	0.419
T ₃ (ng/ml)	46	1.29	0.40	9	1.21	0.26	0.573
TSH (uIU/ml)	42	3.36	2.29	8	2.97	1.87	0.657
T ₄ (µg/ml)	46	8.21	1.93	9	8.01	2.05	0.789

Statistics: unpaired Student's t-test. BMD: bone mineral density; PTH: parathyroid hormone; T₃: triiodothyronine; TSH: thyroid-stimulating hormone; T₄: thyroxine.

Table III. Serum concentrations of biochemical indicators in participants with quadriplegic CP according to nutritional status

Biochemical variables	Malnourished			Non-malnourished			p
	n	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD	
BMI (kg/m ²)							
Calcium (mg/dl)	24	9.00	0.48	33	9.36	0.37	0.003
Phosphorus (mg/dl)	24	4.09	0.87	33	4.54	0.65	0.030
Alkaline phosphatase (U/l)	24	138	51	33	171	67	0.050
PTH (pg/ml)	22	28.1	18.2	32	26.9	16.9	0.804
Vitamin D (nmol/l)	25	44.1	30.9	33	51.6	26.4	0.326
T ₃ (ng/ml)	23	1.25	0.36	32	1.29	0.40	0.722
TSH (uIU/ml)	22	3.44	2.14	28	3.18	2.31	0.689
T ₄ (µg/ml)	23	8.42	1.47	32	8.00	2.22	0.427
Weight/age (percentiles)							
Calcium (mg/dl)	27	9.18	0.54	30	9.24	0.37	0.656
Phosphorus (mg/dl)	27	4.08	0.84	30	4.60	0.63	0.010
Alkaline phosphatase (U/l)	27	132	47	30	180	67	0.003
PTH (pg/ml)	25	26.1	18.0	29	28.6	16.9	0.597
Vitamin D (nmol/l)	28	45.5	29.5	30	51.1	27.6	0.458
T ₃ (ng/ml)	26	1.30	0.46	29	1.25	0.30	0.584
TSH (uIU/ml)	24	3.44	1.98	26	3.17	2.45	0.672
T ₄ (µg/ml)	26	8.33	2.17	29	8.04	1.72	0.581

Statistic: unpaired Student's t-test. Malnourished: percentile < 10th. Non-malnourished percentile 10-90th. PTH: parathyroid hormone; T₃: triiodothyronine; TSH: thyroid-stimulating hormone; T₄: thyroxine.

er than the average serum concentrations of alkaline phosphatase. By age group, the likelihood of lower than the average of serum phosphorus concentrations was higher in adolescents than in school children. With the W/A index, malnourished children were found to have a higher likelihood of lower than the average serum phosphorus concentrations. In contrast, children without malnutrition were more likely to have higher than the average serum alkaline phosphatase concentrations. With BMI, children with malnutrition were more likely to have lower than the average of serum calcium concentrations.

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BMD AND BIOCHEMICAL INDICATORS

The association between biochemical and hormonal indicators was analyzed and there were no significant associations. There were significant correlations between BMD (g/cm²) and serum phosphorus concentrations ($r = 0.310$, $R^2 = 0.096$, $p = 0.019$) and alkaline phosphatase ($r = 0.327$, $R^2 = 0.107$, $p = 0.013$). The linear regression between BMD (g/cm²) and TSH was inverse

Table IV. Serum concentrations of biochemical indicators by sex, age group, use of anticonvulsants and nutritional status: probability of higher or lower values than average

Indicator	Sex						
	Males		Females		OR	CI (95%)	p
	n/N	%	n/N	%			
ALP (U/l) (> 157)	18/33	54.5	6/24	25	3.6	1.14, 11.4	0.027
Indicator	Age group						
	Adolescents		School-aged children		OR	CI (95%)	p
	n/N	%	n/N	%			
Phosphorus (mg/dl) (< 4.35)	14/22	63.6	11/35	31.4	3.8	1.2, 11.8	0.018
Indicator	Use of anticonvulsants						
	Poly-therapy		Monotherapy		OR	CI (95%)	p
	n/N	%	n/N	%			
T ₄ (µg/ml) (< 8.17)	18/28	64.3	11/27	40.7	2.6	0.88, 7.8	0.083
Indicator	Nutritional status (weight/age)						
	Malnourished		Non-malnourished		OR	CI (95%)	p
	n/N	%	n/N	%			
Phosphorus (mg/dl) (< 4.35)	16/27	59.3	9/30	30	3.39	1.13, 10.1	0.028
ALP (U/l) (> 157)	4/27	14.8	20/30	66.7	11.5	3.1, 42.4	< 0.001
Indicator	Nutritional status (BMI)						
	Malnourished		Non-malnourished		OR	CI (95%)	p
	n/N	%	n/N	%			
Phosphorus (mg/dl) (< 4.35)	11/33	33	14/24	58.3	0.35	0.12, 1.1	0.06
Vitamin D (nmol/l) (< 48.4)	17/25	68	16/33	48.5	2.3	0.8, 6.7	0.14
Calcium (mg/dl) (< 9.21)	16/24	66.7	11/33	33	4.0	1.3, 12.2	0.013
ALP (U/l) (> 157)	7/24	29.2	17/33	51.5	2.6	0.8, 7.9	0.09

ALP: alkaline phosphatase; T₄: thyroxin. Almost all biochemical indicators had serum concentrations lower than average among different variables. ALP serum concentration was higher than average among variables as sex, weight/age and BMI.

($r = -0.316$, $R^2 = 0.099$, $p = 0.030$). There was a direct and potentially significant correlation between the serum concentrations of vitamin D and BMD ($p = 0.056$). No correlations were observed between BMD (g/cm²) and calcium, T₃, T₄ and PTH. The linear regressions between BMD expressed in Z-score and the biochemical indicators showed some different findings; 22% of the variance in BMD was explained by phosphorus ($p < 0.001$), 20% by alkaline phosphatase ($p < 0.001$) and 8% by calcium ($p = 0.036$) (Fig. 1A-C), respectively. No correlations were observed between BMD (Z-score) with vitamin D, T₃, T₄, TSH, and PTH.

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSIONS WITH BMD AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Four multiple regression models were performed with BMD expressed in g/cm² and in Z-score as dependent variable. The first multiple regression model with BMD (g/cm²), with the stepwise method, accepted the variables phosphorus concentration, alka-

line phosphatase and TSH, which explained 17% of the variability in BMD. The second model accepted the variables weight and serum phosphorus concentration, which explained 54% of the variability in BMD. Contrary, when Z-score was used, the variables phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase explained 28% of the variability in BMD and the last model accepted the variables BMI, age and serum phosphorus concentration, which explained 41% of the variability (Table V).

DISCUSSION

Children with CP have been found to have decreased BMD due to various factors, such as the degree of motor impairment, malnutrition, the use of anticonvulsants, and feeding problems (2,3). In the present study, it was observed that 8.5% of the participants had osteoporosis (BMD < -2 Z-score + history of fractures) and 74.6% had low BMD for age (< -2 SD). This finding is consistent with other studies that have shown a similar frequency of low

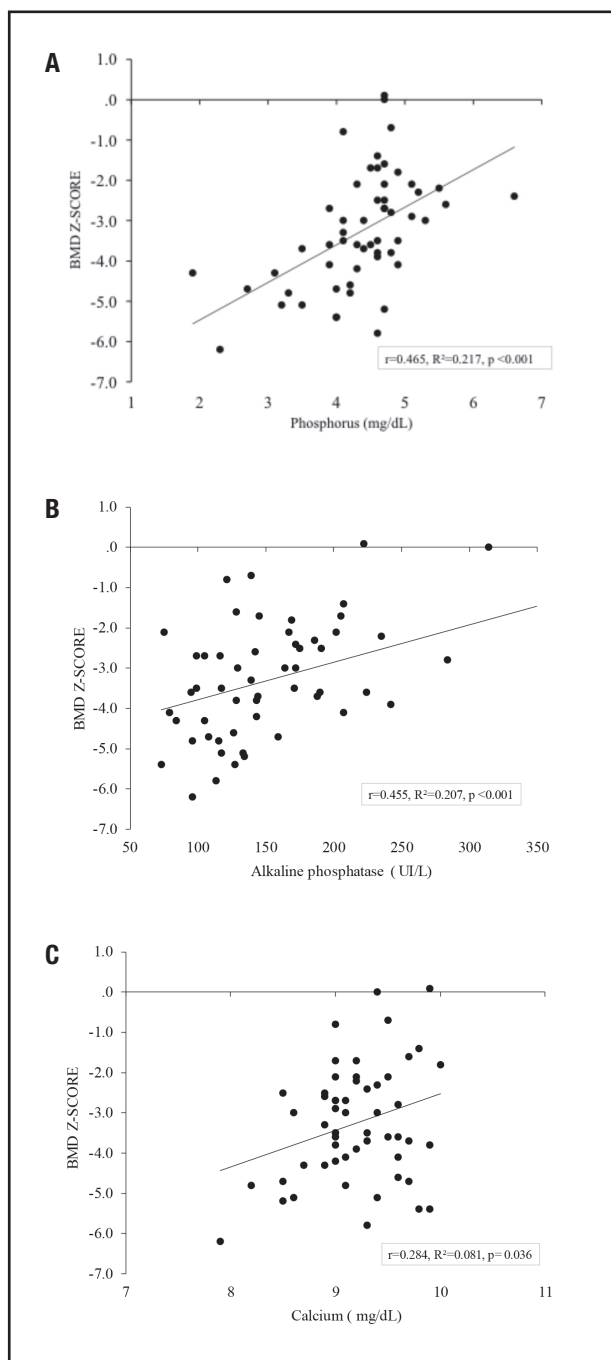


Figure 1.

Relationship between BMD (Z-score) and phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, and calcium concentrations.

BMD in these patients. Tosun (13) reported that 63% of children with motor impairment had low BMD; likewise, Jacob (20) and Coppola (21) found that 80.7% and 70.2% of their participants had low BMD, respectively. Children with CP and acute malnutrition (BMI < 10th percentile) showed lower serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus, and alkaline phosphatase. With the W/A index (composite indicator whose deficit reflects a chronic and

acute malnutrition), lower phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase serum concentrations were also observed. The probability of serum concentrations lower than the average of phosphorus, calcium and alkaline phosphatase was higher in malnourished *versus* non-malnourished children. It is known that malnourished children, especially those with severe grade malnutrition, have hypocalcemia, probably because the total calcium concentration must be adjusted to the concentration of albumin (22). In addition, it is common for the serum concentration of alkaline phosphatase to be decreased in these patients (23).

Adolescents had lower serum phosphorus concentrations than school children. This finding may be explained because at puberty the BMD increases significantly and reaches its maximum peak of calcium accumulation in the bone (40 to 60%) (24). It has also been observed that the serum concentration of phosphorus is higher in school children and progressively decreases at the concentrations observed in adults during the late phase of puberty (25). There were no significant differences in the serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, thyroid hormones, and PTH between the different GMFCS levels. Chen (9) found differences in serum calcium concentrations between children belonging to level I-II vs III vs IV-V of GMFCS (p = 0.042). Children belonging to levels IV and V had lower serum calcium concentration vs children belonging to level III. Finbraten (14) did not find differences in serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase and PTH between children belonging to levels I-III vs IV-V of GMFCS.

The 25OHD concentration below the average was 62% in level V and 44% in levels III and IV. It is likely that children belonging to level V, with greater motor impairment, would have been less exposed to the sun's rays. In addition, they would have greater problems in their feeding; consequently, an insufficient intake of vitamin D (26). Most participants with low BMD and normal BMD had deficiency (27.1% and 10%) and insufficiency (35.4% and 30%), respectively, of vitamin D. It has been shown that vitamin D deficiency causes less absorption of dietary calcium and increases the secretion of PTH, which activates the renal hydroxylation of calcidiol and increases the renal reabsorption of calcium. In addition, this deficiency induces osteoclastic activity that could increase the risk of BMD loss (27). Henderson et al. (10) showed that 33% of children studied with CP have vitamin D deficiency. Fong et al. (28) and Shellhaas et al. (11) found a similar frequency of vitamin D deficiency (22% and 25%, respectively). Tosun et al. (13) observed that 33.3% and 26.7% of their patients with CP had vitamin D deficiency and insufficiency, respectively. These findings confirm that children with CP, regardless of BMD, are at potential risk of vitamin D deficiency and require periodic monitoring and eventual substitution treatment. The serum calcium concentrations were lower in children with CP with low BMD, and there was a tendency toward lower serum concentrations of phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase. It is known that calcium normal limits are narrow; therefore, when the serum calcium concentration is 1-2 mg/dl lower than normal, hypocalcemia symptoms occur. This situation is infrequent due to the great capacity of redistribution and exchange of calcium from bone to serum and

Table V. Multiple linear regressions with BMD expressed in g/cm² and Z-score as dependent variable and phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, TSH, weight, age and BMI as independent variables

Variables		Mean	SD	r	R ²	p
BMD (g/cm²)						
Model 1*	Phosphorus (mg/dl)	4.4	0.8	0.310	0.096	0.019
	Alkaline phosphatase (U/l)	157	63	0.381	0.145	0.014
	TSH (uIU/ml)	3.3	2.2	0.416	0.173	0.031
Model 2†	Weight (kg)	18	6	0.678	0.459	< 0.001
	Phosphorus (mg/dl)	4.4	0.8	0.732	0.536	0.002
BMD (Z-score)						
Model 1‡	Phosphorus (mg/dl)	4.4	0.8	0.465	0.217	< 0.001
	Alkaline phosphatase (U/l)	157	63	0.529	0.280	0.033
Model 2§	BMI (kg/m ²)	13.1	2.8	0.433	0.188	0.001
	Age (years)	10	3	0.584	0.342	0.001
	Phosphorus (mg/dl)	4.4	0.8	0.643	0.413	0.004

VIF: variance inflation factor. *VIF: 1.015; Durbin-Watson: 1.608. †VIF: 1.000; Durbin-Watson: 2.061. ‡VIF: 1.189; Durbin-Watson: 1.952. §VIF: 1.164; Durbin-Watson: 1.998.

vice versa (29). It is possible that this physiological phenomenon is less effective in children with CP and low BMD. Conversely, Esen et al. (12) reported that decreased serum concentrations of phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase and PTH were not associated with a decrease in BMD. Similarly, Akhter et al. (3) reported that there were no differences in BMD among children with lower serum calcium, phosphorus, vitamin D, and alkaline phosphatase concentrations *versus* those with normal serum concentrations.

The majority of children with CP with low BMD (98%) and normal BMD (90%) received anticonvulsants. It has been shown that anticonvulsants have a negative impact on BMD (30), probably due to the adverse effects that they produce on bone mineral metabolism. These anticonvulsant drugs can produce hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia, elevated alkaline phosphatase concentration, decreased vitamin D concentration, alterations in thyroid profile, and increased PTH concentration (7,13,31). It should be noted that in the present study, no significant association was observed between these medications and BMD, probably because the majority of participants were receiving anticonvulsant treatment. In addition, these biochemical alterations were not observed in children who received antiepileptic drugs and in children who did not receive them. Similar findings have been reported in previous studies. Cheng et al. (4) reported that there were no significant differences in biochemical parameters of bone metabolism between children who received anticonvulsants *vs* children who did not. Similarly, Chen et al. (9) conclude that there were no significant differences in bone turnover or other related to biochemical indicators of bone metabolism between children with CP and healthy children.

Valproic acid was the most commonly used drug in all participants with low BMD (77.3%) and normal BMD (83.3%). This drug is widely used in the pediatric population and causes metabolic

acidosis, which damages the bone matrix and causes tubular renal dysfunction with greater urinary loss of calcium and phosphorus. Consequently, it could affect BMD (30,32).

The serum concentration of phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase explained 9.6% and 10% of the variability in bone mineral density (g/cm²), respectively, while the inverse relationship of TSH with BMD explained 9.9% of its variability. This finding could be explained by the fact that TSH inhibits the differentiation and function of osteoclasts by mechanisms independent of T₃ and suppresses the activity of osteoblasts (6). Chen et al. (9) and Sharawat et al. (33) did not find a correlation between BMD and serum calcium, phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase concentrations. However, in the present study, 21% of the variability in BMD (Z-score) was explained by the serum concentration of phosphorus ($p < 0.001$), 20% by alkaline phosphatase ($p < 0.001$) and 8% by calcium ($p = 0.036$).

There was a clear trend in the correlation between the serum concentration of vitamin D and BMD ($p = 0.056$). Vitamin D, through its active metabolite 1,25(OH)₂D₃, exerts a double action at the bone level, mobilizes calcium and phosphorus toward the extracellular fluid to maintain an adequate serum concentration of these inorganic nutrients, normalizes the blood calcium and favors the mineral deposit in the bone (17). However, several authors have not found this correlation between BMD and serum vitamin D concentrations (10,12-14,33).

We observed that the BMD in Z-score would be more oriented to the variables related to changes in BMD. This conclusion is based on the multivariate models designed in which it was observed that, with BMD in Z-score instead of g/cm², the variables BMI, age and serum phosphorus explained 41% of the variability. On the other hand, with the BMD in g/cm², only weight and serum phosphorus were included in the model that explains 54% of the variability.

A limitation of the study was due to the cross-sectional study design because we could not establish causality between exposure and effect. Another limitation was related to the sample size; in the analysis of some variables, a type II error was probably made. For example, in the association of greater serum concentration of phosphorus and alkaline phosphatase in non-malnourished children, in the association between malnutrition and lower serum concentration of vitamin D, in the association of gross motor function with lower serum vitamin D concentration, and in the association of polytherapy with below average serum concentrations of T_4 . In all cases, by duplicating the values of each cell of the contingency table, the probability improved significantly. Another limitation was that BMD was only measured in the lumbar spine. However, the measurement of BMD in the lumbar spine is valid (34) and has been used in different studies (10,12,20,21). The last limitation was that we did not measure serum concentrations of biomarkers of bone resorption because it was not feasible for the laboratory of the hospital to do it.

The main strength of the study was the demonstration of the association between biochemical indicators and hormonal biomarkers of bone metabolism and BMD in pediatric patients with quadriplegic CP in the Mexican population.

In conclusion, the present study demonstrated the direct correlation of BMD with serum concentrations of calcium, phosphorus, alkaline phosphatase, vitamin D and the inverse correlation with TSH in children with quadriplegic CP. BMD in Z-score would be more oriented to the variables related to changes in BMD, the variables BMI, age and serum phosphorus explained 41% of the variability.

The association of malnutrition, use of anticonvulsants and gross motor function impairment with biochemical indicators and hormonal biomarkers of bone metabolism was shown. Therefore, these variables should be monitored and controlled. For example, malnutrition may be prevented assuring a correct diet, an adequate use of anticonvulsants to prevent alteration of bone metabolism and optimized physical rehabilitation strategies to improve gross motor function. In this way, it would be possible to optimize the bone mineralization that could prevent the risk of osteoporosis and fractures in children with quadriplegic CP.

Further longitudinal studies are required to provide information about the association of BMD (measured at different skeletal regions) with biochemical and hormonal indicators of bone metabolism, as well as clinical assays to evaluate the effect of an integral treatment on those variables affecting the BMD in children with CP in medium and long terms.

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Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Intervención para el fomento del consumo de leche y productos lácteos como parte de una estrategia para la disminución del exceso de peso en adolescentes de la Ciudad de México

Intervention for the promotion on the consumption of milk and dairy products as a strategy to reduce overweight in adolescents of México

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Resumen

Introducción: el consumo de leche y productos lácteos puede jugar un papel importante en el mantenimiento del peso corporal saludable, ya que, en condiciones normales de los individuos, se ha observado una asociación negativa entre la ingesta diaria del calcio contenido en la leche y los productos lácteos con el incremento adipositario.

Objetivo: determinar si el consumo de leche y productos lácteos repercute en la disminución del peso corporal de los adolescentes de escuelas secundarias de la Ciudad de México.

Métodos: ensayo comunitario con 2.368 adolescentes en tres fases: descripción del estado de nutrición inicial, intervención educativa multidisciplinaria en el grupo intervención y evaluación de los cambios observados. Se aplicó a los participantes un cuestionario de frecuencia de consumo de alimentos y recordatorio de 24 horas, se tomaron medidas antropométricas y se utilizó el programa Who Anthro Plus® para obtener el diagnóstico nutricional.

Resultados: se encontró, en el grupo de intervención, que los adolescentes que nunca consumen leche entera, leche descremada, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural presentan mayor prevalencia de obesidad (15,8%, 12,5%, 19,0% y 19,0%, respectivamente), en comparación con los adolescentes que los consumen diariamente (0,0%, 0,0%, 2,3% y 5,6%, respectivamente), con una diferencia altamente significativa para el consumo de queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural ($p \leq 0,01$). Se logró aumentar la frecuencia de consumo de lácteos y se observaron cambios en el estado de nutrición en el grupo de intervención, donde la prevalencia de obesidad disminuyó del 13,8% al 6,1%.

Conclusiones: los adolescentes con mayor consumo de leche y productos lácteos presentaron menor prevalencia de obesidad.

Palabras clave:

Intervención. Leche. Lácteos. Obesidad. Adolescentes. México.

Abstract

Introduction: the consumption of milk and dairy products can play an important role in the maintenance of healthy body weight, since, under normal conditions of individuals, a negative association has been observed between daily intake of calcium contained in milk and dairy products and adiposity markers.

Objective: to determine if the consumption of milk and dairy products affects the body weight reduction of adolescents in high school in Mexico City.

Methods: community trial with 2,368 adolescents in three phases: description of the initial nutritional status, multidisciplinary educational intervention in the intervention group and evaluation of the changes observed. A food frequency and reminder questionnaire of 24 hours was applied to the participants, anthropometric measures were taken and the Who Anthro Plus® program was used to obtain the nutritional diagnosis.

Results: it was found, in the intervention group, that adolescents who never consume whole milk, skimmed milk, fresh cow's cheese and natural yogurt have a higher prevalence of obesity (15.8%, 12.5%, 19.0% and 19.0%, respectively), compared to the adolescents who consume them daily (0.0%, 0.0%, 2.3% and 5.6%, respectively), there being a highly significant difference for the consumption of cheese fresh cow's milk and natural yogurt ($p \leq 0.01$). It was possible to increase the frequency of dairy consumption and changes in nutritional status were observed in the intervention group, where the prevalence of obesity decreased from 13.8% to 6.1%.

Conclusions: adolescents with higher milk consumption and dairy products had a lower prevalence of obesity.

Key words:

Intervention. Milk. Dairy. Obesity. Adolescents. Mexico.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La prevalencia de obesidad se ha incrementado de manera importante en los últimos años en todo el mundo, convirtiéndose en una prioridad de salud pública (1). De acuerdo con los resultados reportados por la Encuesta Nacional de Salud y Nutrición 2016 de Medio Camino en México, la prevalencia combinada de sobrepeso y obesidad en la población adolescente de 12 a 19 años es del 36,3% (2).

Se ha documentado que el consumo de lácteos, por su contenido en calcio, proteínas y otros compuestos bioactivos, podría modular el balance energético del organismo y actuar como facilitador de la pérdida de peso y grasa corporal (3,4).

Los productos lácteos proporcionan el calcio y las proteínas que pueden facilitar el control del apetito. En investigaciones recientes se ha encontrado cómo estos agentes saciadores pueden atenuar el incremento del hambre, induciendo de esta manera la pérdida del peso corporal (5,6). Haug (7) señala que el alto contenido de proteínas presentes en los lácteos promueve la saciedad a corto y mediano plazo.

Asimismo, Moreno y cols. (4) refieren que la regulación adipositaria de los lácteos probablemente se deba a que la grasa láctea tiene un contenido elevado de ácido butírico (C4: 0) y es la principal fuente energética del epitelio del colon. Este tipo de ácidos grasos son fácilmente absorbibles, constituyen una fuente de energía inmediata y presentan una baja tendencia a ser almacenados en el tejido adiposo.

Igualmente, Ortega y cols. (8) citan que la grasa de la leche es una fuente importante de ácido linoleico conjugado (ALC), reportando la presencia de 14 isómeros, de los cuales los de mayor interés son el ALC 18:2 n-7 cis-9, trans-11 y ALC 18:2 n-6 trans-10 cis-12 porque promueven el crecimiento y una masa corporal magra, además de tener función anticancerígena, antiarteriogénica e inmunomoduladora.

Rodríguez y cols. (9) mencionan estudios llevados a cabo en niños obesos o con sobrepeso a los cuales se les administraron batidos lácteos o cápsulas con concentraciones de ALC de 3 a 4,2 mg/día y C18:2 trans-10, cis-12 en proporción 1:1, que dieron como resultado disminuciones en la acumulación de grasa corporal.

Por lo anteriormente citado, el objetivo del presente estudio fue determinar si el incremento en el consumo de leche y productos lácteos repercute en la disminución del peso corporal de los adolescentes de escuelas secundarias de la Ciudad de México.

MÉTODOS

En el presente ensayo comunitario, el foco de selección fueron unidades agregadas (16 escuelas secundarias de la Ciudad de México) en las que se contó con 2.368 adolescentes de primer grado de Secundaria. Se consideraron dos secundarias de cada una de las siguientes alcaldías: Álvaro Obregón, Coyoacán, Cuauhtémoc, Iztapalapa, Tláhuac, Tlalpan, Venustiano Carranza y Xochimilco, que fueron consideradas por factores socioeconómicos y demográficos para garantizar que las muestras fuesen equiparables (una escuela para el grupo control y una para el grupo intervención de cada alcaldía).

Para el muestreo de las escuelas secundarias técnicas se partió de una base de 119 planteles, de los cuales se seleccionaron solo aquellos que contaban con médico escolar. De esta selección se obtuvieron 75 planteles.

Se hizo una nueva selección de donde se extrajeron aquellos planteles que tuvieran dos turnos (matutino y vespertino) para contrastar si los alumnos del turno matutino tenían características similares a las del vespertino. De esta última selección se obtuvieron 56 planteles.

Sobre estos 56 planteles, que son los que cumplieron con los criterios de selección, se tomaron al azar los planteles de estudio.

La selección se ajustó a un muestreo aleatorio simple con población finita y se usó la fórmula de Murray y Larry (10) sobre el número de 56 escuelas:

$$n = \frac{Z_a^2 \cdot N \cdot p \cdot q}{i^2 (N - 1) + Z_a^2 \cdot p \cdot q}$$

Donde:

n: tamaño de la muestra.

N: tamaño de la población, se usa el valor de 56 (secundarias que cumplieron con todos los criterios de selección).

Z: valor correspondiente a la distribución aproximadamente normal, $Z_{\alpha} = 1,62$; $\alpha = 0,10$.

p: prevalencia esperada del parámetro a evaluar, en caso de desconocerse ($p = 0,5$), que hace mayor el tamaño de la muestra.

q: $1 - p$ (si $p = 50\%$, entonces, $q = 50\%$).

i: error que se asume (18%).

$$n = \frac{(1,62^2) (56) (0,5) (0,5)}{0,0324 (56-1) + (1,62^2) (0,5) (0,5)} = 15,07 \approx 15$$

Se seleccionaron 16 planteles para obtener resultados pareados de al menos la mitad de las alcaldías de la Ciudad de México, usando un generador de números aleatorios (Excel) con distribución binomial con una probabilidad del 0,28.

No se realizó ninguna selección por género. Para facilitar el muestreo y que este fuera lo más fiable y objetivo posible, así como por razones pedagógicas, psicológicas y operativas, en las secundarias seleccionadas se consideraron grupos completos de la edad asignada de primero de Secundaria, que teóricamente se relacionan con una edad. Esto no quiere decir que todos los adolescentes del grupo cumplieran la condición, ya que podía haber repetidores. Todos los alumnos que entregaron su hoja de consentimiento informado fueron objeto de estudio. El presente estudio fue revisado y aprobado por la Comisión del Doctorado en Ciencias Biológicas y de la Salud de la Universidad Autónoma Metropolitana en la Ciudad de México.

Debido a que las escuelas seleccionadas contaban con un médico, y era necesario contar con nutriólogo y psicólogo, se reclutaron servidores sociales y prestadores de prácticas profesionales de estas disciplinas, considerando una capacitación previa, ya que las condiciones económicas no permitían la contratación de estos profesionales de la salud. Por ello, en el estudio se formaron equipos multidisciplinarios para la implementación de las estrategias, conformados por el médico escolar, un prestador de servicio social de nutrición y uno de prácticas

profesionales de psicología, con el apoyo de un trabajador social para cada plantel del grupo de intervención.

Considerando que la formación en México de los médicos generales no cuenta con las habilidades suficientes para abordar los problemas nutricionales, se capacitó en este campo de estudio a los médicos escolares. De la misma forma, se capacitó a los pasantes de servicio social y de prácticas profesionales en materia de promoción de hábitos y estilos de vida saludable para fomentar el consumo de leche y productos lácteos.

Asimismo, se diseñaron con las necesidades específicas de cada grupo 26 materiales educativos tipo cómic que coadyuvaban en la eficacia para la modificación de hábitos alimentarios y estilos de vida de los adolescentes sujetos a estudio. Para la difusión de los materiales educativos se usaron dos estrategias: para el grupo control se usaron materiales digitales, 24 cómics disponibles en la página de la Secretaría de Educación (SEP) (www.5pasos.sep.gob.mx), en tanto que para el grupo de intervención se repartieron 24 cómics impresos a cada uno de los alumnos y padres de familia de la muestra de estudio (18 a alumnos y seis a padres). Cabe señalar que para los médicos escolares y profesores se diseñó un manual para cada uno, pero también se les entregó la misma cantidad de materiales educativos que a los alumnos y padres de familia.

Se aplicaron evaluaciones después de cada una de las capacitaciones a los profesionales de la salud que apoyaron en la integración de los equipos multidisciplinarios, así como a los profesores.

Se aplicó a los participantes un cuestionario de frecuencia de consumo de alimentos de los últimos siete días. Asimismo, para conocer el aporte diario de macronutrientes y de calcio procedente de lácteos se aplicó un recordatorio de 24 horas. Se tomaron medidas antropométricas (peso, obtenido mediante el uso de una báscula digital marca Seca® modelo 813, y estatura, medido con un tallímetro portátil marca Seca® modelo 213) y mediante el uso del programa Who Anthro Plus® se obtuvo el diagnóstico del estado de nutrición. El análisis estadístico utilizado en el presente trabajo consistió en pruebas de estadísticos descriptivos (frecuencias, medias y desviación estándar) y, posteriormente, pruebas paramétricas de comparación de medias (*t* de Student para grupos independientes) para mostrar los cambios significativos que se presentaron al final de la intervención. Los datos obtenidos fueron analizados con el paquete estadístico IBM SPSS Statistics® versión 20,0 para Windows y Excel® 2016. Todos los adolescentes participantes lo hicieron voluntariamente y contaban con consentimiento informado de los padres y/o tutores y asentimiento verbal previo a la participación. El estudio se llevó a cabo en tres fases, con una duración de tres años. En la fase inicial se realizó la toma basal de medidas antropométricas (peso y talla), así como la primera aplicación de los cuestionarios de frecuencia de consumo de alimentos de los últimos siete días y recordatorio de 24 horas. En la fase intermedia, se capacitó a los médicos escolares, profesores de ciencias y Educación Física en materia de nutrición, sobrepeso, obesidad, tratamiento nutricional en adolescentes con sobrepeso y obesidad, hábitos y estilos de vida saludables. Asimismo, se brindó orientación alimentaria a alumnos y padres de familia con el uso de materiales educativos de la colección Aprende con Reyhan. En la fase final se tomaron nuevamente las mediciones antropométricas y se aplicaron

por segunda vez los cuestionarios para determinar si la intervención realizada en la fase intermedia fue efectiva.

La muestra se dividió en dos grupos, el grupo control y el grupo de intervención. En el grupo control se tomaron las medidas antropométricas y se llevaron a cabo la aplicación de la frecuencia de consumo de alimentos de los últimos siete días y el recordatorio de 24 horas; además, se dio orientación nutricional sin trabajo multidisciplinario. En el grupo de intervención se tomaron las medidas antropométricas y se llevaron a cabo la aplicación de la frecuencia de consumo de alimentos de los últimos siete días y el recordatorio de 24 horas; asimismo, se dio orientación nutricional con trabajo multidisciplinario y se llevó a cabo la capacitación de los profesores y médicos escolares. Se consideró como una intervención multidisciplinaria (Fig. 1).

La intervención en orientación nutricional, las tomas de medidas antropométricas y la aplicación de los cuestionarios de frecuencia de consumo de alimentos de los últimos siete días y el recordatorio de 24 horas fueron llevados a cabo por pasantes de la Licenciatura de Nutrición Humana de una Universidad Pública de la Ciudad de México, los cuales fueron previamente estandarizados para homogeneizar los resultados.

Para fines de este estudio, no se muestran en los resultados los efectos de la capacitación de profesores y médicos escolares.

RESULTADOS

Al comparar los grupos, grupo de intervención (GI) y grupo control (GC), se observaron características similares en género, estado nutricional y edad para ambos grupos (Tabla I).

En la fase inicial (FI) se encontró una prevalencia baja en consumo de lácteos todos los días en ambos grupos. En el GI, solo el 5,4%, 1,0%, 3,9% y 6,4% consume leche entera, leche descremada, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural, respectivamente, y en el GC, el 3,3%, 1,0%, 2,5% y 4,1% los consume, respectivamente (Tabla I). La media de consumo en el GI fue de $0,47 \pm 0,735$ vasos (112,8 ml) de leche entera, de $0,71 \pm 0,745$ vasos (173,9 ml) de leche descremada, de $0,64 \pm 0,807$ porciones de queso fresco de vaca (25,6 g) y de $0,58 \pm 0,708$ vasos de yogur natural (131,6 ml). En el GC, la media de consumo fue de $0,52 \pm 0,855$ vasos de leche entera (124 ml), $0,75 \pm 0,832$ vasos de leche descremada (183,75 ml), $0,77 \pm 0,908$ porciones de queso fresco de vaca (30,8g) y $0,67 \pm 0,796$ de yogur natural (152,09 ml). En la tabla II se muestra el aporte diario de energía, macronutrientes y calcio de las porciones consumidas.

Al correlacionar la frecuencia de consumo de lácteos con el estado de nutrición en la FI, se encontró, en el GI, que los adolescentes que nunca consumen leche entera, leche descremada, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural presentan mayor prevalencia de obesidad (15,8%, 12,5%, 19,0% y 19,0%, respectivamente), en comparación con los adolescentes que los consumen diariamente (0,0%, 0,0%, 2,3% y 5,6%, respectivamente). Existe una diferencia altamente significativa para el consumo de queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural ($p \leq 0,01$) y una diferencia estadística significativa para el consumo de leche entera ($p \leq 0,05$). En el GC se presentó relación en el consumo de leche entera, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural con el estado nutricional. No se presentó relación en el consumo de leche descremada y estado nutricional (Tabla III).

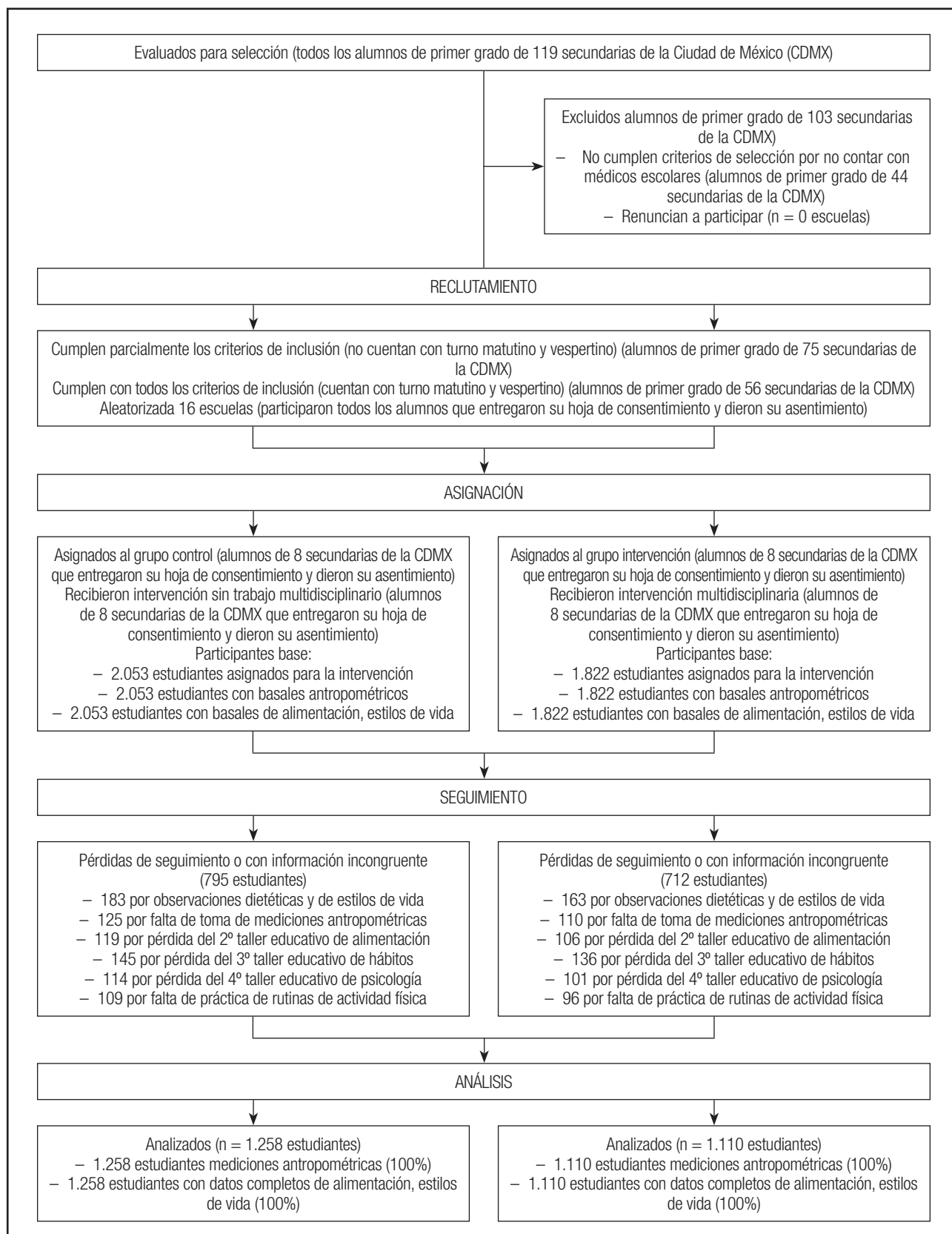


Figura 1.

Diagrama de flujo de los participantes.

Tabla I. Consumo de lácteos fase inicial

	Leche entera			Leche descremada			Queso fresco de vaca			Yogur natural	
	n (%)	Media ± DE	Vasos de 240 ml	n (%)	Media ± DE	Vasos de 245 ml	n (%)	Media ± DE	Porciones de 40 g	n (%)	Media ± DE
Frecuencia de consumo	Nunca	685 (61,7)	0,00 ± 0,00	479 (43,2)	0,00 ± 0,00	0,00 ± 0,00	591 (53,2)	0,00 ± 0,00	0,00 ± 0,00	595 (53,6)	0,00 ± 0,00
	1-2 días	290 (26,1)	1,14 ± 0,61	578 (52,1)	1,24 ± 0,55	1,24 ± 0,55	281 (25,3)	1,29 ± 0,57	1,29 ± 0,57	252 (22,7)	1,24 ± 0,48
	3-4 días	40 (3,6)	1,28 ± 0,73	32 (2,9)	1,14 ± 0,46	1,14 ± 0,46	145 (13,1)	1,32 ± 0,61	1,32 ± 0,61	121 (10,9)	1,26 ± 0,49
	5-6 días	35 (3,2)	1,43 ± 0,94	10 (0,9)	1,45 ± 1,3	1,45 ± 1,3	50 (4,5)	1,54 ± 0,61	1,54 ± 0,61	71 (6,4)	1,23 ± 0,54
	Todos los días	60 (5,4)	1,44 ± 0,88	11 (1)	1,18 ± 0,4	1,18 ± 0,4	43 (3,9)	1,72 ± 0,73	1,72 ± 0,73	71 (6,4)	1,3 ± 0,51
	Nunca	813 (64,6)	0,00 ± 0,00	557 (44,3)	0,00 ± 0,00	0,00 ± 0,00	619 (49,2)	0,00 ± 0,00	0,00 ± 0,00	642 (51)	0,00 ± 0,00
Género	1-2 días	324 (25,8)	1,4 ± 0,8	643 (51,1)	1,35 ± 0,67	1,35 ± 0,67	346 (27,5)	1,39 ± 0,64	1,39 ± 0,64	295 (23,4)	1,31 ± 0,57
	3-4 días	48 (3,8)	1,65 ± 1,07	31 (2,5)	1,18 ± 0,54	1,18 ± 0,54	206 (16,4)	1,67 ± 0,76	1,67 ± 0,76	169 (13,4)	1,41 ± 0,64
	5-6 días	31 (2,5)	1,52 ± 0,63	15 (1,2)	1,5 ± 0,63	1,5 ± 0,63	56 (4,5)	1,73 ± 0,79	1,73 ± 0,79	100 (7,9)	1,4 ± 0,58
	Todos los días	42 (3,3)	1,75 ± 0,73	12 (1)	1,42 ± 0,51	1,42 ± 0,51	31 (2,5)	1,45 ± 0,62	1,45 ± 0,62	52 (4,1)	1,4 ± 0,57
Estado nutricional	Mujer	544 (49)	0,44 ± 0,7	544 (49)	0,77 ± 0,77	0,77 ± 0,77	544 (49)	0,66 ± 0,8	0,66 ± 0,8	544 (49)	0,59 ± 0,7
	Hombre	566 (51)	0,49 ± 0,77	566 (51)	0,64 ± 0,72	0,64 ± 0,72	566 (51)	0,62 ± 0,82	0,62 ± 0,82	566 (51)	0,57 ± 0,72
	Mujer	634 (50,4)	0,52 ± 0,86	634 (50,4)	0,71 ± 0,76	0,71 ± 0,76	634 (50,4)	0,78 ± 0,9	0,78 ± 0,9	634 (50,4)	0,7 ± 0,8
	Hombre	624 (49,6)	0,51 ± 0,85	624 (49,6)	0,79 ± 0,9	0,79 ± 0,9	624 (49,6)	0,75 ± 0,92	0,75 ± 0,92	624 (49,6)	0,64 ± 0,79
Cambio en el estado nutricional	Delgadez	25 (2,3)	0,6 ± 1	25 (2,3)	0,88 ± 0,6	0,88 ± 0,6	25 (2,3)	0,76 ± 0,97	0,76 ± 0,97	25 (2,3)	0,72 ± 0,84
	Normal	637 (57,4)	0,53 ± 0,8	637 (57,4)	0,78 ± 0,84	0,78 ± 0,84	637 (57,4)	0,83 ± 0,88	0,83 ± 0,88	637 (57,4)	0,75 ± 0,76
	Sobrepeso	295 (26,6)	0,44 ± 0,68	295 (26,6)	0,62 ± 0,63	0,62 ± 0,63	295 (26,6)	0,43 ± 0,62	0,43 ± 0,62	295 (26,6)	0,39 ± 0,59
	Obesidad	153 (13,8)	0,24 ± 0,39	153 (13,8)	0,55 ± 0,47	0,55 ± 0,47	153 (13,8)	0,26 ± 0,48	0,26 ± 0,48	153 (13,8)	0,23 ± 0,4
	Delgadez	19 (1,5)	0,74 ± 0,87	19 (1,5)	0,68 ± 1	0,68 ± 1	19 (1,5)	0,95 ± 0,91	0,95 ± 0,91	19 (1,5)	0,47 ± 0,61
	Normal	757 (60,2)	0,58 ± 0,94	757 (60,2)	0,86 ± 0,92	0,86 ± 0,92	757 (60,2)	0,95 ± 0,96	0,95 ± 0,96	757 (60,2)	0,84 ± 0,85
Cambio en el estado nutricional	Sobrepeso	316 (25,1)	0,51 ± 0,8	316 (25,1)	0,65 ± 0,68	0,65 ± 0,68	316 (25,1)	0,55 ± 0,78	0,55 ± 0,78	316 (25,1)	0,48 ± 0,71
	Obesidad	166 (13,2)	0,22 ± 0,39	166 (13,2)	0,46 ± 0,46	0,46 ± 0,46	166 (13,2)	0,31 ± 0,6	0,31 ± 0,6	166 (13,2)	0,25 ± 0,4
	Delgadez a delgadez	8 (0,7)	0,38 ± 0,74	8 (0,7)	1 ± 0,53	1 ± 0,53	8 (0,7)	0,13 ± 0,35	0,13 ± 0,35	8 (0,7)	0,5 ± 0,76
	Delgadez a normal	17 (1,5)	0,71 ± 1,1	17 (1,5)	0,82 ± 0,64	0,82 ± 0,64	17 (1,5)	1,06 ± 1,03	1,06 ± 1,03	17 (1,5)	0,82 ± 0,88
	Normal a normal	637 (57,4)	0,53 ± 0,8	637 (57,4)	0,78 ± 0,84	0,78 ± 0,84	637 (57,4)	0,83 ± 0,88	0,83 ± 0,88	637 (57,4)	0,75 ± 0,76
	Sobrepeso a normal	127 (11,4)	0,39 ± 0,74	127 (11,4)	0,61 ± 0,6	0,61 ± 0,6	127 (11,4)	0,31 ± 0,59	0,31 ± 0,59	127 (11,4)	0,32 ± 0,56
Cambio en el estado nutricional	Sobrepeso a sobrepeso	168 (15,1)	0,49 ± 0,64	168 (15,1)	0,63 ± 0,64	0,63 ± 0,64	168 (15,1)	0,51 ± 0,63	0,51 ± 0,63	168 (15,1)	0,45 ± 0,61
	Obesidad a sobrepeso	85 (7,7)	0,25 ± 0,4	85 (7,7)	0,55 ± 0,47	0,55 ± 0,47	85 (7,7)	0,31 ± 0,55	0,31 ± 0,55	85 (7,7)	0,26 ± 0,43
	Obesidad a obesidad	68 (6,1)	0,22 ± 0,38	68 (6,1)	0,54 ± 0,47	0,54 ± 0,47	68 (6,1)	0,19 ± 0,36	0,19 ± 0,36	68 (6,1)	0,19 ± 0,37

GI: grupo de intervención; GC: grupo control; DE: desviación estándar.

(Continúa en la página siguiente)

Tabla I (Cont.). Consumo de lácteos fase inicial

	Leche entera		Leche descremada		Queso fresco de vaca		Yogur natural	
	n (%)	Media $\pm$ DE Vasos de 240 ml	n (%)	Media $\pm$ DE Vasos de 245 ml	n (%)	Porciones de 40 g Media $\pm$ DE	n (%)	Media $\pm$ DE Vasos de 227 ml
Cambio en el estado nutricional	Delgadez a delgadez	10 (0,8)	10 (0,8)	0,7 $\pm$ 1,25	10 (0,8)	0,9 $\pm$ 1,1	10 (0,8)	0,2 $\pm$ 0,42
	Delgadez a normal	9 (0,7)	9 (0,7)	0,78 $\pm$ 0,97	9 (0,7)	1 $\pm$ 0,71	9 (0,7)	0,78 $\pm$ 0,67
	Normal a normal	760 (60,4)	760 (60,4)	0,58 $\pm$ 0,93	760 (60,4)	0,95 $\pm$ 0,96	760 (60,4)	0,84 $\pm$ 0,85
	Sobrepeso a normal	19 (1,5)	19 (1,5)	0,16 $\pm$ 0,5	19 (1,5)	0,32 $\pm$ 0,58	19 (1,5)	0,16 $\pm$ 0,37
	Sobrepeso a sobrepeso	294 (23,4)	294 (23,4)	0,54 $\pm$ 0,81	294 (23,4)	0,56 $\pm$ 0,79	294 (23,4)	0,49 $\pm$ 0,72
	Obesidad a sobrepeso	16 (1,3)	16 (1,3)	0,25 $\pm$ 0,37	16 (1,3)	1,06 $\pm$ 1,34	16 (1,3)	0,59 $\pm$ 0,49
Edad	Obesidad a obesidad	150 (11,9)	150 (11,9)	0,21 $\pm$ 0,39	150 (11,9)	0,23 $\pm$ 0,38	150 (11,9)	0,21 $\pm$ 0,38
	Media $\pm$ DE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	11,87 (0,46)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GC	Media $\pm$ DE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	11,84 (0,48)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

GI: grupo de intervención; GC: grupo control; DE: desviación estándar.

Con el propósito de comprobar si la intervención influyó en el aumento de consumo de lácteos, se hizo una comparación con las medidas de cantidad y frecuencia de consumo de leche entera, leche descremada, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural para la FI y la fase final (FF). Para este resultado, se aplicó la prueba t para muestras relacionadas. En el resultado se pudo observar que la significancia es de 0,001 en todas las correlaciones, por lo que puede afirmarse que la intervención sí tuvo efecto, observándose cambios significativos en ambos grupos (intervención y control). En la tabla II se encuentra el valor de t.

Después de la intervención, se observaron cambios significativos en el estado de nutrición del GI, donde la prevalencia de obesidad disminuyó del 13,8% en la FI al 6,1% en la FF (7,7 puntos porcentuales [pp]). Igualmente, la prevalencia de sobrepeso se redujo del 26,6% al 22,8%, respectivamente (3,8 pp). En el GC el estado de nutrición permaneció similar (Tablas I y IV).

Se logró un aumento en el consumo diario de lácteos en los adolescentes en el GI. En la FI, el 5,4%, el 1,0%, el 3,9 y el 6,4% consumía todos los días leche entera, leche descremada, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural, respectivamente, y en la FF el consumo incrementó a 13,5%, 6,4%, 8,0% y 15,4%, respectivamente. En el GC se observó un incremento menor en comparación con el GI. En la FI el 3,3%, el 1,0%, el 2,5% y el 4,1% consumía todos los días leche entera, leche descremada, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural, respectivamente, y estas cifras aumentaron en la FF a 5,3%, 3,3%, 3,3% y 4,4%, respectivamente (Tablas I y IV). En la tabla III se muestra la media de consumo diario de lácteos y el aporte de energía, macronutrientes y calcio de las porciones consumidas para la FF.

Al realizar la correlación de frecuencia de consumo de lácteos con el estado de nutrición, en la FF, en el GI se encontró que los adolescentes que nunca consumen leche entera, queso fresco de vaca y yogur natural presentan mayor prevalencia de obesidad (6,8%, 9,7% y 13,5%, respectivamente) en comparación con los adolescentes que los consumen diariamente (3,3%, 2,2% y 0,6%, respectivamente). Se observó una asociación positiva en el consumo de leche descremada con el estado nutricional, sin embargo, esto se debe a que al final de la intervención los adolescentes con sobrepeso y obesidad aumentaron más el consumo de este tipo de lácteo, con una diferencia altamente significativa ($p \leq 0,01$). En el GC, se observó igualmente que cuando mayor es el consumo de lácteos, menor es el porcentaje de obesidad (Tabla V).

DISCUSIÓN

En el presente trabajo se muestra que los adolescentes que consumen leche diariamente tienen menor prevalencia de obesidad. Estos resultados concuerdan con los reportados por Gerdes (11), el cual menciona que el consumo óptimo de productos lácteos podría proteger contra el exceso de adiposidad, siendo estos más efectivos que los suplementos de calcio. Varios estudios han documentado que el consumo de leche y productos lácteos puede jugar un papel importante en el mantenimiento de un peso corporal saludable, ya que, en condiciones normales de los individuos, se ha observado que existe una asociación negativa entre la ingesta diaria de calcio

Tabla II. Aportación de macronutrientos y calcio de acuerdo a la ingesta de lácteos en los adolescentes fase inicial y final

Fase inicial											
Alimento	Medida casera	Peso neto	Energía (kcal)	Proteínas (g)	Lípidos (g)	Coolesterol (mg)	AGS (g)	AGM (g)	AGP (g)	HC (g)	Ca (mg)
Leche entera	1 taza	240	148	7,9	8	32,5	5,71	2,04	0,29	11,2	286,2
	Gl	111,73	68,90	3,68	3,72	15,13	2,66	0,95	0,14	5,21	133,24
	GC	124,58	76,82	4,10	4,15	16,87	2,96	1,06	0,15	5,81	148,56
Leche descremada	1 taza	245	86	8,4	0,4	4	0,29	0,15	0,02	11,9	302
	Gl	173,95	61,06	5,964	0,284	2,84	0,2059	0,1065	0,0142	8,449	214,42
	GC	183,75	64,5	6,3	0,3	3	0,2175	0,1125	0,015	8,925	226,5
Queso fresco de vaca	40 g	40	58	6,1	2,8	42	2,16	0,56	0,04	2	273,6
	Gl	25,6	37,12	3,904	1,792	26,88	1,3824	0,3584	0,0256	1,28	175,104
	GC	30,8	44,66	4,697	2,156	32,34	1,6632	0,4312	0,0308	1,54	210,672
Yogur natural	1 taza	227	139	7,9	7,4	29	4,77	1,68	0,14	10,6	274
	Gl	131,66	80,62	4,582	4,292	16,82	2,7666	0,9744	0,0812	6,148	158,92
	GC	152,09	93,13	5,293	4,958	19,43	3,1959	1,1256	0,0938	7,102	183,58
Fase final											
Alimento	Medida casera	Peso neto	Energía (kcal)	Proteínas (g)	Lípidos (g)	Coolesterol (mg)	AGS (g)	AGM (g)	AGP (g)	HC (g)	Ca (mg)
Leche entera	1 taza	240	148	7,9	8	32,5	5,71	2,04	0,29	11,2	286,2
	Gl	151,2	93,24	4,977	5,04	20,475	3,5973	1,2852	0,1827	7,056	180,306
	GC	139,2	85,84	4,582	4,64	18,85	3,3118	1,1832	0,1682	6,496	165,996
Leche descremada	1 taza	245	86	8,4	0,4	4	0,29	0,15	0,02	11,9	302
	Gl	227,85	79,98	7,812	0,372	3,72	0,2697	0,1395	0,0186	11,067	280,86
	GC	196	68,8	6,72	0,32	3,2	0,232	0,12	0,016	9,52	241,6
Queso fresco de vaca	40 g	40	58	6,1	2,8	42	2,16	0,56	0,04	2	273,6
	Gl	39,2	56,84	5,978	2,744	41,16	2,1168	0,5488	0,0392	1,96	268,128
	GC	34,4	49,88	5,246	2,408	36,12	1,8576	0,4816	0,0344	1,72	235,296
Yogur natural	1 taza	227	139	7,9	7,4	29	4,77	1,68	0,14	10,6	274
	Gl	204,3	125,1	7,11	6,66	26,1	4,293	1,512	0,126	9,54	246,6
	GC	156,63	95,91	5,451	5,106	20,01	3,2913	1,1592	0,0966	7,314	189,06

AGS: ácidos grasos saturados; AGM: ácidos grasos monoinsaturados; AGP: ácidos grasos poliinsaturados; HC: hidratos de carbono; Ca: calcio; GI: grupo de intervención; GC: grupo control.

Tabla III. Asociación de la frecuencia de consumo de lácteos con el estado de nutrición.
Fase inicial

Lácteo	Grupo de intervención	Frecuencia de consumo	Estado nutricional, n (%)				p
			Delgadez	Normal	Sobrepeso	Obesidad	
Leche entera	GI	Nunca	16 (2,3)	380 (55,5)	181 (26,4)	108 (15,8)	0,015
		1-2 días	5 (1,7)	162 (55,9)	83 (28,6)	40 (13,8)	
		3-4 días	1 (2,5)	23 (57,5)	12 (30)	4 (10)	
		5-6 días	2 (5,7)	24 (68,6)	8 (22,9)	1 (2,9)	
		Todos los días	1 (1,7)	48 (80)	11 (18,3)	0 (0)	
	GC	Nunca	9 (1,1)	484 (59,5)	196 (24,1)	124 (15,3)	0,021
		1-2 días	6 (1,9)	197 (60,8)	87 (26,9)	34 (10,5)	
		3-4 días	2 (4,2)	26 (54,2)	17 (35,4)	3 (6,3)	
		5-6 días	2 (6,5)	21 (67,7)	8 (25,8)	0 (0)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	29 (69)	8 (19)	5 (11,9)	
Leche descremada	GI	Nunca	6 (1,3)	279 (58,2)	134 (28)	60 (12,5)	0,306
		1-2 días	17 (2,9)	327 (56,6)	144 (24,9)	90 (15,6)	
		3-4 días	1 (3,1)	17 (53,1)	12 (37,5)	2 (6,3)	
		5-6 días	0 (0)	7 (70)	2 (20)	1 (10)	
		Todos los días	1 (9,1)	7 (63,6)	3 (27,3)	0 (0)	
	GC	Nunca	10 (1,8)	330 (59,2)	141 (25,3)	76 (13,6)	0,372
		1-2 días	7 (1,1)	396 (61,6)	158 (24,6)	82 (12,8)	
		3-4 días	1 (3,2)	13 (41,9)	11 (35,5)	6 (19,4)	
		5-6 días	0 (0)	11 (73,3)	4 (26,7)	0 (0)	
		Todos los días	1 (8,3)	7 (58,3)	2 (16,7)	2 (16,7)	
Queso fresco de vaca	GI	Nunca	13 (2,2)	278 (47)	188 (31,8)	112 (19)	0,001
		1-2 días	4 (1,4)	177 (63)	70 (24,9)	30 (10,7)	
		3-4 días	5 (3,4)	108 (74,5)	26 (17,9)	6 (4,1)	
		5-6 días	3 (6)	36 (72)	7 (14)	4 (8)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	38 (88,4)	4 (9,3)	1 (2,3)	
	GC	Nunca	7 (1,1)	312 (50,4)	188 (30,4)	112 (18,1)	0,001
		1-2 días	8 (2,3)	222 (64,2)	79 (22,8)	37 (10,7)	
		3-4 días	3 (1,5)	160 (77,7)	34 (16,5)	9 (4,4)	
		5-6 días	0 (0)	40 (71,4)	9 (16,1)	7 (12,5)	
		Todos los días	1 (3,2)	23 (74,2)	6 (19,4)	1 (3,2)	
Yogur natural	GI	Nunca	12 (2)	275 (46,2)	195 (32,8)	113 (19)	0,001
		1-2 días	8 (3,2)	156 (61,9)	63 (25)	25 (9,9)	
		3-4 días	1 (0,8)	99 (81,8)	15 (12,4)	6 (5)	
		5-6 días	3 (4,2)	49 (69)	14 (19,7)	5 (7)	
		Todos los días	1 (1,4)	58 (81,7)	8 (11,3)	4 (5,6)	
	GC	Nunca	11 (1,7)	316 (49,2)	199 (31)	116 (18,1)	0,001
		1-2 días	5 (1,7)	202 (68,5)	57 (19,3)	31 (10,5)	
		3-4 días	0 (0)	124 (73,4)	35 (20,7)	10 (5,9)	
		5-6 días	3 (3)	75 (75)	16 (16)	6 (6)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	40 (76,9)	9 (17,3)	3 (5,8)	

GI: grupo de intervención; GC: grupo control.

contenido en la leche y los productos lácteos y el incremento adipositario (3, 5, 12-17).

De la misma manera, un estudio de intervención realizado por Rodríguez y cols. (18) en 57 mujeres con sobrepeso/obesidad, a las que se sometió al seguimiento de dietas hipocalóricas equilibradas durante seis semanas, comprobó que las mujeres que

tuvieron un consumo mayor de raciones de lácteos fueron las que más peso perdieron, lo que indica que la pérdida de peso puede verse influenciada por una dieta hipocalórica que incluya productos lácteos.

Asimismo, Barahona (19) señala que la leche es rica en sustancias con actividad inhibidora de la enzima convertidora de angio-

Tabla IV. Consumo de lácteos fase final

	Leche entera		Leche descremada		Queso fresco de vaca		Yogur natural	
	n (%)	Media $\pm$ DE Vasos de 240 ml	n (%)	Media $\pm$ DE Vasos de 245 ml	n (%)	Media $\pm$ DE Porciones de 40 g	n (%)	Media $\pm$ DE Vasos de 227 ml
Frecuencia de consumo	Nunca	628 (56,6)		0,00 $\pm$ 0,00	340 (30,6)	0,00 $\pm$ 0,00	378 (34,1)	0,00 $\pm$ 0,00
	1-2 días	246 (22,2)		1,45 $\pm$ 0,72	201 (18,1)	1,29 $\pm$ 0,56	169 (15,2)	1,25 $\pm$ 0,5
	3-4 días	29 (2,6)		1,47 $\pm$ 0,6	300 (27)	1,41 $\pm$ 0,59	216 (19,5)	1,4 $\pm$ 0,54
	5-6 días	57 (5,1)		1,44 $\pm$ 0,7	180 (16,2)	1,4 $\pm$ 0,63	176 (15,9)	1,39 $\pm$ 0,93
	Todos los días	150 (13,5)		1,45 $\pm$ 0,79	89 (8)	1,62 $\pm$ 0,7	171 (15,4)	1,36 $\pm$ 0,55
	Nunca	786 (62,5)		0,00 $\pm$ 0,00	562 (44,7)	0,00 $\pm$ 0,00	633 (50,3)	0,00 $\pm$ 0,00
	1-2 días	318 (25,3)		1,47 $\pm$ 0,82	361 (28,7)	1,42 $\pm$ 0,66	288 (22,9)	1,35 $\pm$ 0,59
	3-4 días	62 (4,9)		1,56 $\pm$ 0,94	211 (16,8)	1,68 $\pm$ 0,75	172 (13,7)	1,42 $\pm$ 0,63
	5-6 días	25 (2)		1,8 $\pm$ 0,95	83 (6,6)	1,78 $\pm$ 0,71	110 (8,7)	1,45 $\pm$ 0,59
	Todos los días	67 (5,3)		1,65 $\pm$ 0,7	41 (3,3)	1,5 $\pm$ 0,65	55 (4,4)	1,44 $\pm$ 0,57
Género	Mujer	544 (49)		0,59 $\pm$ 0,84	544 (49)	0,95 $\pm$ 0,83	544 (49)	0,95 $\pm$ 0,88
	Hombre	566 (51)		0,67 $\pm$ 0,89	566 (51)	1 $\pm$ 0,83	566 (51)	0,85 $\pm$ 0,78
	Mujer	634 (50,4)		0,58 $\pm$ 0,9	634 (50,4)	0,87 $\pm$ 0,92	634 (50,4)	0,73 $\pm$ 0,82
	Hombre	624 (49,6)		0,57 $\pm$ 0,9	624 (49,6)	0,84 $\pm$ 0,94	624 (49,6)	0,66 $\pm$ 0,81
Estado nutricional	Delgadez	8 (0,7)		0,25 $\pm$ 0,71	8 (0,7)	1,13 $\pm$ 0,35	8 (0,7)	0,5 $\pm$ 0,76
	Normal	781 (70,4)		0,65 $\pm$ 0,92	781 (70,4)	1,08 $\pm$ 0,85	781 (70,4)	1,09 $\pm$ 0,83
	Sobrepeso	253 (22,8)		0,66 $\pm$ 0,77	253 (22,8)	0,79 $\pm$ 0,76	253 (22,8)	0,51 $\pm$ 0,7
	Obesidad	68 (6,1)		0,3 $\pm$ 0,42	68 (6,1)	0,49 $\pm$ 0,53	68 (6,1)	0,22 $\pm$ 0,43
	Delgadez	10 (0,8)		0,9 $\pm$ 0,74	10 (0,8)	1,6 $\pm$ 0,7	10 (0,8)	0,2 $\pm$ 0,42
	Normal	787 (62,6)		0,63 $\pm$ 0,97	787 (62,6)	1,03 $\pm$ 0,97	787 (62,6)	0,86 $\pm$ 0,86
	Sobrepeso	310 (24,6)		0,57 $\pm$ 0,84	310 (24,6)	0,66 $\pm$ 0,86	310 (24,6)	0,52 $\pm$ 0,73
	Obesidad	151 (12)		0,28 $\pm$ 0,53	151 (12)	0,29 $\pm$ 0,43	151 (12)	0,22 $\pm$ 0,4

GI: grupo de intervención; GC: grupo control; DE: desviación estándar.

(Continúa en la página siguiente)

Tabla IV (Cont.). Consumo de lácteos fase final

		Leche entera			Leche descremada			Queso fresco de vaca			Yogur natural		
		n (%)	Media ± DE		n (%)	Media ± DE		n (%)	Media ± DE		n (%)	Media ± DE	
			Vasos de 240 ml			Vasos de 245 ml			Porciones de 40 g			Vasos de 227 ml	
Cambio en el estado nutricional	GI	Delgadez a delgadez	8 (0,7)	0,25 ± 0,71	8 (0,7)	1,13 ± 0,35	8 (0,7)	1,13 ± 0,35	8 (0,7)	0,5 ± 0,76			
		Delgadez a normal	17 (1,5)	0,82 ± 1,13	17 (1,5)	1,35 ± 0,79	17 (1,5)	1,76 ± 0,75	17 (1,5)	1,24 ± 1,03			
		Normal a normal	637 (57,4)	0,66 ± 0,89	637 (57,4)	0,93 ± 0,91	637 (57,4)	1,04 ± 0,87	637 (57,4)	1,07 ± 0,81			
		Sobrepeso a normal	127 (11,4)	0,63 ± 1,04	127 (11,4)	1,12 ± 0,99	127 (11,4)	1,17 ± 0,74	127 (11,4)	1,14 ± 0,89			
		Sobrepeso a sobrepeso	168 (15,1)	0,53 ± 0,72	168 (15,1)	0,74 ± 0,66	168 (15,1)	0,64 ± 0,64	168 (15,1)	0,46 ± 0,62			
	GC	Obesidad a sobrepeso	85 (7,7)	0,94 ± 0,8	85 (7,7)	1,12 ± 0,8	85 (7,7)	1,08 ± 0,9	85 (7,7)	0,61 ± 0,83			
		Obesidad a obesidad	68 (6,1)	0,3 ± 0,42	68 (6,1)	0,68 ± 0,55	68 (6,1)	0,49 ± 0,53	68 (6,1)	0,22 ± 0,43			
		Delgadez a delgadez	10 (0,8)	0,9 ± 0,74	10 (0,8)	0,9 ± 1,29	10 (0,8)	1,6 ± 0,7	10 (0,8)	0,2 ± 0,42			
		Delgadez a normal	9 (0,7)	0,89 ± 1,05	9 (0,7)	0,78 ± 0,83	9 (0,7)	1,33 ± 0,5	9 (0,7)	0,89 ± 0,78			
		Normal a normal	760 (60,4)	0,63 ± 0,97	760 (60,4)	0,91 ± 0,96	760 (60,4)	1,03 ± 0,97	760 (60,4)	0,86 ± 0,85			
	Sobrepeso a normal	19 (1,5)	0,37 ± 0,9	19 (1,5)	0,84 ± 1,01	19 (1,5)	1 ± 1,05	19 (1,5)	0,79 ± 1,03				
	Sobrepeso a sobrepeso	294 (23,4)	0,58 ± 0,84	294 (23,4)	0,69 ± 0,71	294 (23,4)	0,62 ± 0,81	294 (23,4)	0,5 ± 0,73				
	Obesidad a sobrepeso	16 (1,3)	0,44 ± 0,85	16 (1,3)	0,84 ± 0,79	16 (1,3)	1,38 ± 1,41	16 (1,3)	0,78 ± 0,66				
	Obesidad a obesidad	150 (11,9)	0,28 ± 0,53	150 (11,9)	0,47 ± 0,51	150 (11,9)	0,29 ± 0,43	150 (11,9)	0,22 ± 0,4				

GI: grupo de intervención; GC: grupo control; DE: desviación estándar.

tensina (IECA). La angiotensina II regula en parte la lipólisis a través de un sistema renina-angiotensina con funcionamiento autocrino-paracrino en el adipocito. La leche es rica en leucina, que tiene un efecto anabólico en el tejido muscular, actuando como un protector de la pérdida de masa magra que se presenta en los procesos de pérdida de peso. Se cree que la leche tiene otros péptidos y aminoácidos aún no reconocidos que pueden actuar sinérgicamente con el calcio, los péptidos con actividad IECA y la leucina para lograr el efecto antiobesidad de los productos lácteos.

Por otro lado, Abargouei y cols. (20) encontraron que aumentar el consumo de lácteos en las dietas sin que haya restricción energética no conduce a ninguna variación en la composición corporal. Por el contrario, a la vez que se aumenta el consumo de lácteos y se restringe la ingesta energética, se produce una disminución significativamente mayor del peso (1,29 kg), la grasa corporal (1,11 kg) y la circunferencia de la cintura (2,43 cm) que cuando no se aumenta su consumo y se siguen las dietas habituales de control de peso.

Asimismo, Recio y cols. (21) señalan que los lácteos contienen péptidos que actúan sobre el tracto gastrointestinal, reduciendo la velocidad del tránsito intestinal, lo que incrementa la sensación de saciedad, disminuyendo el consumo de alimentos y el peso corporal.

De esta forma, Caravali y cols. (22) encontraron en su estudio, realizado en 1.677 adolescentes mexicanos de Bachillerato, que los adolescentes con sobrepeso y obesidad ingerían menor cantidad de leche entera (0,336 ml por semana) en comparación con los adolescentes con un estado de nutrición normal (360,336 ml por semana).

También Ortega y cols. (23) señalan que los adolescentes con ingestas de calcio en el cuartil más bajo ($403,6 \pm 184,8$ mg/día) tienen más grasa corporal ($37,1 \pm 8,3\%$ de grasa corporal) que los adolescentes con una ingesta en el cuartil más alto ($890,5 \pm 200,5$ mg/día) ($28,4 \pm 10,7\%$ de grasa corporal).

Cabe mencionar que acorde a la media de edad de la muestra del presente estudio, sus requerimientos calóricos constituyen 2.250 kcal y, contemplando una distribución de hidratos de carbono del 50%, de proteínas del 20% y de lípidos del 30% (10% de ácidos grasos saturados), los adolescentes requieren un aporte de 281,25 g de hidratos de carbono, 112,5 g de proteínas y 75 g de lípidos (25 g son de ácidos grasos saturados).

Tabla V. Asociación de la frecuencia de consumo de leche entera y descremada con el estado de nutrición. Fase final

Lácteo	Grupo de intervención	Frecuencia de consumo	Estado nutricio n (%)				p
			Delgadez	Normal	Sobrepeso	Obesidad	
Leche entera	GI	Nunca	7 (1,1)	455 (72,5)	123 (19,6)	43 (6,8)	0,001
		1-2 días	1 (0,4)	181 (73,6)	51 (20,7)	13 (5,3)	
		3-4 días	0 (0)	7 (24,1)	16 (55,2)	6 (20,7)	
		5-6 días	0 (0)	28 (49,1)	28 (49,1)	1 (1,8)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	110 (73,3)	35 (23,3)	5 (3,3)	
	GC	Nunca	3 (0,4)	489 (62,2)	184 (23,4)	110 (14)	0,001
		1-2 días	3 (0,9)	200 (62,9)	78 (24,5)	37 (11,6)	
		3-4 días	3 (4,8)	34 (54,8)	22 (35,5)	3 (4,8)	
		5-6 días	0 (0)	10 (40)	14 (56)	1 (4)	
		Todos los días	1 (1,5)	54 (80,6)	12 (17,9)	0 (0)	
Leche descremada	GI	Nunca	0 (0)	301 (74,5)	82 (20,3)	21 (5,2)	0,001
		1-2 días	6 (1,2)	346 (66,4)	128 (24,6)	41 (7,9)	
		3-4 días	1 (1,3)	67 (89,3)	6 (8)	1 (1,3)	
		5-6 días	1 (2,6)	33 (84,6)	4 (10,3)	1 (2,6)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	34 (47,9)	33 (46,5)	4 (5,6)	
	GC	Nunca	5 (0,9)	336 (61,4)	131 (23,9)	75 (13,7)	0,039
		1-2 días	4 (0,6)	408 (63,5)	159 (24,7)	72 (11,2)	
		3-4 días	1 (9,1)	6 (54,5)	3 (27,3)	1 (9,1)	
		5-6 días	0 (0)	6 (40)	6 (40)	3 (20)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	31 (73,8)	11 (26,2)	0 (0)	
Queso fresco de vaca	GI	Nunca	0 (0)	205 (60,3)	102 (30)	33 (9,7)	0,001
		1-2 días	1 (0,5)	134 (66,7)	52 (25,9)	14 (7)	
		3-4 días	5 (1,7)	227 (75,7)	55 (18,3)	13 (4,3)	
		5-6 días	2 (1,1)	141 (78,3)	31 (17,2)	6 (3,3)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	74 (83,1)	13 (14,6)	2 (2,2)	
	GC	Nunca	0 (0)	297 (52,8)	166 (29,5)	99 (17,6)	0,001
		1-2 días	7 (1,9)	230 (63,7)	86 (23,8)	38 (10,5)	
		3-4 días	3 (1,4)	162 (76,8)	38 (18)	8 (3,8)	
		5-6 días	0 (0)	66 (79,5)	13 (15,7)	4 (4,8)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	32 (78)	7 (17,1)	2 (4,9)	
Yogur natural	GI	Nunca	5 (1,3)	169 (44,7)	153 (40,5)	51 (13,5)	0,001
		1-2 días	2 (1,2)	100 (59,2)	60 (35,5)	7 (4,1)	
		3-4 días	0 (0)	194 (89,8)	18 (8,3)	4 (1,9)	
		5-6 días	1 (0,6)	156 (88,6)	14 (8)	5 (2,8)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	162 (94,7)	8 (4,7)	1 (0,6)	
	GC	Nunca	8 (1,3)	327 (51,7)	187 (29,5)	111 (17,5)	0,001
		1-2 días	1 (0,3)	205 (71,2)	56 (19,4)	26 (9)	
		3-4 días	0 (0)	125 (72,7)	39 (22,7)	8 (4,7)	
		5-6 días	1 (0,9)	87 (79,1)	17 (15,5)	5 (4,5)	
		Todos los días	0 (0)	43 (78,2)	11 (20)	1 (1,8)	

GI: grupo de intervención; GC: grupo control.

Así pues, con la información obtenida en el presente trabajo es importante señalar que, con respecto al consumo diario de energía por medio de leche y productos lácteos, en esta muestra de estudio se cubre aproximadamente el 10% de la ingesta calórica diaria de los adolescentes.

Por otro lado, el consumo de leche bovina per cápita en México es de 139 l/persona/año, lo cual corresponde a un consumo de 381 ml/día (24), muy por debajo de la recomendación de 500 ml/día realizada por la Organización de las Naciones Unidas para la Alimentación y la Agricultura (FAO) (24) y de la recomendación

de 180 l/persona/año emitida por la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS) (25). Estos datos invitan a reflexionar acerca de la conveniencia de la promoción del consumo de leche y productos lácteos, ya que existe un bajo consumo de estos alimentos y su adecuado consumo, además de mostrar beneficios en salud, podría ser un coadyuvante en la pérdida de peso corporal.

CONCLUSIÓN

Se concluye que la intervención fue exitosa debido a que se incrementó el consumo de leche y productos lácteos. Asimismo, se observó una disminución en la prevalencia de sobrepeso y obesidad; sin embargo, la prevención y el tratamiento de la obesidad requiere de diversas acciones de promoción de hábitos y estilos de vida saludables en las que se incluya el fomento del consumo de leche para poder cumplir con las recomendaciones de la FAO y de la OMS.

Por esta razón, se sugiere realizar estrategias encaminadas a desmitificar el consumo de leche y productos lácteos para generar un incremento en su ingesta debido a todos los beneficios que aportan.

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Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Malnutrición por exceso y evolución clínica en niños menores de dos años hospitalizados por infección respiratoria aguda baja *Overweight and clinical course in children younger than two years old hospitalized for lower respiratory tract infection*

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Resumen

Introducción: la obesidad se asocia a mayor morbilidad y mortalidad en adultos con infecciones respiratorias, pero existe escasa evidencia en niños.

Objetivos: estudiar la asociación entre la malnutrición por exceso (sobrepeso y obesidad) o ME y la evolución de niños hospitalizados por infección respiratoria aguda baja (IRAB).

Métodos: estudio retrospectivo de registros clínicos de menores de dos años hospitalizados por IRAB (años 2009-2015). Se recopilaron datos demográficos, antropométricos (Organización Mundial de la Salud [OMS] 2006) y de evolución clínica.

Resultados: se incluyeron 678 pacientes, con mediana de 9,9 meses de edad (rango: 6,4 a 14,7), el 55% eran hombres y el 67% presentaba neumonía viral. Recibió cuidado básico el 54,7%, oxigenoterapia el 98,7% y ventilación no invasiva (VNI) el 35,4%. Estado nutricional: el 10% tenía malnutrición por déficit (MD, z peso/edad ≤ -1 en menores de un año y z peso/talla ≤ -1 en mayores); el 55,2%, eutrofia; y el 34,8%, ME ($zP/T \geq +1$). Los hombres con MD requirieron VNI con mayor frecuencia que los eutróficos (56,2% vs. 34,6%, $p = 0,02$), pero aquellos con ME tuvieron mayor frecuencia de neumonía viral (75,4% vs. 60,2%, $p = 0,014$), necesidad de cuidado mixto (27,7% vs. 19,9%, $p = 0,018$) y duración de VNI 4,5 [3-5,5] vs. [2-5] días, $p = 0,007$ que los eutróficos. En las mujeres no hubo asociación entre el estado nutricional y la evolución clínica. Los lactantes tuvieron mayor duración de VNI que los niños de 12 a 24 meses.

Conclusiones: en esta muestra de niños menores de dos años hospitalizados por IRAB, la obesidad y el sobrepeso, el sexo masculino y la menor edad se asociaron a peor evolución clínica.

Palabras clave:

Niños. Obesidad.
Infección respiratoria
aguda baja. Evolución
clínica.

Abstract

Introduction: obesity is related to a higher morbidity and mortality in adults with respiratory infections but in children the evidence is limited.

Objective: to study the association between overweight and clinical course in children younger than two years of age, hospitalized for lower respiratory tract infections (LRTI).

Methods: retrospective study reviewing clinical records of children hospitalized by LRTI from 2009 to 2015. Demographic data, anthropometry, nutritional status (World Health Organization [OMS] 2006 reference) and clinical course.

Results: we included 678 patients with a median age of 9.9 (range: 6.4 to 14.7) months, 55% were boys and 67% had viral pneumonia (67%). Treatment: 54.7% received basic care, 98.7% oxygen therapy, 35.4% noninvasive ventilation (NIV), 26.1% antibiotics and 47.5% corticosteroids. Regarding nutritional status, 10% had undernutrition ($W/Az \leq -1$ in infants or W/Hz in the older ones), 55.2% were eutrophic and 34.8% were overweight (ME, $W/Hz \geq +1$). Boys with overweight had higher frequency of viral pneumonia (75.4% vs 60.2%, $p = 0.014$), need for more complex care (27.7% vs 19.9%, $p = 0.018$) and length of NIV 4.5 [3-5.5] vs. [2-5] days, $p = 0.007$ than eutrophic. Infants had longer time of NIV than the older ones. In girls, no associations were found between nutritional status and clinical course.

Conclusions: in this sample of young children hospitalized with LRTI, obesity and overweight, masculine sex and younger age were associated to worse clinical outcomes.

Key words:

Children. Obesity.
Lower respiratory
tract infections.
Clinical evolution.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La transición epidemiológica nutricional en la población pediátrica chilena se ha reflejado también en los pacientes hospitalizados. Al igual que en otros países en esta situación, se ha reportado en los hospitales una disminución de la prevalencia de desnutrición (1-5) y un aumento del exceso de peso (6-9).

En Chile, las infecciones respiratorias agudas (IRA) han sido históricamente la principal causa de consulta ambulatoria y de urgencia: alcanzan hasta el 60% del total anual (10) y son la principal etiología de morbilidad infantil tardía (11). De este modo, impactan significativamente el gasto en salud: un estudio llevado a cabo en Estados Unidos en el año 2007 demostró que los adultos con influenza estacional representaban un gasto de US\$87,1 billones anuales, considerando costos directos (hospitalización, consulta médica, mortalidad, ausentismo laboral y muerte prematura) e indirectos (recursos sanitarios y productividad) (12).

Tradicionalmente, se ha descrito mayor morbilidad en los pacientes desnutridos que cursan infecciones respiratorias, debido principalmente al deterioro de los mecanismos defensivos pulmonares y la disminución de la masa magra. Ambos factores afectan la función pulmonar, favorecen un patrón restrictivo y aumentan el trabajo respiratorio (13-15).

Sin embargo, el exceso de peso parece ser también deletéreo para el aparato respiratorio: ya en la década de 1970 se había reportado que los niños con sobrepeso tenían mayor frecuencia de IRA que los eutróficos (16,17). Por otro lado, en niños obesos hospitalizados en unidades de paciente crítico, se observó mayor daño pulmonar asociado a ventilación mecánica y mortalidad hasta un 29% más alta que en los eutróficos (18-20). En Chile, Rivera-Claros (21) en 1999 estudió a 130 lactantes previamente sanos, hospitalizados con infección por virus respiratorio sincicial (VRS), y reportó que los obesos tenían oxigenoterapia más prolongada (cinco días vs. tres días, $p < 0,05$). En 2011, en niños japoneses hospitalizados por VRS se demostró un efecto bimodal del estado nutricional, con estadía hospitalaria más prolongada tanto en desnutridos como en obesos (22). También en Japón se reportó que la obesidad es factor de riesgo para hospitalizaciones repetidas en niños asmáticos y en un estudio reciente de Estados Unidos se planteó como un factor de riesgo independiente para el ingreso, mayor estadía hospitalaria y necesidad de cuidados intensivos, aumentando los costos en salud de niños hospitalizados por infecciones respiratorias (23,24).

La elevada prevalencia IRAB y de malnutrición por exceso (11,25) en la población pediátrica, en conjunto con la mayor morbilidad asociada a ambas condiciones y los mayores costos en salud que significan (26,27), hacen relevante evaluar en nuestro país muestras de mayor tamaño y diferente complejidad de cuidado, considerando la escasa evidencia disponible (28,29). El objetivo de este estudio fue estudiar la asociación entre el exceso de peso y la evolución clínica de niños menores de dos años hospitalizados por IRAB.

METODOLOGÍA

Se realizó un estudio retrospectivo con revisión de fichas y registros clínicos. Se incluyeron los niños menores de dos años, con IRAB definida según criterios clínicos (30), ingresados en el Hospital Josefina Martínez durante los periodos de invierno entre los años 2009 y 2015. Debían ser sanos previamente y haber tenido una evaluación antropométrica (peso y longitud) realizada por nutricionista o enfermera al ingreso. Se excluyeron aquellos pacientes con enfermedades crónicas, prematuros (edad gestacional menor de 37 semanas) y los que tuviesen datos incompletos de evolución clínica y/o antropometría.

Se consignaron los antecedentes demográficos (edad de ingreso, sexo, hora y fecha de ingreso y egreso al hospital). Se registró la antropometría de ingreso: peso (g) y longitud (cm), realizada de modo estandarizado, con estándar de la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS) 2006 (31,32). Se definió "malnutrición por déficit" (MD) como un puntaje $z \leq -1$, utilizando el índice peso/edad (P/E) en los menores de 12 meses y peso/talla (P/T) en los de 12 a 24 meses. Se definió "malnutrición por exceso" (ME) si el puntaje z del índice P/T era $\geq +1$ (sobrepeso: $zP/T +1$ a $+1,99$; obesidad: $zP/T \geq +2$). El diagnóstico estatural se hizo con talla/edad (zT/E): talla baja: ≤ -2 ; normal: $-0,99$ a $+1,99$ y alta: $\geq +2$.

EVOLUCIÓN CLÍNICA

En cuanto al nivel de cuidado, "cuidado básico" correspondió a aquel que no requirió VNI, se consideró "cuidado intermedio" si se necesitó VNI y "cuidado mixto", si ingresó a cuidado básico pero por gravedad se debió iniciar VNI. Se registraron la duración de la estadía hospitalaria (en días y horas), la necesidad y duración de la oxigenoterapia y VNI, el uso de corticoides orales y/o antibióticos y el diagnóstico de IRAB de egreso.

CONSIDERACIONES ÉTICAS

Este protocolo respetó los requerimientos de la Declaración de Helsinki de la Asociación Médica Mundial sobre ética en la investigación médica en seres humanos y la normativa actualmente vigente en nuestro país y fue aprobado por el Comité de Evaluación Ético Científico del Servicio de Salud Metropolitano Sur Oriente (SSMSO). Se solicitó autorización de revisión de las fichas médicas y de enfermería, así como dispensa de consentimiento informado.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Se verificó la normalidad de las variables con test de Shapiro-Wilk. Las variables numéricas se describieron como medianas y rango intercuartílico, con análisis no paramétrico de Kruskal-Wallis y Mann-Whitney. Las variables categóricas se describieron según frecuencias y las comparaciones se realizaron con test

de Chi-cuadrado. Finalmente, se aplicaron análisis de regresión múltiple para explicar las variables de evolución clínica. Se consideró significativo un $p < 0,05$ y se utilizó el programa estadístico STATA/SE 13.0.

RESULTADOS

Se revisaron 797 fichas clínicas y después de aplicar los criterios de exclusión, la muestra quedó constituida por 678 lactantes (Fig. 1). No se encontraron diferencias entre los sujetos excluidos y la muestra, según sexo, edad, diagnóstico de egreso, días de hospitalización, duración de la hospitalización o VNI.

La tabla I muestra las características generales de la muestra, según el diagnóstico nutricional. Se encontró MD en el 10% (1,3% $z \leq -2$ y 8,7% $z -1$ a $-1,9$), eutrofia en el 55,2% y ME en el 34,8% (23,3% sobrepeso y 11,5% obesidad). Se observa que el grupo

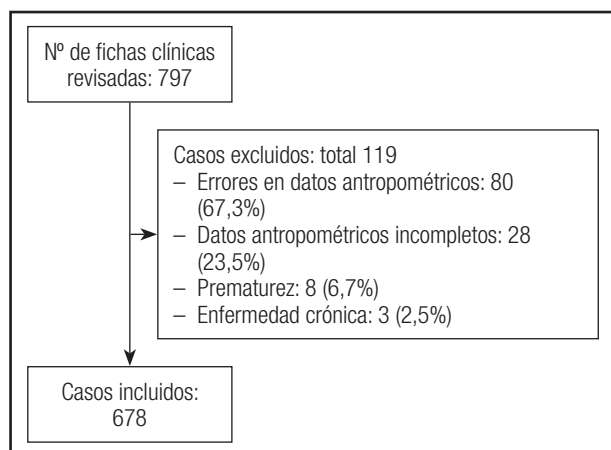


Figura 1.

Constitución de la muestra.

de MD tuvo menor edad y mayor prevalencia de talla baja que el eutrófico y el ME, siendo estos últimos comparables entre sí.

Los diagnósticos de ingreso más frecuentes fueron neumonía viral ($n = 454$, 67%), bronquiolitis ($n = 120$, 17,7%) y otras IRAB ($n = 104$, 15,3%). La neumonía viral fue más frecuente en el grupo de ME (74,2%, $p = 0,014$) y la bronquiolitis, en el grupo MD (27,9%, $p = 0,02$).

ESTADO NUTRICIONAL Y EVOLUCIÓN CLÍNICA

La tabla II detalla el tratamiento en el grupo total y según estado nutricional y en ella destaca que el grupo de ME necesitó cuidado mixto con mayor frecuencia que los eutróficos. Lo mismo ocurrió en el grupo con MD, aunque la diferencia no fue significativa. Un 26,1% requirió antibioterapia y un 47,5% necesitó corticoides.

En la tabla III se describe la evolución en los niños hombres: aquellos con ME tuvieron mayor frecuencia de diagnóstico de neumonía viral al ingreso (74,4%) que los eutróficos (60,2%) o aquellos con MD (50%) ($p = 0,014$). De igual manera, necesitaron cuidado mixto con mayor frecuencia (27,7% vs. 19,9%, $p = 0,018$) y, como se observa en la figura 2, tuvieron duración de VNI más prolongada que los eutróficos (4,5 [3-5,5] vs. 3 [2-5] días, $p = 0,007$). Los niños con MD requirieron VNI con mayor frecuencia que los eutróficos o con ME.

En las mujeres solo se encontró que aquellas con MD requirieron corticoides con menor frecuencia (28% vs. 54,8%, $p < 0,05$).

EDAD Y EVOLUCIÓN CLÍNICA

En la tabla IV se describen la evolución y el estado nutricional según edad: destaca que los menores de 12 meses tuvieron mayor duración de VNI y frecuencia de bronquiolitis que los mayores, quienes tuvieron mayor frecuencia de neumonía viral. No hubo diferencia en el estado nutricional según edad.

Tabla I. Características generales de 678 niños menores de dos años con IRAB, según diagnóstico nutricional

Variables	Total	Malnutrición por déficit	Eutrofia	Malnutrición por exceso
n (%)	678 (100)	68 (10,0)	374 (55,2)	236 (34,8)
Sexo (mujeres)	305 (45)	36 (52,9)	163 (43,6)	106 (44,9)
Edad en meses [†]	9,9 (6,4-14,7)	8,1 (5,4-13)*	10,6 (6,4-15,2)	9,6 (6,8-14,1)
Edad de ingreso				
0-11 meses	425 (62,3)	47 (69,1)	223 (59,6)	155 (65,7)
12-23 meses	253 (37,3)	21 (30,9)	151 (40,4)	81 (34,3)
Diagnóstico de talla				
Baja	43 (6,4)	17 (25)*	8 (2,1)	18 (7,6)
Normal	609 (89,8)	51 (75)*	347 (92,8)	211 (89,4)
Alta	26 (3,8)	0 (0)*	19 (5,1)	7 (3,0)

Malnutrición por déficit (MD): $zP/E \leq -1$ en los menores de un año o $zP/T \leq -1$ en los de 12 a 24 meses. Malnutrición por exceso (ME): $zP/T \geq +1$. Test de Chi-cuadrado para frecuencias y Kruskal-Wallis para mediana y rangos intercuartílico. * $p < 0,05$ comparado con el grupo Eutrofia. [†]Mediana (rango).

Tabla II. Evolución clínica de 678 niños menores de dos años con IRAB, según diagnóstico nutricional

Variables	Total	Malnutrición por déficit	Eutrofia	Malnutrición por exceso
<i>Diagnóstico principal, n (%)</i>				
Neumonía viral	454 (67)	39 (57,4)	240 (64,2)	175 (74,2)*
<i>Tipo de cuidado, n (%)</i>				
Básico	371 (54,7)	37 (54,4)	199 (53,2)	135 (57,2)
Intermedio	146 (21,5)	12 (17,7)	99 (26,5)	35 (14,8)
Mixto	161 (23,8)	19 (27,9)	76 (20,3)	66 (28)*
Oxigenoterapia, n (%)	669 (98,7)	66 (97,1)	369 (98,7)	234 (99,2)
Oxigenoterapia (días)†	4 (3-6)	4 (3-6)	4 (2-6)	4 (3-6)
Uso de VNI, n (%)	240 (35,4)	30 (44,1)	125 (33,4)	85 (36)
VNI (días)†	4 (2-5)	3 (2-4)	4 (2-5)	4 (3-5)
Estadía (días)†	5 (3-7)	5 (4-7)	5 (3-7)	5 (4-8)

Malnutrición por déficit (MD): $zP/E \leq -1$ en los menores de un año o $zP/T \leq -1$ en los de 12 a 24 meses. Malnutrición por exceso (ME): $zP/T \geq +1$. Test de Chi-cuadrado para frecuencias y Kruskal-Wallis para mediana y rangos intercuartílico. * $p < 0,05$ comparado con el grupo con eutrofia. †Mediana (rango).

Tabla III. Evolución clínica de 373 niños hombres menores de dos años con IRAB, según diagnóstico nutricional

Variables	Total (n = 373)	Malnutrición por déficit (n = 32)	Eutrofia (n = 211)	Malnutrición por exceso (n = 130)
<i>Tipo de cuidado, n (%)</i>				
Básico	205 (55)	16 (50)	11 (52,6)	78 (60)
Intermedio	81 (21,7)	7 (21,9)	58 (27,5)	16 (12,3)
Mixto	87 (23,3)	9 (28,1)	42 (19,9)	36 (27,7)*
Oxigenoterapia, n (%)	367 (98,4)	31 (96,9)	207 (98,1)	129 (99,4)
Oxigenoterapia (días)†	4 (3-6)	4 (3-5)	4 (3-6)	4 (3-6)
Uso de VNI, n (%)	131 (35,1)	18 (56,2)*	73 (34,6)	40 (30,8)
VNI (días)†	4 (2-5)	3 (2-4)	3 (2-5)	4,5 (3-5,5) *
Estadía (días)†	5 (4-7)	5 (4-6)	5 (3-7)	5 (4-8)

Malnutrición por déficit (MD): $zP/E \leq -1$ en los menores de un año o $zP/T \leq -1$ en los de 12 a 24 meses. Malnutrición por exceso (ME): $zP/T \geq +1$. Test de Chi-cuadrado para frecuencias y Kruskal-Wallis para mediana y rangos intercuartílico. * $p < 0,05$ comparado con el grupo con eutrofia. †Mediana (rango).

ANÁLISIS MULTIVARIADOS

Se realizaron análisis de regresión múltiple utilizando como variables dependientes las de evolución clínica y como independientes, las demográficas y de estado nutricional. En la tabla V se muestra que el rango de edad ($p = 0,012$) y la ME ($p = 0,027$) fueron capaces de explicar la mayor duración de la VNI en los niños de sexo masculino ($R^2 = 0,093$). No se obtuvo significación en otros modelos aplicados.

DISCUSIÓN

Este estudio explora la posible influencia de la obesidad y el sobrepeso en la evolución de niños menores de dos años con

IRAB, ambas condiciones de alta prevalencia a nivel nacional y mundial. La malnutrición por exceso se asoció a peores resultados clínicos en los niños hombres, a la vez que la malnutrición por déficit se asoció a mayor frecuencia de apoyo ventilatorio. Otro factor significativo fue el efecto de la edad, con mayor duración de apoyo ventilatorio en los menores de 12 meses.

La asociación encontrada coincide con la evolución bimodal planteada por Akiyama en 2011 (22), de peor evolución los extremos ponderales. Si bien los niños con bajo peso requirieron VNI con mayor frecuencia, el curso posterior fue similar a los eutróficos. Ello puede estar influido por haberse incluido en ese grupo a una proporción de niños posiblemente eutróficos, pero con baja de peso aguda secundaria a la IRAB. Ello coincide con la mayor proporción de niños con MD encontrada en esta muestra (10%), en relación con las cifras nacionales, que oscilan entre el 2,6 y 7,7% en el

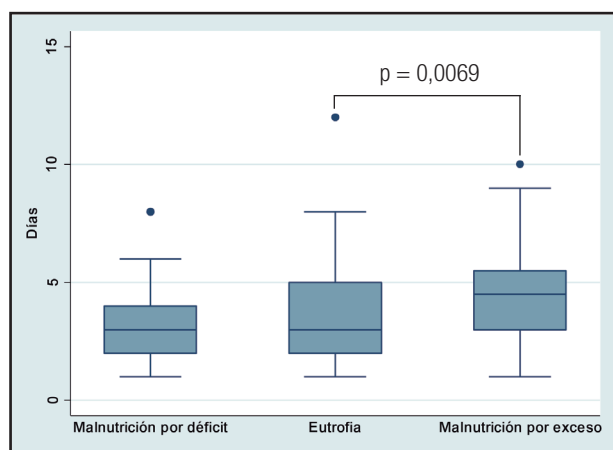


Figura 2.

Duración de la ventilación no invasiva (VNI) según estado nutricional en 131 niños hombres, menores de dos años, hospitalizados por IRAB. Test de Kruskal-Wallis (test de comparaciones múltiples).

menor de dos años (7). La baja ponderal aguda es frecuente en esta situación y se asocia a la disminución de la ingesta y al aumento de las pérdidas, por diarrea aguda y/o vómitos, con frecuente deshidratación (33). La desnutrición real afecta la respuesta inmune tanto humoral como celular, agravando las infecciones. Además, conduce a una peor mecánica respiratoria, producto de la debilidad de la musculatura respiratoria sometida a mayor requerimiento funcional. Todo ello constituye un círculo vicioso que afecta la adaptación respiratoria frente a la enfermedad.

En cuanto al mecanismo por el cual la obesidad afecta la evolución de las IRAB, se ha planteado que el exceso de masa grasa induce a una desregulación y estrés celular que conduce a un estado proinflamatorio crónico. Este es producto del aumento de citoquinas, quimioquinas inflamatorias, mediadores angiogénicos, metabólicos y leptina (34-38). En el grupo total hubo una mayor proporción de niños con ME que necesitaron aumentar la complejidad de cuidado, aunque no tuvieron mayor necesidad de oxigenoterapia, VNI, duración de ambas o de la estadía, en comparación con los eutróficos. Ello difiere de otros estudios en que lactantes obesos con infección por VRS requirieron oxigenoterapia (21) o estadía hospitalaria más prolongada (22). Aunque el tamaño muestral de nuestro estudio es mayor, esta discrepancia podría deberse a mayor gravedad de la IRAB en nuestra muestra, reflejada en un alto requerimiento de oxígeno (96-99%) y de cuidado intermedio. También debe considerarse una mayor heterogeneidad en la etiología de la IRAB y uso de diferentes referencias de crecimiento.

Se encontró una diferencia significativa en cuanto al sexo, puesto que los hombres con ME tuvieron mayor frecuencia de neumonía viral y requirieron mayor complejidad de cuidados y mayor duración del VNI que los eutróficos. Por otro lado, los niños hombres que presentaban MD requirieron VNI con mayor frecuencia que los eutróficos o con exceso, pero no tuvieron peor evolución posterior. Ello puede explicarse por detrimento de la función muscular respiratoria derivado de la desnutrición o por

Tabla IV. Características generales y evolución clínica de 678 niños menores de dos años con IRAB, según edad

Variables	Niños < 12 meses	Niños ≥ 12 meses	p
<i>Diagnóstico principal, n (%)</i>			
Neumonía viral	268 (63,1)	186 (73,5)	0,000
Bronquiolitis	110 (25,9)	10 (4)	
<i>Tipo de cuidado, n (%)</i>			
Básico	240 (56,5)	131 (51,8)	0,318
Intermedio	84 (19,7)	62 (24,5)	
Mixto	101 (23,8)	60 (23,7)	
Oxigenoterapia, n (%)	418 (98,4)	251 (99,2)	0,346
Oxigenoterapia (días)*	4 (3-6)	4 (2-6)	0,157
Uso de VNI, n (%)	143 (33,7)	97 (38,3)	0,217
VNI (días)*	4 (3-6)	3 (2-5)	0,006
Estadía (días)*	5 (4-8)	5 (3-7)	0,122

Test de Chi-cuadrado para frecuencias y Mann-Whitney para mediana y rangos intercuartílico. *Mediana (rango).

Tabla V. Modelo de regresión múltiple para explicar la duración de la ventilación no invasiva en 131 niños hombres, menores de dos años con IRAB

Predictores	Coefficiente beta	95% IC	p	R ²
Edad de 12 a 24 meses	-0,882	-1,57 a -0,20	0,012	0,093
Malnutrición por exceso (obesidad y sobrepeso)	0,856	0,09 a 1,62	0,027	

una peor condición global inicial de aquellos con baja ponderal aguda, quienes, una vez iniciado el apoyo con VNI, evolucionaron de modo similar a los eutróficos. El grupo con desnutrición (P/E o P/T ≤ -2) fue minoritario en nuestro estudio (1,3%), lo cual dificulta demostrar efecto en una peor evolución pero refleja la situación general de nuestro país, con baja prevalencia de desnutrición: 0,3 a 1,5% en los menores de dos años (7).

Se ha descrito que la vía aérea de los niños hombres tiene menor calibre y longitud que la de las mujeres, particularmente en lactantes (39,40). La obesidad podría acentuar esta diferencia, debido a cambios anatómicos y funcionales mediados por un estado proinflamatorio basal, lo que hace que los niños con obesidad o sobrepeso presenten peor respuesta frente a la IRAB que las niñas.

En cuanto a la influencia de la edad, como era esperable, los menores de 12 meses presentaron mayor frecuencia de bronquiolitis, pero también una duración más prolongada de VNI que los mayores de 12 meses. Ello puede indicar mayor severidad al inicio de la enfermedad, menor calibre de vía aérea con mayor efecto de la inflamación y/o menor reserva muscular respiratoria en los más pequeños.

Este estudio tiene fortalezas, como un buen tamaño muestral con representación de ambos sexos y edades analizadas, así como registros antropométricos confiables y estandarizados. La muestra tuvo suficiente representatividad de la malnutrición, tanto por déficit como por exceso. Según el nivel socioeconómico, por su origen, representa al grupo principal de usuarios del sistema público chileno de salud, a los cuales los actuales resultados pueden extrapolarse. Dentro de sus limitaciones se encuentran el carácter retrospectivo, que no permite demostrar causalidad, y el incluir varios años de campaña de invierno con representación de distintos tipos y combinaciones de virus estacionales, los cuales desarrollan diferentes interacciones con el huésped y espectro de gravedad en la evolución.

CONCLUSIONES

En esta muestra de niños menores de dos años hospitalizados por IRAB se demostró asociación de la malnutrición por exceso a mayor complejidad de cuidado, así como VNI más prolongada en el caso de los niños hombres y de los menores de 12 meses de edad. En consecuencia, el estudio ofrece evidencia respecto a la influencia de la obesidad y el sobrepeso en la evolución clínica de esta población de pacientes pediátricos, aportando un argumento más para la prevención del exceso de peso a edades tempranas. Además, busca incentivar el estudio del curso clínico de niños que ingresan a cuidados clínicos de menor complejidad, pero de alta morbilidad y elevados costos económicos en salud.

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Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Is there gender discrimination in full breastfeeding in Mexico? *¿Existe discriminación de género en la lactancia materna completa en México?*

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Abstract

Objective: differences have been shown between males and females in terms of the prevalence of malnutrition in different parts of the world, which point to discrimination against females, including with respect to full breastfeeding. Therefore, the objective was to show that exclusive breastfeeding is less common for females in a population of medium-low and low socioeconomic strata.

Methods: this was a cross-sectional analysis of a sample of 170 mother-infant dyads according to type of feeding (74 full breastfeeding, 57 partial breastfeeding and 39 human milk substitutes) at the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara. Dependent variables according to type of feeding: full breastfeeding (exclusive and/or predominant), partial breastfeeding, and human milk substitutes. Independent variables: demographic data, schooling, occupation of mothers and/or parents, and family income. Kruskal-Wallis, Mann-Whitney U and Chi-square tests and odds ratio were used.

Results: the probability of full breastfeeding was 3.8 times lower in females than in males. In a non-significant way, the likelihood of full breastfeeding was lower than that of partial breastfeeding, and full breastfeeding was lower than the combination of partial breastfeeding and human milk substitutes in females. Full breastfeeding and partial breastfeeding were lower than human milk substitutes, and partial breastfeeding was lower than human milk substitutes in females.

Conclusion: there is a differentiated character in the privilege of full breastfeeding; it is four times lower in females than in males.

Key words:

Exclusive breastfeeding. Infants. Males. Females. Gender discrimination.

Resumen

Objetivo: se han observado diferencias entre niñas y varones en la prevalencia de desnutrición en diferentes partes del mundo, lo que apunta a la discriminación contra las niñas, incluso con respecto a la lactancia materna completa. El objetivo fue mostrar que la lactancia completa es menos común en las niñas en una población de estratos socioeconómicos medio-bajo y bajo.

Métodos: se realizó un análisis transversal de una muestra de 170 díadas madre-lactante según el tipo de alimentación (74 de lactancia completa, 57 de lactancia parcial y 39 sucedáneos de la leche humana) en el Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara. Variables dependientes según el tipo de alimentación: lactancia completa (exclusiva y/o predominante), lactancia parcial y sucedáneos de leche humana. Variables independientes: datos demográficos, escolaridad, ocupación de madres y/o padres e ingresos familiares. Se utilizaron pruebas de Kruskal-Wallis, Mann-Whitney U y Chi-cuadrado y razón de momios.

Resultados: la probabilidad de lactancia materna completa fue 3,8 veces menor en niñas que en varones. De manera no significativa, la probabilidad de lactancia completa fue menor que la de lactancia parcial y la frecuencia de lactancia completa fue menor que la combinación de lactancia parcial y sucedáneos de leche humana en niñas. La frecuencia de lactancia completa y lactancia parcial fue menor que los sucedáneos de leche humana y la lactancia parcial fue menos frecuente que los sucedáneos de leche humana en niñas.

Conclusión: hay un carácter diferenciado en el privilegio de ofrecer lactancia materna completa. Es cuatro veces menor en las niñas que en varones.

Palabras clave:

Lactancia materna completa. Lactantes. Discriminación de género.

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INTRODUCTION

It has been recognized that breastfeeding, initiated within the first hour of birth, given exclusively for six months and continued for two years with the provision of safe and adequate complementary foods, is one of the most powerful practices to promote survival and child welfare (1). Improving breastfeeding rates worldwide could save the lives of more than 820,000 children under the age of five each year, the majority of them (87%) under six months of age. In addition, breastfeeding is also good for mothers. Breastfeeding protects against postpartum hemorrhage, postpartum depression, ovarian and breast cancer, heart disease, and type 2 diabetes. It is estimated that improving breastfeeding rates could prevent 20,000 additional maternal deaths from breast cancer (2,3).

In industrialized countries, the prevalence of breastfeeding is greater than that observed in less industrialized countries, and apparently the best socioeconomic level and education influence these differences (4,5). In Mexico, as in other countries, the prevalence of exclusive breastfeeding in the first half of postnatal life and its continuation up to 24 months is less frequent than expected. This condition is due to multiple factors: demographic, socioeconomic, cultural, occupational, psychological, medical, environment of support, decision or interest of the mother, and so on (6-13).

A less explored factor, at least in recent years, is the influence of the infant's gender on the mother's decision to offer and maintain breastfeeding. There is some evidence of gender discrimination in favor of males since the past century. In the decade of the 1980s and 1990s, several studies were published in favor of and against the potential discrimination by gender of children in different countries (14). In China, discrimination against females after the first child was recognized among the different socioeconomic groups (15). Although studies did not show significant differences in the duration and intensity of breastfeeding in Morocco and Tunisia, there were small differences in favor of Tunisian males with respect to immunization and treatment of diarrhea (16). In rural India, there were significant differences between males and females in terms of the prevalence of malnutrition that pointed to discrimination against females, including with respect to exclusive breastfeeding (17).

In our country, the published literature is scarce and less precise, but some studies have shown higher malnutrition in females (39%) than in males (20%), indicated by weight for age (14). In marginalized areas of Guadalajara (18), females aged 12 to 24 months showed a higher rate of malnutrition, with a percentage difference of 7-10 points according to the indicator weight for age or weight for height, than males. This apparent discrimination against preschool females was more marked in the Wirrarika culture, an indigenous population of the state of Jalisco (14).

At present we have found some evidence (unpublished data) that mothers prolong breastfeeding longer for males than for females and, consequently, the start of substitutes for human milk is more delayed for males. Therefore, the purpose of this report is to show some evidence that the cultural habit of exclusive breastfeeding is

more common for males of mother and infant dyads belonging to a population of medium-low and low socioeconomic strata who were attended since birth in the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara.

METHODS

DESIGN

This was a cross-sectional analysis of a sample of 170 mother-infant dyads according to type of feeding: 74 full breastfeeding (FBF), 57 partial breastfeeding (PBF) and 39 human milk substitutes (HMS). This sample was obtained from a non-random cohort study. The sampling method was non-probabilistic at the site of birth concentration. We identified 815 mother-newborn dyads who were admitted to the physiological puerperium ward in a shared room at the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara. They were included and followed for four months if they met the inclusion criteria: healthy postpartum women living in the metropolitan area of Guadalajara who had signed the informed consent sheet, and with a full-term healthy single infant of either sex, with an adequate weight for gestational age. Dyads were not included when mothers had a history of chronic, genetic, or congenital diseases; addiction to alcohol, tobacco, or drugs; or if the newborns had congenital malformations and/or genetic diseases. Dyads were also excluded for maternal causes such as loss of follow-up, presence of subacute or chronic disease, occurrence of illness or serious accident, and/or infant causes such as subacute or chronic disease, occurrence of an accident or serious illness, or incomplete data about the mother or infant. Four hundred eight dyads were contacted by telephone at the fourth week of postnatal life; 219 dyads accepted and attended the first visit at the eighth week, and 170 dyads attended at the end of the 16th week of postnatal life. There were no significant differences in the general characteristics of the mother-infant dyads between study participants and mothers who were not located by telephone at four weeks or those who declined to participate in the study at eight weeks after postpartum. A total sample size of 148 dyads was estimated with an alpha of 0.05 and a power of 0.80. The proportion of breastfeeding comes from the ENSANUT (2012) for exclusive breastfeeding (14.4%) and for predominant breastfeeding (25%) (19).

The dependent variables were type of feeding: full breastfeeding, exclusive and/or predominant (1); partial breastfeeding; and human milk substitutes.

The independent variables were demographic data: age of parents; number of family members and type of family, that is, nuclear (only parents and children), extended (parents, children and grandparents) or composed (parents, children, grandparents and other blood relatives and non-consanguineous); marital status (civil and religious marriage, religious marriage, civil marriage, free union, separated or single mother); schooling (null, equal to or less than three years of primary school, more than three and less than six years of primary school, complete primary, junior high school incomplete, junior and technical high school, senior high school, senior and technical high school, bachelor's degree, specialty;

and occupation of mothers and/or parents (employee, bricklayer, laborer, driver, mechanic, tradesman, established trader, professional, student, unemployed, home, domestic employee, other).

FIELD WORK CRITERIA AND STRATEGIES

The study began in the physiological puerperium ward of the Gynecology and Obstetrics Division of the Hospital Civil de Guadalajara. Mothers were invited to participate after researchers (E.G.M., N.M.E.) promoted the practice of at least six months of full breastfeeding. We clarified that we were interested in including all the mothers who wanted to participate regardless of the mode of feeding that they chose for their infants. After the mothers signed the informed consent form, we began collecting demographic, socio-economic, and educational dietary variables; the mothers were then contacted after a period of one month to describe the type of feeding they had chosen for their infants. Those who agreed to participate had scheduled appointments at 16 weeks postpartum.

COLLECTION OF INFORMATION, DATABASES, AND COMPUTER PROGRAMS

Information on general, demographic, socioeconomic and educational level was captured on collection sheets specifically designed for the protocol. After the information was obtained, the database was elaborated and captured, and the statistical analysis was performed with SPSS version 24 software.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Levene's test was used to assess equality of variances for two or more groups, and Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were

used for exploring the normality of distributions. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to identify significant associations between variables of various proportions. In variables with non-normal distribution, the Mann-Whitney U test on samples was used. We also used the Chi-square test and odds ratio (95% confidence interval) to estimate the associations and the epidemiological significance of the data.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The recommendations of the Declaration of Helsinki were followed in its last amendment during the 64th Annual Assembly organized by the World Medical Association, 2013. The protocol was applied to each of the participating dyads that met the inclusion criteria after the mother gave her authorization by signing the informed consent. The protocol was approved by the Committees of Bioethics and Research of the Hospital Civil de Guadalajara (CI-01314).

RESULTS

The total sample comprised 170 dyads, 70 females (41.2%) and 100 males (58.8%). Of the total sample, 74 (43.5%) received FBF, 57 PBF (33.5%) and 39 (22.9%) HMS. Of the total group of females, 22 (31.4%) received FBF, 24 (34.2%) PBF and 22 (34.2%) HMS; of the total group of males 52 (52%) received FBF, 33 (33%) PBF and 15 (15%) HMS. Table I shows that in females the age of the parents, number of members in the family and economic characteristics were similar in the three types of feeding, and there were no significant differences. Table II shows that in males, the expenditure on food ($p = 0.020$) and per capita food expenditure as a percentage of the minimum wage ($p = 0.026$) was significantly higher in the group of PBF than in the FBF and the HMS. Specifically, the monthly expenditure on food was higher in PBF vs FBF ($p = 0.035$) and in PBF vs HMS ($p = 0.011$); per capita food expenditure (percentage of

Table I. General characteristics of the parents of females at four months according to the type of feeding (n = 170)

	FBF			PBF			HMS			p*
	n	Median	(p25-p75)	n	Median	(p25-p75)	n	Median	(p25-p75)	
Mother's age	22	23	22-25	24	23	21-27	24	22	19-26	0.475
Father's age	21	24	23-29	19	28	24-31	19	28	22-32	0.432
No. members in the family	22	7	4-8	24	5	4-7	24	5	4-7	0.428
Monthly family income	18	7,350	5,150-12,500	20	6,000	4,450-8,000	20	8,000	6,100-11,350	0.231
Monthly expenses in food	22	2,700	2,000-4,900	23	2,800	2,000-4,000	24	2,800	2,000-3,200	0.504
Per capita expenses for feeding (% MW)	22	24.4	12.7-38.0	23	27.2	13.6-42.8	24	21.4	17.6-36.7	0.905
Mexican pesos for per capita feeding	22	17.1	8.9-26.7	23	19.0	9.5-30.0	24	15.0	12.3-25.7	0.905

FBF: full breastfeeding; PBF: partial breastfeeding; HMS: human milk substitutes. *Kruskal-Wallis test. % MS: percentage of minimum wage. Rate Mexican peso:dollar was 18.4:1 (2016).

Table II. General characteristics of the parents of males at four months according to the type of feeding (n = 100)

	FBF			PBF			HMS			p*
	n	Median	(p25-p75)	n	Median	(p25-p75)	n	Median	(p25-p75)	
Mother's age	52	23	20-27	33	21	20-26	15	22	20-25	0.644
Father's age	45	27	23-31	29	26	23-30	14	26	23-31	0.900
No. members in the family	52	5	4-7	33	5	4-6	15	5	4-6	0.808
Monthly family income	40	7,200	5,300-8,950	27	8,400	6,000-12,000	12	8,000	5,400-8,000	0.350
Monthly expenses in food	47	2,800	2,400-4,000	29	3,500	2,800-4,350	14	2,400	2,000-3,200	0.020
Per capita expenses in food (% MS)	47	28.5	19.0-38.0	29	35.7	22.9-47.6	14	23.3	19.0-31.7	0.026
Mexican pesos for per capita feeding	47	20.0	13.3-26.7	29	25.0	16.1-33.3	14	16.3	13.3-22.2	0.026

FBF: full breastfeeding; PBF: partial breastfeeding; HMS: human milk substitutes. *Kruskal-Wallis test. % MS: percentage of minimum salary. Post-hoc test (Mann-Whitney U). The monthly expenditure on food was higher in PBF vs FBF, $p = 0.035$; PBF vs HMS, $p = 0.011$. Spending in food per capita (% MS) was higher in PBF vs FBF, $p = 0.050$; and PBF vs HMS, $p = 0.010$. The amount in Mexican pesos for feeding per capita was higher in PBF vs FBF, $p = 0.050$, and PBF vs HMS, $p = 0.010$.

minimum salary) was higher in PBF than in FBF ($p = 0.050$) and in PBF vs HMS ($p = 0.010$). The amount in Mexican pesos for feeding per capita was higher in PBF than in FBF ($p = 0.050$) and in PBF vs HMS ($p = 0.010$). These data presuppose greater purchasing power of income distribution in mothers who give PBF.

Table III shows that, in general, there were no significant differences between the three types of feeding regarding the family composition in the groups of females and males. In a particular way, it was observed that in the group of females, the frequency of extended families was higher for females who received FBF (55%) than in those who received PBF (25%) or a HMS (29%) ($p = 0.10$). Although this association was not significant, it is likely that a type II error was made considering the small number of cases in some cells.

There was no association between the three types of feeding in relation to the marital status of the parents in the groups of females and males. The great majority of the marital status of the parents, when both genders (male and female) were linked

for each type of feeding, was in free union in FBF (65%), in PBF (52.5%) and in HMS (62.5%). This would mean that the marital status of the parents is not associated with the type of feeding. It was also observed that in the three types of feeding, those married by civil and/or religious laws were less frequent than other civil status. Likewise, when we combined the percentages of the three types of feeding, a significant frequency (15.7%) of the mothers were single (Table IV).

Regarding the schooling of mothers and fathers in the group of girls, it was observed that the frequency of FBF vs PBF and HMS was higher when schooling was the same or lower than incomplete junior high school, although the association was not significant ($p = 0.079$ and $p = 0.134$, respectively). In the group of males, the schooling of mothers and fathers did not show any association tendency ($p = 0.804$ and $p = 0.449$, respectively).

In the group of females, the mothers' occupation was not associated with the type of feeding either, although the household

Table III. Family composition of lactating mothers of females and males according to the type of feeding at four months (n = 170)*

Family composition	FBF		PBF		HMS		p†
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Females	n = 22		n = 24		n = 24		0.101
Nuclear	10	46	13	54	13	54	
Composed	-	-	5	21	4	17	
Expanded	12	55	6	25	7	29	
Males	n = 52		n = 33		n = 15		0.630
Nuclear	25	48	18	55	7	47	
Composed	6	12	3	9	3	20	
Expanded	21	40	12	36	5	33	

FBF: full breast feeding; PBF: partial breastfeeding; HMS: human milk substitutes. *Chi-square test. †FBF vs others (PBF and HMS) when the family composition was non-nuclear (composed and expanded) vs nuclear.

occupation was lower in infants who received PBF (71%) than in infants who received FBF (82%) or HMS (83%). On the contrary, in the group of males, the household occupation was higher in FBF (83%) than in PBF (66%). This association was not significant due to a type II error, considering the small number of cases per cell in the contingency table. The occupation of the father did not influence the type of feeding in the group of females ($p = 0.857$).

In the group of males, when the father was in a stable employment situation, the frequency of FBF was higher (46%) than when the father had a less stable occupation (27%). This included less paid or more remunerated occupations even if they were less stable.

Table V shows that the odds of FBF were 3.8 times lower for females than for males. The likelihood of FBF would be less frequent than PBF for females, though in a non-significant way,

Table IV. Marital status of the parents according to the type of feeding of females and males at four months ($n = 170$)*

Marital status	FBF		PBF		HMS		p [†]
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Females	n = 22		n = 24		n = 24		
Civil and religious marriage	2	9	5	21	2	8	
Civil marriage	4	18	2	8	2	8	
Religious marriage	-	-	-	-	1	4	
Free union	15	68	12	50	14	58	
Separated	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Single mother	1	5	5	21	5	21	
Males	n = 52		n = 33		n = 15		
Civil and religious marriage	4	8	2	6	1	7	
Civil marriage	6	12	6	18	2	13	
Religious marriage	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Free union	32	62	18	55	10	67	
Separated	1	2	-	-	-	-	
Single mother	9	17	7	21	2	13	

FBF: full breast feeding; PBF: partial breastfeeding; HMS: human milk substitutes. *Chi-square test. [†]FBF vs others (PBF and HMS), when the marital status was free union vs marriages.

Table V. Type of infant feeding according to gender ($n = 170$)

Comparisons	Gender	Type of feeding				OR	CI	p
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%			
1	Females	HMS		FBF		3.78	1.67, 8.55	0.001
	Males	24	61.5	22	29.7			
		15	38.5	52	70.3			
2	Females	PBF		FBF		1.82	0.88, 3.74	0.104
	Males	24	42.1	22	29.7			
		33	57.9	52	70.3			
3	Females	PBF and HMS		FBF		2.36	1.24, 4.48	0.007
	Males	48	50.0	22	29.7			
		48	50.0	52	70.3			
4	Females	HMS		FBF and PBF		2.97	1.40, 6.20	0.003
	Males	24	61.5	46	35.1			
		15	38.5	85	64.9			
5	Females	HMS		PBF		2.2	0.96, 5.01	0.063
	Males	24	61.5	24	42.1			
		15	38.5	33	57.9			

HMS: human milk substitutes; FBF: full breastfeeding; PBF: partial breastfeeding. Chi-square test.

whereas the likelihood of FBF would be lower than the combination of PBF and HMS for females. Likewise, the likelihood of FBF and PBF would be lower than HMS for females; even the probability of PBF would be lower than HMS, although it did not reach a significant association, probably due to the diversity in the frequency (percentage during the day) of nursing times in PBF.

DISCUSSION

During the process of identification and invitation of mother-newborn dyads in rooming in (allowing mothers and infants to remain together 24 hours a day), exclusive breastfeeding was promoted to all mothers attending the physiological puerperium area. For this purpose, a brief talk was given on the multiple benefits of breastfeeding for the infant and the mother. In addition to the talk, two leaflets were provided with information on breastfeeding and tips for successful breastfeeding. Therefore, all mothers participating in the study knew the importance of offering the breast exclusively. In this way, the contacted mothers were able to decide freely which feeding option was most suitable for them and their infants.

Our study showed that the probability of receiving FBF was about four times lower in females than in males. Even the likelihood of FBF and PBF vs HMS was significantly lower in females than in males. These results undoubtedly reflect that in this population of low and medium-low socioeconomic strata of the metropolitan area of Guadalajara, full breastfeeding is privileged in males over females.

We do not have a clear explanation for this finding, considering that it is a mestizo population that lives in a metropolitan area, the second largest in the country. Pérez Gil-Romo and Díez-Urdanivia (20) have pointed out that in Mexico, gender has been scarcely incorporated as a category of analysis in nutrition and food research. However, a study conducted by this research group on indigenous women of the Sierra Juárez, in the state of Oaxaca (21), included interviews related to the practice of breastfeeding. The first thing they observed was that breastfeeding continued longer in male infants. One of the aspects that drew attention was the meaning of strength of human milk for these indigenous women: "males need to take more time from their mothers to have more strength and thus be healthier to work in the field and keep his family", unlike the females who stay at home helping their mothers with the housework.

In other words, human milk substitutes and domestic work have lower value than male labor. Therefore, it is possible that this cultural trait observed in Mexican women is more ingrained than it seems, and not only in the indigenous population. Therefore, we consider that this privilege granted mainly to males in the metropolitan area of Guadalajara has deep ancestral roots as those observed in the indigenous population of the Oaxaca study. Of course, these are different populations, with different socioeconomic and cultural contexts, but in the background, exclusive breastfeeding is favored for males for the same reasons that were pointed out by the women of the Oaxaca population. In addition,

they are mothers of low and medium-low socioeconomic strata that would not necessarily be applicable to the privileged economic strata of the same metropolitan area of Guadalajara and to our country.

Another potential implication of these findings is that, in the same way that there is a metabolic programming of the human being from pregnancy and the first semester of life related to nutrition and other factors, it could be possible that some mestizo families had a behavioral programming of the mother privileging the feeding of the male. That behavior would be defined from the first semester of the postnatal life and continue during the first stages of life, a period in which the feeding habits are defined.

This distinction in privilege of exclusive breastfeeding would have some effects. For example, a study by Pivik et al. (22) showed that in the analysis of syllable processing, there was greater discrimination of syllables in breastfed infants than in infants fed formula. However, they recognized that it cannot be determined to what extent this difference reflects the dietary influences, the feeding method, or the interactions between the influences of the diet and the differences of background factors between breastfed and formula-fed infants. Also, the important findings of Victora et al. (2) suggest that breastfeeding improves intelligence up to adulthood, and that it has an effect at both the individual and societal level, by increasing educational attainment and earning ability. In addition, there are other important benefits such as the consolidation of the human microbiome in those who receive exclusive breastfeeding, are born via vaginal delivery (23) and receive other short- and long-term health benefits (24,25).

Another interesting finding of our study was that monthly per capita food expenditure was significantly higher for males in the PBF group vs FBF and HMS than for girls. Family income was also higher in PBF than in FBF and HMS, although the differences were not significant. These data imply greater interest in food expenditure by the PBF group, greater purchasing capacity, and probably greater awareness of maintaining breastfeeding for males than for females.

LIMITATIONS

The size of the population sample circumscribed to a group of mothers whose children were born in a public hospital in a population of low and medium-low socioeconomic status. This fact does not allow making inferences to populations of other strata of the metropolitan area of Guadalajara and other Mexico states. The main strength is that it is a cohort of mother-newborn dyads, obtained from birth and followed for four months, in which the mothers themselves decided to feed their infants with FBF, PBF or HMS.

CONCLUSION

There is a differentiated character in the privilege of exclusive breastfeeding being four times higher for males than for females

in a public hospital in the metropolitan area of Guadalajara. Therefore, this potential discrimination by gender in favor of males would have disadvantageous implications in the short and long term for the health of females who do not receive the privilege of full breastfeeding, and that should be considered by health professionals and the society. It is necessary to expand the size of the sample in different socioeconomic strata to identify whether this specific practice of preferential FBF privilege for males and other feeding variables for females is repeated throughout the metropolitan area of Guadalajara and the country. In addition, it is likely that another methodology, probably qualitative, will be required to deepen the knowledge of the origin and roots of this behavior.

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Trabajo Original

Pediatría

Comparative study of mid-upper arm circumference, arm muscle area and arm fat area percentiles in Argentinean and US children aged 4-14 years

Estudio comparativo de los percentiles de circunferencia, área muscular y área grasa del brazo en niños argentinos y estadounidenses de 4-14 años

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Abstract

Background: mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC), subcutaneous fat and muscle measurements are an alternative method to diagnose overweight and evaluate growth as well as protein and energy reserves.

Aim: to compare MUAC, arm muscle area (AMA) and arm fat area (AFA) measurements of Argentinean boys and girls (Sa) with reference curves for US boys and girls (R).

Subjects and methods: data from 22,736 school-children aged 4-14 years from six Argentinean provinces were collected. MUAC and triceps skinfold thickness were measured and the derived AMA and AFA measures were calculated. Analyses were performed with GAMLSS using the R software. Differences in mean values of Sa and R were compared in percentiles 3, 50 and 97.

Results: mean values of MUAC and AMA in boys and girls were higher in R than in Sa at all ages; conversely, AFA values were lower.

Conclusions: our results confirm differences in upper arm anthropometry of Argentinean school-children with respect to the US reference. The higher adipose tissue and lower skeletal muscle mass observed in Argentinean children could be partly associated with the different ethnic origin of both populations. However, differences should be interpreted in the context of an obesogenic environment, which has favored a calorie-protein imbalance.

Key words:

Body composition.
Malnutrition.
Overweight. Obesity.
Argentina.

Resumen

Antecedentes: la medición de la circunferencia del brazo (MUAC), así como la estimación de la grasa subcutánea y muscular constituyen un método alternativo para diagnosticar el sobrepeso y evaluar el crecimiento y las reservas proteicas y energéticas.

Objetivo: comparar las mediciones de MUAC, área muscular (AMA) y área grasa (AFA) del brazo de niños y niñas argentinas (Sa) con curvas de referencia para niños y niñas de Estados Unidos (R).

Sujetos y métodos: se recopilaron datos de 22,736 escolares de 4 a 14 años de edad de seis provincias argentinas. Se obtuvieron medidas de MUAC y pliegue subcutáneo tricipital y se calcularon AMA y AFA. Los análisis se realizaron con GAMLSS utilizando el software R. Las diferencias en los valores medios de Sa y R se compararon para los percentiles 3, 50 y 97.

Resultados: a todas las edades los valores medios de MUAC y AMA en niños y niñas fueron más altos en R que en Sa; por el contrario, los valores de AFA fueron más bajos.

Conclusiones: nuestros resultados confirman la existencia de diferencias en la antropometría mesobraquial de los niños argentinos con respecto a los de la referencia. La mayor cantidad de tejido adiposo y menor de tejido muscular observada en los niños argentinos de ambos sexos puede ser parcialmente asociada con el diferente origen étnico de ambas poblaciones. Sin embargo, las diferencias podrían interpretarse en el contexto de un ambiente obesogénico, el cual habría favorecido el desbalance proteico-calórico.

Palabras clave:

Composición corporal.
Malnutrición.
Sobrepeso. Obesidad.
Argentina.

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INTRODUCTION

The increase of overweight and obesity in children and adolescents is a fact registered globally. According to the World Health Organization (WHO) (1), over 340 million children and adolescents aged 5-19 years were overweight or obese in 2016, being obesity one of the main public health problems. In Argentina, different studies have reported a growing trend in the prevalence of overweight and obesity among children and adolescents by assessing body mass index (BMI) following the WHO criteria and cutoff values, as well as the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the International Obesity Task Force (IOTF) standards (2-6).

Anthropometric assessment is an inexpensive, non-invasive and effective method to screen for malnutrition. The most commonly used indicator to measure overweight and obesity is BMI for age. However, in children and adolescents, it should be used to screen for potential weight and health-related issues, but not as a diagnostic tool. For example, a child may have high BMI for age and sex, but additional assessments would be needed to determine whether excess fat is a problem (7). Besides, measurement of BMI requires height and weight scales, as well as the BMI reference charts (8). An alternative method to diagnose overweight and obesity is the measurement of upper arm circumference, which is used to evaluate growth, protein and energy reserves as well as to provide information about body fat mass (9,10). Upper arm circumference measurement has the additional advantage of being easier and less expensive, since only a measuring tape and reference tables for age and gender are required. Thus, measurements can be easily performed in community and health facilities (11). At the same time, skinfold thickness remains an important and valid anthropometric indicator of regional and total body fatness, especially in research settings (12,13). In Argentina, reference values of upper arm circumference were developed with data from two samples of children from the same city collected in the 70s and the 80s. One of the samples belonged to a longitudinal study of 250 children and the other derived from a cross-sectional study of 1,589 children. However, these references had serious methodological limitations in the generation of smoothed centiles and lacked skinfold thickness data (14,15). The 2000 CDC Growth Charts are the most appropriate percentile criteria to screen for underweight, overweight and obesity in children aged 2-20 years (16,12). They are based on data from 32,600 children from the United States (US) measured between 1963 and 1994. Ages > 6 years were excluded from the revised weight and BMI growth charts to avoid the influence of an increase in body weight and BMI that occurred between NHANES III and the previous national surveys (17). The 2000 CDC Growth Charts include percentiles and z scores for height, weight, weight-for-height, head circumference and BMI, but not skinfold thickness. Thus, Addo and Himes published reference curves for triceps and subscapular skinfold thicknesses (12) and, more recently, Addo et al. developed reference curves for mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC), arm muscle area (AMA) and arm fat area (AFA) for US children and adolescents aged 1-20 years (18). In both studies, data of the

2000 CDC BMI references were used in a nearly identical sample of children not exposed to the obesogenic environment of previous decades. These references provided an important new complementary assessment tool for the interpretation of subcutaneous fat and muscle measures of the arm (12,18).

In a previous collaborative multicentric study conducted between 2003 and 2008, weight and height were measured in a sample of 18,698 children aged 3-13 years living in six provinces of Argentina (Buenos Aires, Catamarca, Chubut, Jujuy, La Pampa and Mendoza) (19). Later, percentiles of weight-for-age and height-for-age were obtained with the LMS method and compared with the WHO and the Argentinean References. The results obtained indicated that children were taller and heavier as compared with the national and international references and that the observed differences in weight-for-age percentiles particularly reflected the effect of the obesity epidemic on Argentinean school-children (20).

The obesogenic environment typical of the last decades may have induced secular changes in MUAC measurement. Further, information of the Argentine population before the obesity pandemic is missing. Thus, the aim of this study was to compare MUAC and the derived measures AMA and AFA in boys and girls aged 4-14 years from Argentina with the reference curves developed for US children and adolescents based on data collected 50 and 25 years ago.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

POPULATION

Data were collected in public schools between 2003 and 2010. The study sample consisted of 22,736 school-children aged 4.0 to 14.0 years (11,397 boys; 11,339 girls) from six provinces of the five sanitary regions of Argentina, namely: a) Northwest (n = 2,641), provinces of Catamarca (cities of San Fernando del Valle de Catamarca and El Peñón) and Jujuy (cities of San Salvador de Jujuy, Susques, Fraile Pintado and Humahuaca); b) Northeast (n = 2,206), province of Misiones (Aristóbulo del Valle); c) Center (n = 8,420), province of Buenos Aires (cities of La Plata, Brandsen, Magdalena and Punta Indio); d) Cuyo (n = 6,652), province of Mendoza (cities of General Alvear and San Rafael); and e) South (n = 2,817), province of Chubut (Puerto Madryn). The study regions and their demographic, economic, social and environmental characteristics are shown in table I. Sample selection was nonprobabilistic and largely determined by voluntary participation in the study. No cases of chronic diseases or pathological conditions were present among the individuals surveyed.

ETHICS STATEMENT

The study aims and procedures were explained during meetings held at each participating school. Informed consent was obtained from the children's parents or guardians.

Table I. Demographic, economic and social indicators of the regions analyzed

Region	Province*	Department†	City	Population (inhabitants)†	Population density (inhabitant/km²)†	Households below poverty and indigence lines		Infant mortality rate (1/1,000)*	Children (0-14 years) without health insurance (%)†
						Poverty (%)‡	Indigence (%)‡		
North West	Jujuy	Dr. Manuel Belgrano	San Salvador de Jujuy	233,754	124.2				52.5
		Susques	Susques	3,628	0.4				74.1
		Ledesma	Fraile Pintado	75,716	23.3	44.8	57.3	18.4	57.3
		Humahuaca	Humahuaca	16,765	4.4				59.6
North East	Catamarca	Capital	San Fernando del Valle de Catamarca	141,260	206.5	28.6	36.9	15.5	45.6
		Antofagasta de la Sierra	El Peñón	1,282	0.05				50.2
Cuyo	Mendoza	Caingúas	Aristóbulo del Valle	47,271	29.4	42.8	53.8	19.6	64.6
		General Alvear	General Alvear	44,147	3.1	27.8	36.7	12.1	64.3
Center	Buenos Aires	San Rafael	San Rafael	173,571	5.6				57.2
		Brandesen	Coronel Brandesen	22,515	19.9				49.9
		La Plata	La Plata	574,369	620.3	25.5	35.4	15	45.6
		Magdalena	Magdalena	16,603	8.9				45.8
South	Chubut	Punta Indio	Punta Indio	9,362	5.8				37.8
		Biedma	Puerto Madryn	58,677	4.5	20.1	24.2	13.1	39.2

*Data refer to province. †Data refer to departamental political division (department). ‡Data refer to urban conglomerates.

In addition, children's oral assent was obtained and only those who agreed were included in the study.

This research was conducted in accordance with the principles proclaimed in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the ethical standards instituted by the Nuremberg Code (1947), the Declaration of Helsinki (1964) and its subsequent amendments and clarifications, and national law 25326 (Law 26343/08) and its amendments, regulations and rules for the protection of personal data.

This study was approved by the Bioethics Committee of the Latin American School of Bioethics for the provinces of Buenos Aires, Chubut, Mendoza and Misiones; the Bioethics Committee of the Hospital Escuela Interzonal "San Juan Bautista", Catamarca; and the Bioethics Committee of the Province of Jujuy.

ANTHROPOMETRIC MEASUREMENTS

Anthropometric measurements were taken using standardized protocols (21) by research team members specially trained in these techniques. Intra- and inter-observer technical errors of measurement (< 5%) were calculated before measuring to ensure measurement standardization (22).

The following variables were recorded: age (y), obtained from the children's identification cards or school records; MUAC (cm) on the left arm midway between the acromion and olecranon processes of the ulna, using a non-stretchable measuring tape (Seca®, 1 mm accuracy); and triceps skinfold thickness (TS, cm) on the left side of the body using a constant pressure caliper (Lange®, 1 mm accuracy). The derived AMA and AFA measures were calculated following (23):

$$\begin{aligned}AMA &= \{[MUAC - (\pi \times TS)]^2 / [4 \times \pi]\} \\ \text{Total arm area (TAA)} &= [(MUAC)^2 / (4 \times \pi)] \\ AFA &= (TAA - AMA)\end{aligned}$$

STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Raw data dispersion was analyzed using ± 4 standard deviations (SD), eliminating 42 cases from the total (0.18%). This cutoff value criterion is similar to the one used by Alfaro et al. (24). Data were grouped by sex and age groups.

The generalized additive models for location, scale, and shape (GAMLSS) were used to calculate MUAC, AMA and AFA curves, following Stasinopoulos et al. (25). The semiparametric maximum likelihood method was used to estimate smoothed growth curves that could be summarized by the median (*M*), generalized coefficient of variation (*S*) and Box-Cox power for skew (*L*) (18). Locally weighted splines were used to smooth across age and obtain final fitted objective functions to calculate percentiles. Statistical and visual diagnostic tools (worm plots, residual, Owen D-trend plots and examination of the percentile of smoothed curves that were superimposed on the empirical data) were also used to choose the final GAMLSS. All analyses were conducted with the R 3.2.0 software (The R Foundation for Statistical Computing).

Percentage differences (PD%) were calculated in percentiles 3, 50 and 97 by comparing the values of the US reference population (R) (18) with those of our Argentinean sample (Sa):

$$PD\% = \{[(R - Sa) / R] \times 100\}$$

RESULTS

Values and PD% of MUAC, AMA and AFA for R and Sa in percentiles 3, 50 and 97 of 4-14 year-old boys and girls are shown in tables II-IV.

Figures 1-3 show *M*, *S* and *L* values of MUAC, AMA and AFA, respectively, as well as *M* values of R.

In general, our results showed that *M* values in Sa were greater or lesser than in R, depending on the variable analyzed. Thus, MUAC and AMA curves in boys and girls indicated that *M* values in R were higher than in Sa at all ages (Figs. 1 and 2). Conversely, in AFA curves of both sexes, *M* values were lower in R compared with Sa. In all cases, R values were outside the confidence limits of Sa (Fig. 3).

According to the PD% formula, discrepancies between R and Sa values have a plus sign (+) when the R value is greater than the Sa one, and a minus sign (-) when the opposite occurs. Thereby, MUAC and AMA values of Sa in percentiles 3, 50 and 97 were lesser than those of R in both sexes. Such difference increased with age (Tables II and IV). On the other hand, PD% AFA values in percentiles 3 and 50 were negative in boys and girls aged 4.0 to 14.0 years, while in percentile 97, such values were negative in boys from 4.0 to 14.0 years and girls from 4.0 to 9.0 years (Table III).

DISCUSSION

Several anthropometric parameters have been recently used to complement the BMI-based estimation of nutritional status. Field measurements of MUAC have been used to rapidly identify young children with undernutrition who are at high risk of near-term mortality, especially under emergency situations such as famine or refugee crises (26). On the other hand, various pediatric researchers have attempted to use such measure to screen for overweight and obesity in children and adolescents (27,28). Also, mid-upper arm muscle and fat areas are useful monitoring, evaluation and clinical management alternatives that should be considered for application in different settings (18).

In this study, smoothed percentile curves for MUAC and the derived measures AMA and AFA in healthy Argentinean children and adolescents aged 4-14 years are presented. Thus, this is the first study that considers a large sample of school-children from several provinces, becoming representative of the geographical and sociocultural diversity of our country (19,20).

Our study sample is based on multiethnic groups, the same as that used by Addo et al. (18) to develop the US reference ranges for upper arm circumference.

Table II. Percentage differences (PD%) in midupper arm circumference (MUAC) values for the reference (R) and the study sample (Sa)

Age (years)	Percentile 3			Percentile 50			Percentile 97		
	R (cm)	Sa (cm)	DP (%)	R (cm)	Sa (cm)	DP (%)	R (cm)	Sa (cm)	DP (%)
Boys									
4.0	14.80	14.70	0.65	17.06	16.81	1.45	20.60	20.46	0.67
4.5	14.90	14.83	0.46	15.28	16.99	1.72	21.00	20.87	0.64
5.0	15.10	14.95	1.00	17.49	17.15	1.94	21.50	21.27	1.05
5.5	15.10	15.03	0.47	17.63	17.29	1.96	21.90	21.65	1.13
6.0	15.10	15.07	0.17	17.70	17.39	1.75	22.30	21.99	1.39
6.5	15.10	15.12	-0.16	17.82	17.51	1.75	22.70	22.35	1.54
7.0	15.30	15.22	0.51	18.10	17.70	2.23	23.30	22.81	2.08
7.5	15.50	15.38	0.80	18.43	17.96	2.56	24.10	23.42	2.84
8.0	15.70	15.58	0.77	18.82	18.29	2.82	24.90	24.12	3.13
8.5	15.90	15.82	0.52	19.20	18.67	2.72	25.70	24.89	3.15
9.0	16.10	16.07	0.20	19.59	19.09	2.54	26.50	25.68	3.10
9.5	16.30	16.30	-0.02	20.02	19.51	2.55	27.30	26.44	3.17
10.0	16.60	16.51	0.51	20.48	19.91	2.77	28.20	27.12	3.84
10.5	16.90	16.72	1.06	20.89	20.30	2.83	28.90	27.72	4.09
11.0	17.10	16.92	1.08	21.36	20.68	3.18	29.50	28.23	4.32
11.5	17.50	17.10	2.26	21.86	21.04	3.74	30.20	28.65	5.14
12.0	17.90	17.33	3.21	22.42	21.42	4.46	30.90	29.05	6.00
12.5	18.30	17.59	3.90	23.02	21.85	5.10	31.50	29.42	6.59
13.0	18.80	17.88	4.88	23.69	22.31	5.81	32.20	29.78	7.51
13.5	19.40	18.21	6.12	24.41	22.82	6.54	32.90	30.12	8.45
14.0	20.10	18.55	7.70	25.15	23.34	7.20	33.60	30.46	9.34
Girls									
4.0	14.50	14.74	-1.67	16.99	17.02	-0.20	20.70	20.74	-0.20
4.5	14.70	14.77	-0.47	17.25	17.12	0.73	21.20	20.98	1.06
5.0	14.80	14.79	0.04	17.47	17.23	1.42	21.70	21.22	2.20
5.5	14.90	14.82	0.56	17.67	17.33	1.90	22.20	21.49	3.20
6.0	14.90	14.85	0.32	17.78	17.45	1.84	22.70	21.78	4.04
6.5	14.90	14.92	-0.15	17.89	17.61	1.60	23.10	22.14	4.15
7.0	14.90	15.06	-1.10	18.14	17.84	1.64	23.70	22.64	4.46
7.5	15.10	15.25	-1.02	18.47	18.14	1.79	24.40	23.28	4.60
8.0	15.30	15.46	-1.06	18.90	18.48	2.25	25.30	23.99	5.18
8.5	15.60	15.70	-0.64	19.39	18.85	2.76	26.20	24.75	5.55
9.0	15.90	15.95	-0.32	19.88	19.25	3.20	27.10	25.47	6.02
9.5	16.10	16.19	-0.56	20.29	19.62	3.27	27.80	26.08	6.17
10.0	16.40	16.42	-0.14	20.69	19.99	3.38	28.50	26.61	6.64
10.5	16.70	16.67	0.16	21.13	20.38	3.55	29.10	27.08	6.93
11.0	17.10	16.96	0.82	21.64	20.81	3.87	29.90	27.53	7.92
11.5	17.50	17.28	1.24	22.21	21.27	4.25	30.70	27.94	8.99
12.0	18.00	17.65	1.95	22.85	21.76	4.77	31.50	28.34	10.03
12.5	18.50	18.05	2.41	23.47	22.27	5.12	32.30	28.75	11.00
13.0	19.00	18.48	2.75	24.01	22.77	5.15	33.00	29.14	11.69
13.5	19.40	18.91	2.52	24.45	23.25	4.90	33.50	29.54	11.89
14.0	19.80	19.35	2.27	24.83	23.71	4.49	33.90	29.88	11.86

Table III. Percentage differences (PD%) in arm fat area (AFA) values for the reference (R)
and the study sample (Sa)

Age (years)	Percentile 3			Percentile 50			Percentile 97		
	R (cm ²)	Sa (cm ²)	DP (%)	R (cm ²)	Sa (cm ²)	DP (%)	R (cm ²)	Sa (cm ²)	DP (%)
Boys									
4.0	3.90	4.91	-26.02	6.86	8.20	-19.52	13.50	15.45	-14.48
4.5	3.80	4.77	-25.47	6.84	8.16	-19.27	14.00	16.12	-15.12
5.0	3.70	4.62	-24.85	6.77	8.11	-19.85	14.40	16.86	-17.10
5.5	3.60	4.45	-23.52	6.66	8.03	-20.57	14.70	17.61	-19.82
6.0	3.40	4.24	-24.66	6.54	7.87	-20.50	15.10	18.28	-21.06
6.5	3.40	4.06	-19.27	6.52	7.77	-19.10	15.70	19.06	-21.38
7.0	3.40	3.96	-16.38	6.69	7.83	-17.10	16.90	20.21	-19.59
7.5	3.40	3.95	-16.24	6.91	8.07	-16.79	18.20	21.81	-19.86
8.0	3.50	4.02	-14.85	7.23	8.47	-17.25	19.80	23.72	-19.80
8.5	3.50	4.14	-18.17	7.53	8.98	-19.29	21.50	25.77	-19.88
9.0	3.60	4.28	-19.00	7.90	9.58	-21.29	23.40	27.87	-19.12
9.5	3.80	4.43	-16.69	8.40	10.19	-21.21	25.70	29.89	-16.32
10.0	3.90	4.57	-17.17	8.96	10.77	-20.19	28.20	31.69	-12.36
10.5	4.00	4.68	-17.04	9.44	11.30	-19.69	30.40	33.15	-9.04
11.0	4.10	4.76	-16.22	9.86	11.71	-18.69	32.50	34.30	-5.55
11.5	4.20	4.81	-14.55	10.17	11.97	-17.73	34.10	35.11	-2.97
12.0	4.20	4.83	-14.96	10.29	12.09	-17.58	35.00	35.65	-1.85
12.5	4.10	4.82	-17.46	10.23	12.09	-18.23	35.20	35.90	-2.00
13.0	4.10	4.78	-16.65	10.14	11.99	-18.27	35.20	35.94	-2.09
13.5	4.10	4.75	-15.76	10.10	11.85	-17.24	35.30	35.77	-1.33
14.0	4.10	4.72	-15.09	10.11	11.70	-15.67	35.40	35.49	-0.27
Girls									
4.0	4.00	5.44	-36.04	7.48	9.23	-23.34	14.70	17.01	-15.74
4.5	4.10	5.24	-27.76	7.60	9.14	-20.23	15.50	17.39	-12.18
5.0	4.10	5.04	-22.82	7.69	9.06	-17.82	16.30	17.82	-9.32
5.5	4.00	4.83	-20.83	7.78	8.99	-15.55	17.20	18.31	-6.44
6.0	4.00	4.64	-15.90	7.78	8.93	-14.81	17.80	18.84	-5.82
6.5	3.90	4.47	-14.68	7.79	8.94	-14.70	18.50	19.51	-5.46
7.0	3.80	4.41	-15.97	8.04	9.14	-13.68	19.80	20.67	-4.40
7.5	3.90	4.43	-13.66	8.39	9.53	-13.58	21.30	22.36	-4.97
8.0	3.90	4.52	-15.92	8.90	10.04	-12.84	23.30	24.33	-4.43
8.5	4.10	4.69	-14.46	9.55	10.65	-11.48	25.70	26.46	-2.97
9.0	4.30	4.93	-14.60	10.24	11.27	-10.13	28.20	28.46	-0.93
9.5	4.40	5.14	-16.93	10.73	11.79	-9.89	30.20	29.94	0.86
10.0	4.50	5.31	-18.02	11.17	12.21	-9.32	31.90	30.92	3.06
10.5	4.60	5.45	-18.37	11.61	12.60	-8.53	33.60	31.73	5.56
11.0	4.70	5.57	-18.51	12.10	13.01	-7.53	35.30	32.51	7.90
11.5	4.70	5.70	-21.37	12.59	13.46	-6.95	36.80	33.23	9.71
12.0	4.80	5.87	-22.24	13.15	13.96	-6.20	38.40	33.92	11.66
12.5	5.00	6.07	-21.41	13.78	14.52	-5.34	40.10	34.62	13.66
13.0	5.10	6.31	-23.81	14.50	15.08	-4.03	41.90	35.22	15.95
13.5	5.40	6.59	-22.07	15.24	15.60	-2.37	43.70	35.57	18.61
14.0	5.60	6.89	-23.05	16.02	16.08	-0.34	45.40	35.75	21.25

Table IV. Percentage differences (PD%) in arm muscle area (AMA) values for the reference (R) and the study sample (Sa)

Age (years)	Percentile 3			Percentile 50			Percentile 97		
	R (cm ²)	Sa (cm ²)	DP (%)	R (cm ²)	Sa (cm ²)	DP (%)	R (cm ²)	Sa (cm ²)	DP (%)
Boys									
4.0	11.90	10.64	10.59	16.21	14.31	11.75	22.20	19.41	12.55
4.5	12.30	10.94	11.03	16.83	14.83	11.87	23.20	20.25	12.70
5.0	12.80	11.22	12.31	17.45	15.34	12.06	24.30	21.07	13.28
5.5	13.10	11.45	12.58	17.98	15.79	12.17	25.30	21.82	13.77
6.0	13.30	11.63	12.59	18.35	16.18	11.85	26.10	22.48	13.87
6.5	13.50	11.78	12.76	18.68	16.54	11.42	26.80	23.14	13.65
7.0	13.80	11.96	13.34	19.17	16.97	11.50	27.70	23.93	13.62
7.5	14.30	12.20	14.72	19.93	17.47	12.33	28.90	24.88	13.89
8.0	14.80	12.48	15.66	20.79	18.01	13.40	30.20	25.94	14.12
8.5	15.30	12.85	16.00	21.62	18.59	14.01	31.60	27.10	14.23
9.0	15.80	13.28	15.96	22.41	19.23	14.19	33.00	28.38	14.01
9.5	16.30	13.72	15.85	23.21	19.90	14.25	34.60	29.70	14.15
10.0	16.80	14.10	16.04	24.06	20.58	14.48	36.30	31.05	14.46
10.5	17.30	14.45	16.46	24.98	21.27	14.84	38.20	32.45	15.06
11.0	17.80	14.78	16.98	26.02	22.02	15.36	40.30	33.91	15.86
11.5	18.50	15.13	18.22	27.31	22.89	16.18	42.60	35.56	16.53
12.0	19.40	15.56	19.81	29.01	23.99	17.29	45.40	37.52	17.35
12.5	20.50	16.04	21.74	31.17	25.36	18.62	48.70	39.78	18.32
13.0	21.90	16.60	24.22	33.71	26.96	20.01	52.30	42.31	19.10
13.5	23.40	17.14	26.74	36.53	28.71	21.41	55.90	45.01	19.47
14.0	25.20	17.57	30.27	39.45	30.52	22.63	59.50	47.78	19.69
Girls									
4.0	10.90	10.02	8.07	15.44	13.93	9.76	20.90	18.89	9.60
4.5	11.30	10.19	9.82	16.08	14.25	11.42	21.90	19.43	11.30
5.0	11.60	10.37	10.61	16.67	14.57	12.57	22.80	19.98	12.35
5.5	11.80	10.57	10.46	17.16	14.91	13.13	23.60	20.59	12.77
6.0	11.90	10.80	9.28	17.43	15.26	12.43	24.10	21.26	11.78
6.5	11.90	11.06	7.02	17.68	15.64	11.53	24.60	22.01	10.52
7.0	12.10	11.36	6.08	18.15	16.06	11.48	25.50	22.86	10.36
7.5	12.50	11.63	6.95	18.78	16.48	12.23	26.60	23.73	10.78
8.0	12.90	11.88	7.94	19.56	16.92	13.47	28.00	24.68	11.85
8.5	13.40	12.14	9.38	20.37	17.44	14.38	29.40	25.77	12.36
9.0	13.90	12.43	10.55	21.21	18.01	15.09	30.90	26.94	12.82
9.5	14.30	12.77	10.70	21.95	18.63	15.10	32.30	28.17	12.78
10.0	14.80	13.20	10.81	22.77	19.34	15.06	33.80	29.55	12.57
10.5	15.50	13.73	11.40	23.81	20.16	15.32	35.60	31.08	12.68
11.0	16.40	14.34	12.53	25.14	21.11	16.03	37.80	32.71	13.46
11.5	17.40	14.98	13.92	26.67	22.16	16.92	40.10	34.28	14.51
12.0	18.60	15.62	16.00	28.33	23.28	17.85	42.60	35.81	15.94
12.5	19.70	16.29	17.33	29.89	24.44	18.22	44.80	37.33	16.66
13.0	20.60	16.97	17.61	31.12	25.63	17.64	46.40	38.88	16.20
13.5	21.40	17.69	17.34	32.05	26.85	16.23	47.60	40.50	14.91
14.0	21.90	18.43	15.86	32.70	28.07	14.16	48.40	42.15	12.91

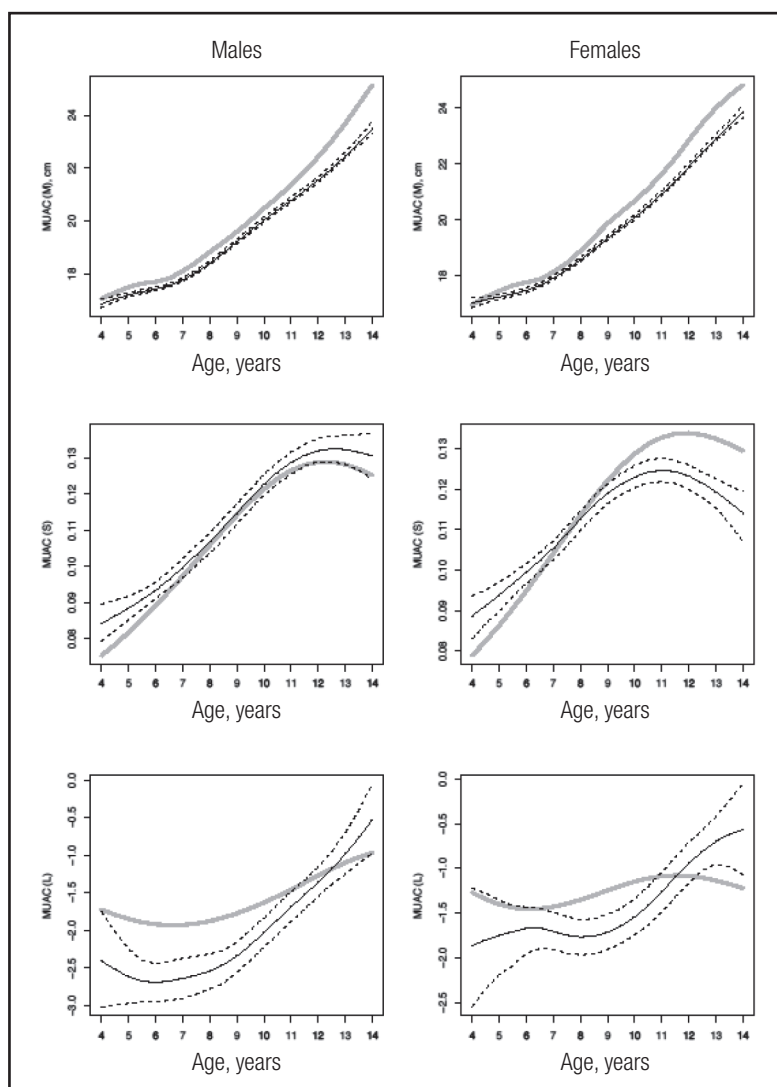


Figure 1.

Comparison of median (M), generalized coefficient of variation (S) and Box-Cox power for skew (L) values of mid-upper arm circumference for age in boys and girls. Black line: Argentinean sample. Grey line: US reference.

The particular demographic and genetic background of the Argentine population involves an important, even though variable, contribution of Amerindian, European and African ancestries (29,30).

Percentiles of MUAC and AMA in the present study were comparatively lower in both sexes than those reported by Addo et al. (18). However, AFA percentile values were higher. In the latter case, besides ethnic factors, differences could be partly explained by the temporal differences between samples, since Addo et al. (18) did not include children born during the years in which obesity was recognized as a public health problem. It is known that the prevalence of obesity has increased over the past years worldwide (31,32), and Argentina was no exception (2,4,6,33,34). Also, a previous study analyzing secular changes in body composition of children from Argentina showed that childhood fat tissue increased significantly in the last three decades (35).

The results obtained in this study are consistent with the aforementioned since, on average, AFA increased 19% in boys and 11% in girls in percentile 50 with respect to the reference. Similar results were observed in the extreme percentiles 3 and 97; in the latter, while in boys the magnitude of the differences in Sa decreased from ten years, reference values in girls were greater than those of the sample. So, US obese girls had greater fat area than their Argentinean peers.

The increase in fat area did not correlate with an increase in MUAC, probably because the muscular area had lower values. According to Curilem Gatica et al. (36), evaluation of the muscular component is fundamental, due to the metabolic importance on energy expenditure and the functional capacity granted by normal muscle mass. Such importance may be similar or greater than that of fat mass. The variation of AMA in percentile 50 in both sexes was approximately 15% below the reference. This

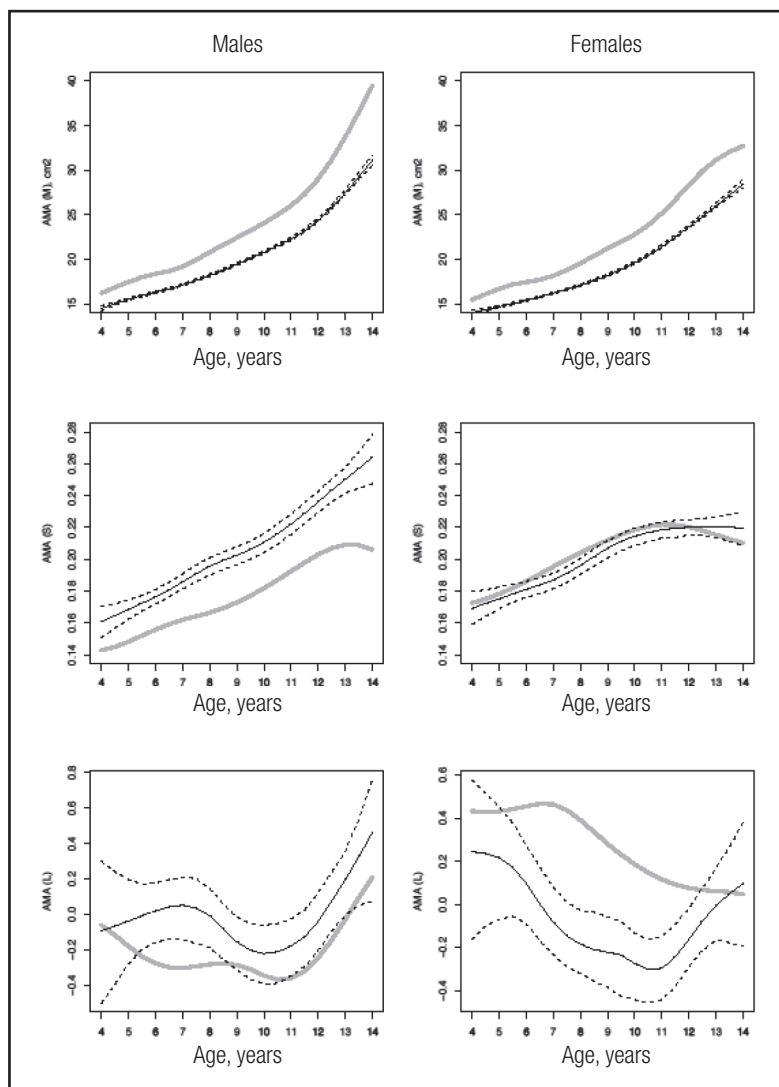


Figure 2.

Comparison of median (M), generalized coefficient of variation (S) and Box-Cox power for skew (L) values of arm muscle area for age in boys and girls. Black line: Argentinean sample. Grey line: US reference.

value was similar in percentiles 3 and 97, and slightly lower in girls.

These results might suggest that the diet eaten by Argentinean children is low in proteins and high in carbohydrates and lipids. Although we did not analyze food habits, a recent study by Zapata et al. (37) describing the changes in food and beverage consumption patterns in the last two decades would support our interpretation. The mentioned authors argued that the dietary pattern of the Argentinian population has shifted in recent years as a result of cultural changes and modifications in food accessibility. They informed a decrease in the consumption of fruits and vegetables, wheat flour, pulses, beef and milk, and an increase in the consumption of pie and pastry-filled crusts, yogurt, pork, semi-processed meat products, soft drinks, juices and ready-to-eat food. Likewise, Aguirre (38) suggested that in Argentina, a single pattern of consumption was replaced by two different

types of diets during the past decades: diet for the poor and diet for the rich. The former is based on carbohydrates, fats and sugars and is cheaper, whereas the latter is based on meat, dairy products, fruits and vegetables, is rich in micronutrients and more expensive. Therefore, children who consume diets with excessive amounts of carbohydrates and lipids but deficient in proteins are expected to present overweight or obesity and muscular deficiency, as previously reported in two Argentinean population samples (39,40).

In conclusion, our results confirm differences in upper arm anthropometry of Argentinean school-children with respect to the US reference. The higher adipose tissue and lower skeletal muscle mass observed in Argentinean children could be partly associated with the different ethnic origin of both populations. However, differences should be interpreted in the context of an obesogenic environment, which has favored a calorie-protein imbalance.

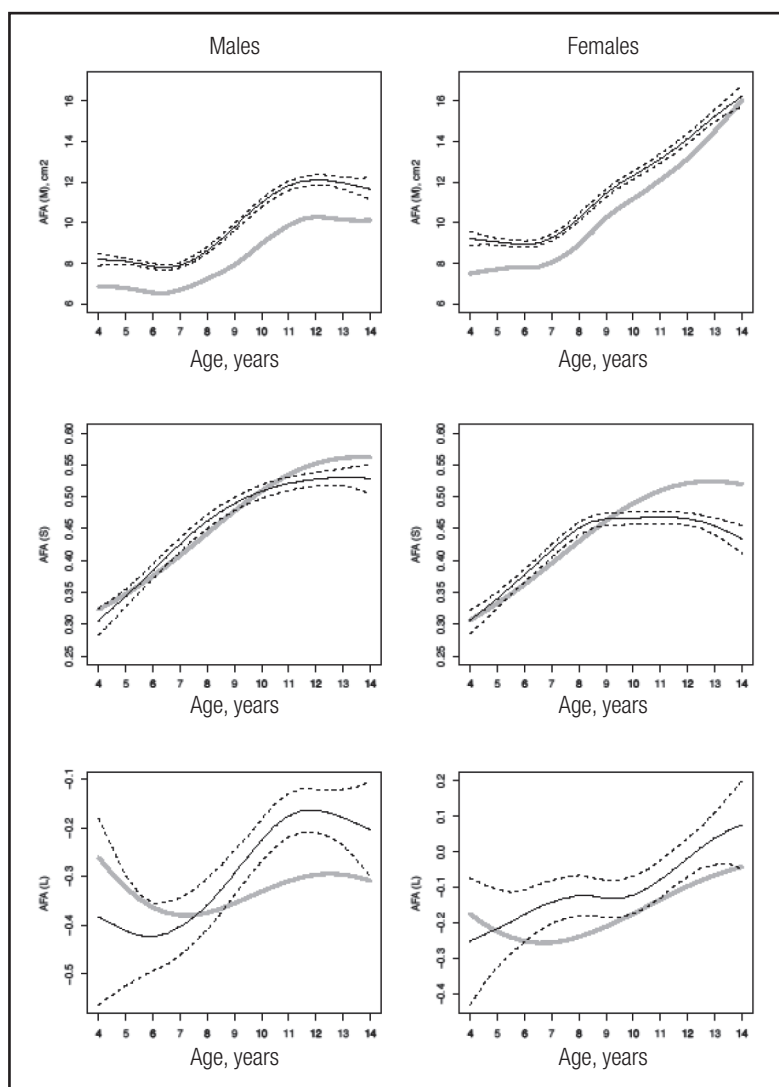


Figure 3.

Comparison of median (M), generalized coefficient of variation (S) and Box-Cox power for skew (L) values of arm fat area for age in boys and girls. Black line: Argentinean sample. Grey line: US reference.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Pediatría

Trabajo Original

Factores relacionados con la presencia de desnutrición hospitalaria en pacientes menores de cinco años en una unidad de tercer nivel

Factors related to the presence of hospital malnutrition in patients under five years old in a third level unit

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Resumen

Objetivo: identificar los factores relacionados con la presencia de desnutrición hospitalaria (DH) en pacientes menores de cinco años hospitalizados en una unidad de tercer nivel de atención.

Material y métodos: estudio de cohorte. Se incluyeron pacientes menores de cinco años de edad hospitalizados. Del expediente se identificaron la edad, el sexo, los antecedentes patológicos, el motivo de ingreso y el estado nutricional mediante el cálculo de los índices peso/edad (P/E), talla/edad (T/E) y peso/talla (P/T). El proceso de toma de somatometría completa se realizó al ingreso y se repitió en los días 2, 4 y 7 de seguimiento. La DH se definió como disminución de más de 0,25 desviaciones estándar en el índice de P/T después de siete días de hospitalización.

Resultados: se identificaron 83 pacientes. El motivo de ingreso fue patología no quirúrgica en un 77% (n = 64). El 70% (n = 58) presentaba alguna enfermedad subyacente. Al momento del ingreso, el 66% (n = 55) tenía desnutrición. Se observó una disminución progresiva del *score* Z de P/T conforme avanzó el tiempo de hospitalización (p < 0,001). Se identificó una incidencia del 67,5% de DH. Se demostró que la presencia de desnutrición al ingreso de la hospitalización aumentaba el riesgo de DH (OR 2,9, IC 95% 1,05 a 8,10, p = 0,03) y en los pacientes con desnutrición desde el ingreso una edad menor a dos años disminuía el riesgo de DH (OR 0,093, IC 95% 0,009 a 0,959, p = 0,046), mientras que alguna enfermedad subyacente aumentaba el riesgo (OR 6,34, IC 95% 1,009 a 39,89, p = 0,049).

Conclusiones: la presencia de desnutrición y antecedentes patológicos previo al ingreso fueron factores de riesgo para presentar DH.

Palabras clave:

Desnutrición. Niños hospitalizados. Factores de riesgo.

Abstract

Objective: to identify the factors related to the presence of hospital malnutrition (HM) in patients under five years of age hospitalized in a third level care unit.

Material and methods: cohort study. Patients under five years of age hospitalized were included. The record identified age, sex, pathological history, reason for admission and nutritional status by calculating weight/age (W/A), height/age (H/A) and weight/height (W/H). The entire somatometry intake process was performed upon admission, and was repeated on days 2, 4 and 7 of follow-up. The HM was defined as a decrease of more than 0.25 standard deviations in the W/H after seven days of hospitalization.

Results: eighty-three patients were identified. The reason for admission was non-surgical pathology in 77% (n = 64). Seventy per cent (n = 58) had underlying disease. At the time of admission, 66% (n = 55) presented malnutrition. A progressive decrease in the Z score of W/H was observed as hospitalization progressed (p < 0.001). An incidence of 67.5% of HM was identified. It was shown that the presence of malnutrition at admission of hospitalization increased the risk of HM (OR 2.9, 95% CI 1.05 to 8.10, p = 0.03). In patients with malnutrition from admission, an age younger than two years decreased the risk of HM (OR 0.093, 95% CI 0.009 to 0.959, p = 0.046), while the underlying disease increased the risk (OR 6.34, 95% CI 1.009 to 39.89, p = 0.049).

Conclusions: the presence of malnutrition and underlying disease prior to admission were risk factors to present HM.

Key words:

Malnutrition. Child. Hospitalized. Risk factor.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Para el pediatra, las enfermedades crónicas han constituido un problema emergente en el área de la nutrición. Esto deriva de un manejo más exitoso de patologías agudas y una mayor supervivencia de pacientes con enfermedades con alto grado de complejidad (1). Un alto porcentaje de pacientes con enfermedades crónicas cursan con hospitalizaciones prolongadas durante las cuales el estado nutricional puede variar de acuerdo a las condiciones generales con las que ingresa el paciente a hospitalización y la evolución durante esta (2).

La malnutrición se define como un estado en el cual existe deficiencia o un exceso de energía, proteínas, grasas y/o micronutrientes como vitaminas y minerales. Esta ausencia de homeostasis causa efectos adversos en los diversos órganos y tejidos del organismo. Es posible realizar la evaluación de estos efectos desde el punto de vista clínico (3).

La desnutrición hospitalaria (DH) en pediatría se ha atribuido a una mayor susceptibilidad a la desnutrición proteica-calórica asociada a periodos de ayuno, esto en virtud de su elevada velocidad de crecimiento, el alto gasto energético y la vulnerabilidad a las distintas formas de infección en comparación con un adulto (2).

De manera general, los pacientes que cursan con enfermedades que requieren hospitalización son más vulnerables a padecer desnutrición debido a varios factores: frecuentes periodos de ayuno por la enfermedad, procedimientos diagnósticos o tratamiento, incremento en el requerimiento energético y apoyo nutricional tardío. Estos factores se unen a los síntomas y manifestaciones de la enfermedad que originó la hospitalización (fiebre, sangrados, anorexia, alteraciones metabólicas), que limitan la ingestión del requerimiento, por lo que es difícil que el paciente cubra sus requerimientos, favoreciéndose la utilización y depleción de reservas de nutrimentos (4). Está ampliamente descrito que cuando el estado nutricional se deteriora durante la hospitalización es debido a un inadecuado apoyo nutricional (5).

El concepto de DH en niños se ha descrito como una pérdida de peso significativa en los pacientes hospitalizados. La DH se asocia a múltiples factores tanto al ingreso como durante la evolución (6-8). Pacheco Acosta y cols. definen el deterioro nutricional intrahospitalario como una pérdida de peso mayor o igual al 2% o bien una disminución de más de 0,25 desviaciones estándar (DE) en el índice de masa corporal (IMC) (9).

La DH en niños repercute en una peor calidad asistencial, aumento de la tasa media de estadía y tasa de reingreso hospitalario. Esta condición en el niño puede llevar asimismo al retardo del crecimiento y el desarrollo, así como a una disminución del desempeño escolar (10,11). Su prevalencia es elevada y demanda atención por parte de los profesionales de salud responsables del cuidado y la asistencia del paciente (12). Sin embargo, hasta el momento, la mayor parte de los estudios realizados sobre DH en población pediátrica han sido de tipo transversal (13-18).

Diversos estudios han documentado que entre el 20% y el 30% de los pacientes que ingresan en un hospital desarrollan desnutrición o empeoran un proceso previamente establecido (10-18). Para prevenir la DH es necesario identificar a los pacientes que

pueden desarrollarla (11). Conviene destacar que, aunque dos de los objetivos fundamentales del pediatra son la alimentación y la vigilancia del estado nutricional, la prevalencia de DH no ha disminuido en 20 años (3,18).

Es ya conocido que el paciente pediátrico puede perder hasta el 10% de su peso en una hospitalización de aproximadamente diez días, esto asociado a múltiples factores. Sin embargo, hasta el momento no existen estudios que evalúen el grado de pérdida ponderal en pacientes menores de cinco años hospitalizados en un centro de tercer nivel de atención y que pueden o no tener alguna patología crónica o aguda concomitante (17).

El objetivo del presente estudio es identificar los factores relacionados con la presencia de desnutrición hospitalaria en pacientes menores de cinco años hospitalizados en una unidad de tercer nivel de atención.

MÉTODOS

Se realizó un estudio de cohorte prospectivo. Durante el periodo de enero a abril de 2018 se identificaron lactantes y preescolares hospitalizados en el Hospital de Pediatría, Centro Médico Nacional Siglo XXI, el cual es un hospital de tercer nivel. Este hospital solo atiende a pacientes pediátricos con enfermedades graves o con alguna enfermedad subyacente enviados por otros hospitales pediátricos de segundo nivel.

Antes del inicio del estudio, el protocolo fue aprobado por la Comisión Nacional de Investigación y Ética del hospital donde se realizó el estudio (R-2018-3603-041). Para ingresar al estudio, todos los padres firmaron carta de consentimiento informado.

Se incluyeron pacientes con menos de 12 horas de hospitalización en el área de lactantes y preescolares, menores de cinco años de edad y de cualquier sexo. Se excluyeron pacientes con alguna condición que impidiera realizar la somatometría del paciente, como una sonda pleural, monitorización eléctrica permanente, marcapasos externo o intubación endotraqueal, o que no aceptaran participar en el estudio. Se eliminaron aquellos pacientes cuyas condiciones de salud impidieran realizar somatometría y aquellos en los que tuvo lugar fallecimiento o egreso antes de los siete días de seguimiento.

Se identificó a través de la hoja de ingreso hospitalaria a todo paciente menor de cinco años que hubiera ingresado a hospitalización. Del expediente clínico se tomaron los datos de edad, sexo, motivo de hospitalización y antecedentes personales patológicos. Se realizó la somatometría completa de acuerdo a la técnica establecida para la edad de acuerdo a la OMS, dentro de las primeras 24 horas del ingreso hospitalario. Se verificó la correcta calibración del equipo usado previo a cada medición (19). Se calcularon los índices peso/edad (P/E), talla/edad (T/E) y peso/talla (P/T) y el estado de nutrición. Para este cálculo, en pacientes con antecedente de prematuridad y menores de dos años se realizó ajuste a su edad corregida. Se identificó el estado de nutrición del paciente de acuerdo a las gráficas de la OMS de 2006. Posteriormente, la somatometría se realizó a los dos, cuatro y siete días de seguimiento. Todas las mediciones fueron tomadas en la

mañana, entre las 7:00 y las 8:00 a.m., y fueron efectuadas por un médico pediatra, estandarizado para realizar las mediciones.

Se consideró desnutrición cuando la relación de peso para la talla era menor de 2 DE para edad y sexo (20). La desnutrición hospitalaria se definió como disminución de más de 0,25 DE en el índice de P/T después de siete días de hospitalización (9).

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Las variables cualitativas se presentan como frecuencias simples y proporciones. En cuanto a las variables cualitativas, con la prueba de Shapiro-Wilk se demostró que tenían una distribución no paramétrica, por lo que se utilizó mediana, mínimo y máximo.

Para comparar la diferencia entre el *score* Z del P/T de los pacientes desde su ingreso hasta los siete días de seguimiento se utilizó la prueba de Wilcoxon, mientras que para comparar las diferencias entre el *score* Z del P/T al ingreso y siete días posterior a la hospitalización de acuerdo a la presencia de comorbilidades, motivo de ingreso, desnutrición y riesgo nutricional se utilizó la prueba de U de Mann-Whitney.

Se consideró significancia estadística con una $p < 0,05$. Los análisis se realizaron con el paquete estadístico Stata versión 12.0.

RESULTADOS

Se identificaron 220 pacientes menores de cinco años hospitalizados en un periodo de tres meses, de diciembre de 2017 a febrero de 2018, de los cuales 171 pacientes tenían menos de 12 horas hospitalizados. De los pacientes seleccionados se excluyeron 40: 18 pacientes ingresaron programados para algún procedimiento quirúrgico que en el periodo posquirúrgico requirieron cuidados en las unidades de terapia intensiva, motivo por el cual no se pudo continuar con la evaluación; diez pacientes tuvieron una estancia posquirúrgica menor de 24 horas; cuatro pacientes ingresaron con una enfermedad grave e inestable; y en ocho pacientes sus padres no aceptaron participar. Se incluyeron 131 pacientes. Para el segundo día de seguimiento se eliminó un paciente debido a que recibió alta por falta de tiempo quirúrgico. Entre el segundo y cuarto día se eliminaron 12 pacientes que recibieron alta por mejoría. Para el séptimo día se eliminaron 35 pacientes: 19 recibieron alta por mejoría, 14 fueron egresados para continuar su abordaje diagnóstico de forma externa y dos tuvieron que trasladarse a la unidad de cuidados intensivos pediátricos. El seguimiento de siete días se realizó en 83 pacientes (Fig. 1).

De los 83 pacientes incluidos, la mediana de la edad fue de 12 meses, con predominio del sexo femenino ($n = 46$, 55,4%) sobre el masculino ($n = 37$, 44,6%). El motivo de ingreso a hospitalización fue alguna enfermedad no quirúrgica en un 77% ($n = 64$) y el resto de pacientes que requirieron una intervención quirúrgica (Tabla I).

Hubo seis pacientes (7%) con antecedente de prematurez: el 17% ($n = 1$) tuvo una edad gestacional de 32 semanas; el 33%

($n = 2$), de 34 semanas; y el 50% ($n = 3$), de 36 semanas. A aquellos pacientes con antecedentes de prematurez que eran menores de dos años se les realizó ajuste de peso y talla para la edad gestacional corregida.

El 70% ($n = 58$) de los pacientes tenían una enfermedad subyacente y 21 pacientes tenían más de una enfermedad subyacente. Las enfermedades gastrointestinales fueron las más frecuentes, con 22 casos (30%). Para los pacientes sin enfermedades subyacentes, el motivo más común de ingreso fue el no quirúrgico en un 92% ($n = 23$), principalmente por la sospecha de enfermedades oncológicas para establecer un diagnóstico de certeza (24%, $n = 6$) (Tabla I).

Con respecto al estado de nutrición, al ingreso a hospitalización encontramos que un 34% ($n = 29$) tenía un estado nutricional normal y un 66% ($n = 54$) presentaba desnutrición.

Durante el seguimiento de los pacientes por siete días en hospitalización, el 67,5% ($n = 56$) presentó una pérdida en el puntaje del *score* Z para P/T mayor al 0,25, lo cual nos habla de desnutrición hospitalaria.

Se decidió realizar un subanálisis de acuerdo a la edad de los pacientes y estos fueron divididos en dos grupos: menores de dos años, que representaron el 65% ($n = 54$) de la muestra, y mayores de dos años, que representaron el 35% ($n = 29$). A su vez, el 72% ($n = 39$) de los pacientes menores de dos años ingresaron ya con algún grado de desnutrición y el 28% ($n = 17$) lo hicieron con estado nutricional normal. De los pacientes mayores de dos años, el 62% ($n = 18$) ingresaron ya desnutridos y el 38% ($n = 11$), con estado nutricional normal.

Se observó una disminución progresiva del *score* Z de P/T conforme avanzó el tiempo de hospitalización. Particularmente, en los menores de dos años esta diferencia fue de 0,59 DE y en los mayores de dos años fue de 0,38. Esta disminución progresiva del *score* Z de P/T tuvo significancia estadística (Fig. 2).

En el grupo de pacientes mayores de dos años, dos (7%) pacientes ingresados con estado nutricional normal tuvieron una disminución de peso hasta llegar a desnutrición.

Se analizó la pérdida porcentual de peso, donde se halló que a los siete días de seguimiento el 71% ($n = 59$) presentó una pérdida mayor o igual al 2% de su peso al ingreso y que incluso el 28% ($n = 23$) presentó un descenso de peso mayor o igual al 5%. Del grupo de pacientes que presentaron una pérdida porcentual de peso mayor o igual al 5%, observamos que el 74% ($n = 17$) eran menores de dos años.

Un alto porcentaje de pacientes ya presentaban desnutrición desde su ingreso. Se realizó un análisis del comportamiento del *score* Z de P/T en los pacientes que ingresaron con un estado nutricional normal ($n = 29$) y se encontró que del primero al séptimo día de hospitalización hubo una pérdida de *score* Z de P/T de -0,33, con significancia estadística (Fig. 3).

En la tabla II podemos observar a los pacientes que perdieron peso durante la estancia hospitalaria. Al dividirlos de acuerdo a la presencia de desnutrición al ingreso de la hospitalización, no hubo diferencias en la pérdida de peso; sin embargo, cuando se analizó la disminución del *score* Z del P/T, el descenso fue significativamente mayor en los pacientes con desnutrición al ingreso

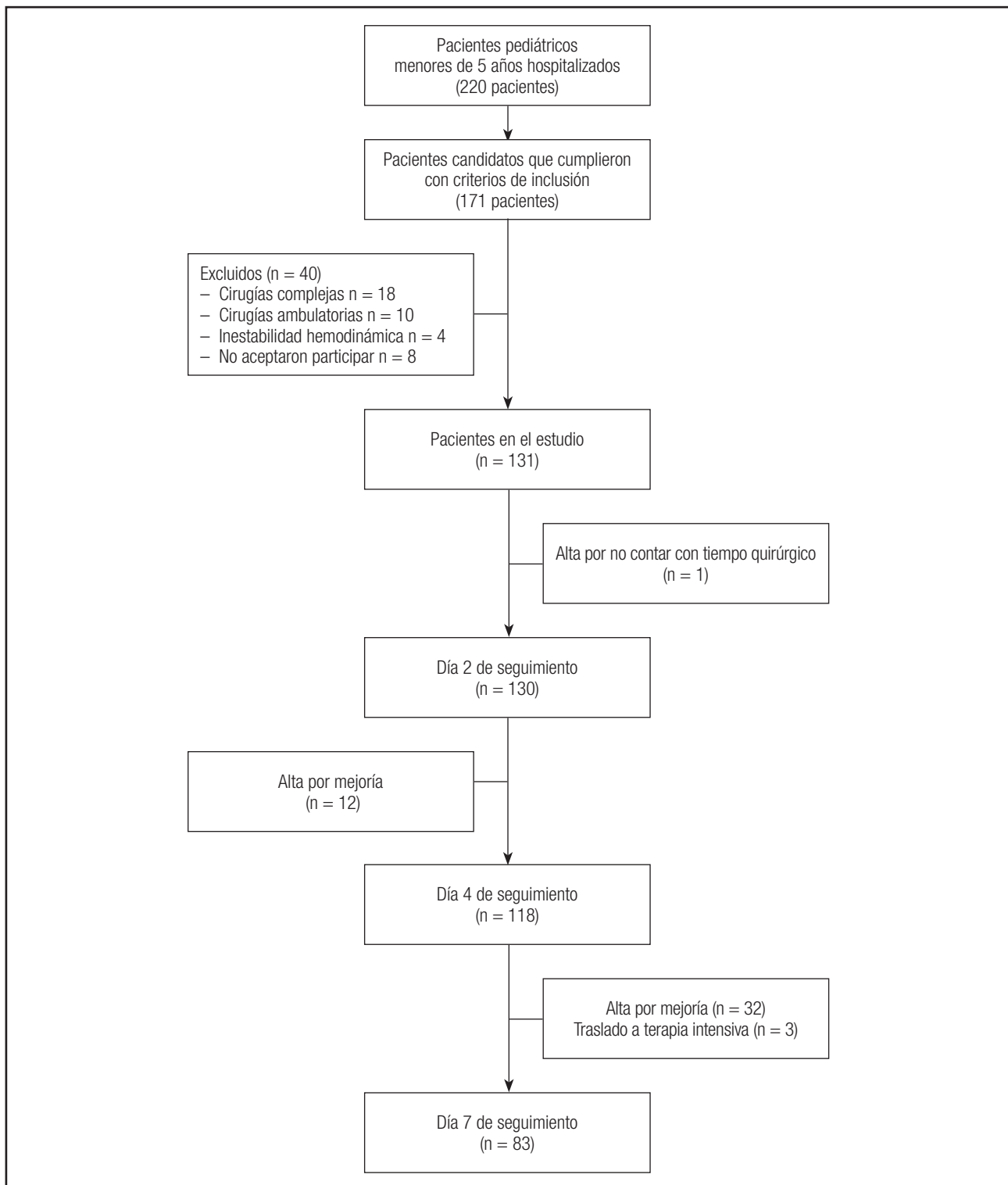


Figura 1.

de la hospitalización en comparación con los que no presentaban desnutrición (Tabla II).

Se calculó la diferencia del *score* Z de P/T al ingreso y siete días después de la hospitalización, identificando una mediana de -0,43

DE (min. -3,29, máx. 0,63). Para identificar algunas condiciones que pudieran aumentar la pérdida en el *score* Z de P/T a los siete días de estancia hospitalaria, se dividió a los pacientes de acuerdo a la presencia de comorbilidades, motivo de ingreso (no

Tabla I. Características generales de 83 pacientes que ingresaron al hospital de pediatría

		n = 83
		Frecuencia (%)
Edad (meses) *		12 (0-59)
Sexo	Femenino	46 (55,4)
	Masculino	37 (44,6)
Enfermedad subyacente	Sí	58 (70)
	No	25 (30)
Peso al nacer (kg)*		3,18 (0,98-4,8)
Tipo de enfermedad subyacente	Gastrointestinales	22 (30)
	Cardiovasculares	11 (16)
	Neurológicos	9 (13)
	Urológicos	7 (10)
	Oncológicos	7 (10)
	Otros [†]	15 (21)
Motivo de ingreso	Quirúrgico	19 (23)
	No quirúrgico	64 (77)
Motivo de ingreso a hospitalización de pacientes con enfermedad subyacente (n = 58)	Enfermedades infecciosas	19 (23)
	Protocolos de abordaje diagnóstico-terapéutico	10 (13)
	Enfermedades gastrointestinales	6 (7,2)
	Enfermedades respiratorias	3 (3,6)
	Otras	5 (6)
	Quirúrgico	15 (18)
Motivo de ingreso a hospitalización de los pacientes sin enfermedad subyacente (n = 25)	Tumores sólidos en estudio	6 (7,2)
	Enfermedades hematológicas en estudio	5 (6)
	Enfermedades gastrointestinales	4 (5)
	Enfermedades infecciosas	3 (3,6)
	Otras	4 (5)
	Quirúrgico	2 (2,4)

*Mediana (min.-máx.). [†]Otras: respiratorias (n = 3), síndromes dismórficos (n = 3), renales (n = 2), infecciosas (n = 2), inmunológicas (n = 2), hematológicas (n = 2), malformaciones musculoesqueléticas (n = 1).

Tabla II. Pérdida de peso y score Z del P/T en los pacientes a siete días de hospitalización y su comparación entre aquellos con y sin desnutrición al ingreso hospitalario

	Todos n = 83	Desnutrición		p
		Sin n = 29	Con n = 54	
Mediana (min.-máx.)				
Peso (g)	-200 (-1,980 a 300)	-150 (-900 a 300)	-235 (-1,980 a 210)	0,19
Score Z P/T	-0,43 (-3,29 a 0,63)	-0,26 (-1,05 a 0,59)	-0,55 (-3,29 a 0,63)	0,005

quirúrgico y quirúrgico), edad menor o mayor a dos años y grado de desnutrición al ingreso de la hospitalización. De acuerdo a los resultados observados en la tabla III, la presencia de enfermedad subyacente (p = 0,01) y la presencia de desnutrición al ingreso

(p = 0,005) tuvieron significancia estadística. Esto no fue así para el motivo de ingreso, la edad menor o mayor de dos años y la presencia de desnutrición al ingreso de la hospitalización, aunque sí podemos identificar una tendencia (Tabla III).

Tabla III. Comparación de la diferencia entre el *score Z* del P/T al ingreso y siete días posterior a la hospitalización de acuerdo a la presencia de comorbilidades, motivo de ingreso, desnutrición y riesgo nutricional

Factores relacionados		Mediana (min.-máx.)	p
Enfermedad subyacente	Sí (n = 58)	-0,52 (-3,2 a 0,6)	0,01
	No (n = 25)	-0,28 (-0,9 a 0,2)	
Edad	< 2 años (n = 54)	-0,46 (-3,29 a 0,63)	0,95
	> 2 años (n = 29)	-0,41 (-1,05 a 0,17)	
Motivo de ingreso	No quirúrgico (n = 63)	-0,41 (-1,7 a 0,6)	0,10
	Quirúrgico (n = 20)	-0,57 (-3,2 a 0,24)	
Desnutrición al ingreso	Sí (n = 54)	-0,55 (-3,2 a 0,6)	0,005
	No (n = 29)	-0,26 (-1,0 a 0,5)	

Se realizó un análisis multivariado para identificar los factores relacionados con la presencia de DH y se demostró que solo la presencia de desnutrición al ingreso de la hospitalización mantuvo significancia estadística (OR 2,9, IC 95% 1,05 a 8,10, $p = 0,03$) (Tabla IV).

Por otro lado, se realizó un análisis multivariado que incluía solo a los pacientes con desnutrición desde el ingreso ($n = 54$) y se demostró que aquellos con una edad menor de dos años tenían menor riesgo de presentar desnutrición hospitalaria (OR 0,093, IC 95% 0,009 a 0,959, $p = 0,046$), mientras que la presencia de alguna enfermedad subyacente aumentaba el riesgo de presentar la DH (OR 6,34, IC 95% 1,009 a 39,89, $p = 0,049$).

DISCUSIÓN

HALLAZGOS PRINCIPALES DEL ESTUDIO

La mayoría de los pacientes ingresados en este hospital presentaban algún antecedente patológico (70%). Más de la mitad de los pacientes hospitalizados desde su ingreso presentaban desnutrición (66%). En general, la mayoría de los sujetos presentaron descenso en el peso y, consecuentemente, en el *score Z* para P/T. Los pacientes con desnutrición al ingreso y antecedentes patológicos tuvieron mayor riesgo de presentar descenso en el *score Z* de P/T y el 28% de los pacientes presentaron una pérdida de peso igual o mayor al 5%.

En este estudio nos centramos en evaluar el fenómeno que ocurre en la mayoría de los niños hospitalizados en un hospital de tercer nivel, quienes, a pesar de la complejidad de sus patologías, tienen en su mayoría una estancia hospitalaria de siete días (21) y observamos una pérdida de peso desde el tercer día de estancia.

Hasta el momento, la literatura es contradictoria en cuanto al concepto de desnutrición hospitalaria. Algunos estudios la reportan como aquella desnutrición encontrada en pacientes al ingreso hospitalario (11,19,22) y otros, como la alteración del estado nutricional derivado de la hospitalización (9). Particularmente, nosotros consideramos la presencia de desnutrición hospitalaria como aquella que era derivada a la hospitalización.

La desnutrición presente al momento del ingreso hospitalario se ha descrito con diferentes prevalencias a lo largo del mundo, dependiendo de si se trata de un país desarrollado o en vías de desarrollo. En países industrializados la prevalencia es menor; por ejemplo, en Canadá se reportó una prevalencia de desnutrición en niños del 8,8%. Específicamente en el grupo de menores de cinco años se encontró desnutrición aguda en el 6,9% y desnutrición crónica en un 13,4% (23). En España, en 2016 se reportó una prevalencia de desnutrición del 8,2%, que fue más alta en el grupo de lactantes/preescolares, con un 9,6% (24). En países en desarrollo las prevalencias de desnutrición al ingreso son mucho más altas. En Brasil se ha descrito una prevalencia de desnutrición de hasta el 48,1% (12). En nuestro estudio encontramos la presencia de desnutrición en el 66% de los pacientes. Esto se debe a que se trata de un hospital de tercer nivel, donde se atiende a pacientes con patologías graves y crónicas y en muchas ocasiones los pacientes tienen uno o más antecedentes patológicos; en nuestra población se detectaron en el 70% de los casos. Las principales enfermedades que se encontraron en la población fueron patologías gastrointestinales (reflujo gastroesofágico, síndrome de intestino corto, malformaciones gastrointestinales) y cardiovasculares (cardiopatías congénitas), lo que conlleva en sí mismo un riesgo nutricional elevado (25). Otro hecho que podría explicar este nivel tan alto de desnutrición es que, al ser un hospital de referencia, muchos pacientes cuentan con antecedente de hospitalización previa en alguna otra unidad de atención previo a su ingreso a esta unidad (8).

Con respecto al criterio de desnutrición hospitalaria, que fue definido como el descenso de 0,25 DE en el índice P/T, identificamos que el 67% de los pacientes lo presentaron. Este porcentaje es muy alto comparado con lo descrito por Pacheco Acosta y cols., quienes realizaron un estudio prospectivo en Colombia que incluía a 200 niños menores de cinco años y en el cual identificaron que el 20% de los pacientes lo presentaban. Esta diferencia se debe a que en nuestro estudio no se excluyó a los pacientes con patología crónica (9).

Con respecto a los factores relacionados con la DH, confirmamos que la presencia de desnutrición al ingreso es un factor importante. La falta de documentación de un estado nutricional

Tabla IV. Regresión logística para identificar factores de riesgo para la presencia de desnutrición hospitalaria a siete días de seguimiento en 83 pacientes pediátricos menores de cinco años de edad

Factores relacionados	OR	Intervalo de confianza 95%	p
Antecedentes patológicos	1,04	0,31 a 3,52	0,94
Edad < 2 años	0,47	0,16 a 1,41	0,18
Motivo de ingreso no quirúrgico	2,8	0,75 a 11,72	0,11
Desnutrición al ingreso	2,9	1,05 a 8,10	0,03

deficiente conlleva a un mayor deterioro debido a que los pacientes no son evaluados por expertos en nutrición y el aporte nutricional calculado no compensa la deficiencia que ya tienen (26). El otro factor que nosotros identificamos son los antecedentes médicos patológicos y procedimientos médicos, que se ha observado que pueden provocar una ingesta calórica inadecuada (27).

Es importante mencionar que, independientemente del estado de nutrición al ingreso, los pacientes tuvieron descenso en el peso y, consecuentemente, en el *score* Z para P/T a lo largo de su hospitalización, lo cual indica que la hospitalización por sí sola impacta sobre el estado nutricional de los pacientes pediátricos.

Por otro lado, existen estudios que refieren que la etapa de lactante es un factor de riesgo importante para presentar desnutrición hospitalaria. Beser y cols. encontraron que de los pacientes que se encontraron al ingreso con un índice P/T menor de -2 DE, el 75% eran menores de dos años (2,28). En nuestro estudio confirmamos que el grupo de pacientes menores de dos años presentó una mayor pérdida de *score* Z de P/T en comparación con aquellos mayores de dos años.

Se debe continuar investigando otros factores que influyen en el estado nutricional, como pueden ser los días de ayuno, la cantidad y calidad de alimento aportado, el inicio temprano o tardío de apoyo nutricional parenteral en aquellos pacientes en los que la vía enteral no se encuentra disponible y los tratamientos recibidos, como es el caso de la quimioterapia, que no se incluyeron en este estudio pero que bien podrían intervenir en la desnutrición hospitalaria (11,29).

La DH tiene efectos perjudiciales sobre los pacientes. En Brasil, Waitzberg y cols. realizaron un estudio de 4,000 pacientes en el que hallaron que la incidencia de complicaciones en enfermos desnutridos fue del 27% frente a un 16,8% en aquellos con estado nutricional normal. La mortalidad en pacientes desnutridos fue del 12,4% frente al 4,7% en pacientes no desnutridos (30). La desnutrición también incrementa el tiempo de estancia y, consecuentemente, los costos derivados de la atención de salud (26,31).

Entre las principales limitaciones del estudio destaca el corto periodo de seguimiento a los pacientes (siete días), lo cual no logra ofrecer un análisis preciso del impacto de la hospitalización sobre el estado de nutrición. Por otro lado, en este estudio no se determinó el aporte calórico que los pacientes recibían durante la hospitalización, en donde se incluía la alimentación enteral y parenteral, así como los periodos de ayuno, lo cual pudo tener también influencia en el deterioro nutricional de los pacientes.

Finalmente, no se determinó si previo al ingreso los pacientes venían de su casa o de otra institución de salud, ni si se encontraban en ayuno o recibiendo alimentos, lo cual también podría influir en el número de pacientes que al ingreso ya presentaban desnutrición. Ante esto, los resultados del estudio sobre los factores relacionados con la DH no son concluyentes y deben tomarse con cautela.

Podemos concluir que dos terceras partes de los pacientes menores de cinco años de edad presentaban desnutrición al ingreso de la hospitalización y los factores de riesgo asociados a la DH fueron la presencia de alguna enfermedad subyacente y la desnutrición al ingreso.

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Trabajo Original

Nutrición en el anciano

Vitamin D concentrations among older adults according to physical disability status: NHANES 2007-2014

Concentraciones de vitamina D entre los adultos mayores de acuerdo a la discapacidad física: NHANES 2007-2014

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Abstract

Background: older adults are at increased risk of vitamin D deficiency as a result of limited sun exposure and inadequate vitamin D intake. Despite this evidence, there are scarce data regarding the concentration of 25(OH)D and its metabolites among older adults with physical disability.

Methods: the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2007-2014 data were collected to compare 25(OH)D₃, 25(OH)D₂, and total 25(OH)D concentrations among adults aged 60 years and older with and without physical disability. Moreover, general linear models adjusted for potential confounders were used to examine the independent effect of vitamin D intake, physical activity status and body mass index (BMI) categories on 25(OH)D concentrations by disability status.

Results: of 6,250 older adults, 17.9% were defined as physically disabled. 25(OH)D concentrations were 71.3 and 78.2 nmol/l in subjects with and without disability, respectively. However, after adjustment for potential confounders, similar 25(OH)D concentrations were seen between disabled subjects and their non-disabled counterparts (75.6 vs 77.5 nmol/l; $p = 1.17$). In contrast, older adults with disability had significantly increased 25(OH)D₂ concentrations (8.3 vs 6.1 nmol/l; $p < 0.05$). Notably, older adults with a daily vitamin D intake of ≥ 15 mcg achieved sufficient 25(OH)D concentrations, regardless of their disability status.

Conclusion: 25(OH)D concentrations did not significantly differ among older adults by disability status. This finding was attributed to increased 25(OH)D₂ concentrations among those with physical disability. Thus, adequate vitamin D intake is an effective strategy to maintain sufficient 25(OH)D concentrations, particularly among disabled older adults.

Key words:

Older adults. Physical disability. Vitamin D concentrations.

Resumen

Antecedentes: los adultos mayores tienen mayor riesgo de deficiencia de vitamina D debido a una limitada exposición al sol e ingesta inadecuada de vitamina D. A pesar de esto, existen escasos datos sobre la concentración de 25(OH)D y sus metabolitos en adultos mayores con discapacidad física.

Métodos: la Encuesta Nacional de Salud y Nutrición de 2007-2014 se analizó para comparar las concentraciones de 25(OH)D₃, 25(OH)D₂ y 25(OH)D total entre los adultos mayores con y sin discapacidad física. Se usaron modelos generalizados lineales ajustados por cofactores para examinar el efecto independiente de la ingesta de vitamina D, los niveles de actividad física y las categorías del índice de masa corporal (IMC) sobre las concentraciones de 25(OH)D por condición de discapacidad.

Resultados: de un total de 6.250 adultos mayores, el 17,9% tenía discapacidad física. Las concentraciones de 25(OH)D fueron 71,3 y 78,2 nmol/l en sujetos con y sin discapacidad, respectivamente. Sin embargo, después del ajuste por covariables, niveles similares de 25(OH)D fueron observados entre los sujetos con discapacidad y sus homólogos sin discapacidad (75,6 vs. 77,5 nmol/l; $p = 1,17$). En contraste, las concentraciones de 25(OH)D₂ fueron significativamente mayores en los sujetos con discapacidad física (8,3 vs. 6,1 nmol/l; $p < 0,05$). En particular, los sujetos con una ingesta diaria de vitamina D de ≥ 15 mcg alcanzaron niveles adecuados de 25(OH)D, a pesar de su condición de discapacidad.

Conclusión: las concentraciones de 25(OH)D fueron similares entre los adultos mayores por condición de discapacidad. Este hallazgo fue atribuido al aumento de la concentración de 25(OH)D₂ entre las personas con discapacidad física. Así, la ingesta adecuada de vitamina D es una estrategia efectiva para mantener niveles óptimos de 25(OH)D, particularmente entre los adultos mayores con discapacidad.

Palabras clave:

Adultos mayores. Discapacidad física. Vitamina D.

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INTRODUCTION

Older adults are at increased risk of developing 25-hydroxyvitamin D (25[OH]D) deficiency as a result of inadequate dietary vitamin D intake and decreased sun exposure (1). Aging also reduces the concentration of 7-dehydrocholesterol in the epidermis and the total production of previtamin D₃ after exposure to solar ultraviolet B radiation (2). Moreover, it has been postulated that low 25(OH)D levels may accelerate the disablement process through both direct effects on muscular function as well as indirectly through its association with chronic conditions such as diabetes, hypertension, cardiovascular disease, impaired pulmonary function and arthritis, which are frequent causes of declines in physical function (3,4).

Previously, a few cross-sectional studies reported that lower 25(OH)D concentrations among older adults were associated with increased risk of functional limitations and physical disability (5-10). For instance, participants in the Cardiovascular Health Study All Starts with 25(OH)D deficiency and insufficiency had about 50% higher odds of having prevalent limitations in activities of daily living (ADL) at baseline than those with sufficient 25(OH)D levels (6). Likewise, lower 25(OH)D concentrations were described in older adults with ADL limitations compared with their non-disabled counterparts (5,9,10). Indeed, Nakamura et al. reported that limitation in ADL was the most reliable predictor of serum 25(OH)D concentrations among older adults in Yamato, Japan (10). However, these latter studies were limited by incomplete assessment of dietary vitamin D intake and small sample sizes (5,9,10). Thus, the aims of the present study were to compare the concentrations of 25(OH)D and its active metabolites in a nationally representative sample of older adults with and without disability and to examine the independent effect of BMI categories, physical activity status, and vitamin D intake on 25(OH)D concentrations according to disability status.

METHODS

The NHANES is a biannual cross-sectional study conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. The purpose of the NHANES is to collect data about the health, nutritional status and health behaviors of the noninstitutionalized civilian resident population of the United States (U.S.). The NHANES data were obtained using a complex, multistage probability sampling design to select a sample representative of the U.S. civilian noninstitutionalized household population (11). For this analysis, the NHANES data for the cycles 2007-2014 ($n = 40,617$) were selected. Of those 7,859 subjects were aged 60 years and older. Participants who were only interviewed ($n = 337$) and had missing data on BMI ($n = 514$), ADL ($n = 20$), dietary vitamin D intake or supplements ($n = 945$) and 25(OH)D concentrations ($n = 990$) were excluded, leaving a total sample size of 6,250 subjects. Overall, participants with missing data were more likely to be women, non-Hispanic white, have less than high school education, drink alcohol, and be physically inactive.

DEMOGRAPHIC AND BEHAVIORAL CHARACTERISTICS

All participants who completed a household interview record were included in the Demographics file. The six-month time period when the examination was performed (November 1st through April 30th and May 1st through October 31th), age, gender, race/ethnicity (Mexican American, other Hispanic, non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic black, and other race), education (< high school, high school/GED equivalent, some college or AA degree, college graduate or above), and the ratio of family income to poverty threshold as a measure of socioeconomic status were reported. In the mobile examination center, the body mass index (BMI) was calculated as body weight (kilograms) divided by height (meters squared) and reported in kg/m². BMI was grouped into underweight and normal weight (< 25 kg/m²), overweight (25.0 to 29.9 kg/m²) and obesity (≥ 30 kg/m²). Participants also reported their smoking status and were classified as current, former and never smokers. Subjects were considered as alcohol users if they responded affirmatively to the question "In any one year, have you had at least 12 drinks of any type of alcoholic beverage? By a drink, I mean a 12 oz. beer, a 5 oz. glass of wine, or one and half ounces of liquor".

The physical activity questionnaire is based on the global physical activity questionnaire. Participants were considered to perform vigorous leisure-time physical activity if they responded affirmatively to the question "Do you do any sports, fitness, or recreational activities that cause large increases in breathing or heart rate like running or basketball for at least ten minutes continuously?" Likewise, subjects were considered to engage in moderate recreational activities if they affirmatively responded to the question "Do you do any moderate-intensity sports, fitness, or recreational activities that cause a small increase in breathing or heart rate such as brisk walking, bicycling, swimming, or golf for at least ten minutes continuously?" The reported number of days and time in minutes spent performing vigorous or moderate leisure-time physical activity in the previous week were calculated. Based on the 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans, three levels of physical activity were created: a) participants who engaged in ≥ 150 min/week of moderate activity, or ≥ 75 min/week of vigorous activity, or ≥ 150 min/week of an equivalent combination were defined as physically active; b) insufficiently active were considered those who reported some physical activity, but not enough to meet the active definition (> 0 to < 150 min/week); and c) inactive if they reported no physical activity (12).

DIETARY AND SUPPLEMENT VITAMIN D INTAKE

The NHANES dietary intake data were used to estimate the types and amounts of foods and beverages consumed during the 24-hour period prior to the interview, and to estimate intakes of energy, nutrients, and other food components from those foods and beverages. Since the NHANES wave 2007-2008, vitamin D

has been added to the list of nutrients. The vitamin D values in this dataset reflect the sum of ergocalciferol ($25[\text{OH}]_2$) and cholecalciferol ($25[\text{OH}]_3$) content of foods reported by survey participants. The 24-hour dietary supplement interview was collected following the 24-hour dietary recall. All NHANES examinees responding to the dietary recall interview were eligible for the dietary supplement and antacid use questions. Information was obtained on all vitamins, minerals, herbals and other dietary supplements that were consumed during a 24-hour time period, including the name and the amount of dietary supplement taken. Since 2007-2008, vitamin D supplements $25(\text{OH})_2$ and $25(\text{OH})_3$ were reported to estimate participants' consumption of vitamin D supplements during the 24-hour period. For the present analysis, vitamin D intake from the dietary and supplement components were combined to estimate the total daily dietary intake of vitamin D (13).

PHYSICAL DISABILITY

The NHANES physical functioning section provides self-reported data on functional limitations caused by long-term physical, mental, and emotional problems or illness. Participants were asked: "By yourself and without using any special equipment, how much difficulty do you have walking from one room to another on the same level; getting in or out of bed; eating like holding a fork, cutting food, or drinking from a glass; dressing including tying shoes, working zippers, and doing buttons?" Subjects who reported some difficulty, much difficulty, or were unable to do any of these basic ADL were defined as having physical disability. Of note, the NHANES did not have information on bathing or toileting during the study period (14). Moreover, participants reported the condition or health problem associated with limitations in ADL.

TOTAL $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$, $25(\text{OH})_3$ AND $25(\text{OH})_2$ CONCENTRATIONS

The CDC standardized liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) method was used for measurement of $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ for NHANES 2007-2014, which allows laboratories and surveys to compare $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ measurements. The CDC decided to develop a LC-MS/MS method traceable to the NIST-reference materials for NHANES, and used this method starting with NHANES 2007-2008 to measure $25(\text{OH})_3$, $25(\text{OH})_2$ and the C3 epimer of $25(\text{OH})_3$. For the CDC LC-MS/MS method, total $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ (in SI units of nmol/l) was defined as the sum of $25(\text{OH})_3$ and $25(\text{OH})_2$ and excluded the C3 epimer of $25(\text{OH})_3$. However, due to rounding, the sum of $25(\text{OH})_3$ and $25(\text{OH})_2$ will not necessarily be equal to the $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$. The CDC recommends using the total $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ in SI units (nmol/l) measured directly by LC-MS/MS and converting this quantity to conventional units ($1 \text{ nmol/l} = 0.4066 \text{ ng/ml}$), if needed. This method has better analytical specificity and sensitivity compared to immunoassay methods, and fixed analytical goals for imprecision ($\leq 10\%$) and bias ($\leq 5\%$) (15).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The descriptive characteristic of the study population was reported as percentages and mean values with their respective standard errors. The Chi-square and t-tests for categorical and continuous variables were used to compare demographic, behavioral, and nutritional characteristics of the participants stratified by disability status, respectively. General linear models according to six-month time period, as a surrogate for seasons (November 1st through April 30th and May 1st through October 31th) were created to compare mean $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$, $25(\text{OH})_3$, and $25(\text{OH})_2$ levels between older adults defined as having physical disability and those who did not. The following potential confounders were included in the adjusted models: age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, ratio of family income to poverty, BMI, smoking status, alcohol consumption, physical activity, and total daily vitamin D intake. Subgroup analyses were conducted to assess the independent effect of BMI categories, physical activity status, and tertiles of vitamin D intake on $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ concentrations in older adults with and without disability. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS Complex Sample software, V.17 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois, U.S.) to incorporate constructed weights for the combined survey cycles and obtain unbiased, national estimates representative of the older U.S. population (16).

RESULTS

A total of 6,250 participants with a mean age of 69.6 (SE 0.1) years comprised the study sample, representing an estimated 48 million older adults in the U.S. during the study period. Of these, 1,404 (17.9%) subjects were defined as having physical disability. Table I shows the demographic, behavioral and nutritional characteristics of the participants stratified by disability status. In general, subjects with physical disability tended to be older, women, less educated, had lower socioeconomic status, and increased BMI compared with their non-disabled counterparts. Notably, 75.5% of disabled older adults were physically inactive. In general, about 79% of U.S. older adults obtained their daily vitamin D intake through supplements and the mean $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ concentration was 76.9 (0.7) nmol/l. Moreover, participants with physical disability had significantly lower $25(\text{OH})_3$ and $25(\text{OH})_2$ concentrations than those who did not. In contrast, higher $25(\text{OH})_2$ levels were consistently seen among disabled older adults. Overall, arthritis/rheumatism and back or neck problem accounted for 50.9% and 19.1% of the reported health conditions associated with physical disability, respectively.

As shown in table II, similar $25(\text{OH})\text{D}$ concentrations and its forms were seen among older adults by disability status category between November 1st and April 30th. In contrast, non-disabled older adults had higher $25(\text{OH})_3$ concentrations than those with disability between May 1st and October 31st. Similarly, participants with disability had increased $25(\text{OH})_2$ concentrations during the same study period. Moreover, after adjustment for six-month time periods, non-disabled and disabled participants had significant-

Table I.

	Total (n = 6,250)	Non-disability (n = 4,846)	Disability (n = 1,404)	p value
<i>Six-month time period, %</i>				0.266
Nov 1 st to April 30 th	38.3 (3.3)	37.9 (3.3)	40.3 (3.7)	
May 1 st to Oct 31 st	61.7 (3.3)	62.1 (3.3)	59.7 (3.7)	
Age (years), mean	69.6 (0.1)	69.2 (0.1)	71.2 (0.2)	< 0.0001
<i>Gender, %</i>				< 0.05
Male	45.5 (0.7)	46.4 (0.7)	41.6 (1.7)	
Female	54.5 (0.7)	53.6 (0.7)	58.4 (1.7)	
<i>Race/ethnicity, %</i>				< 0.0001
Mexican-American	3.9 (0.6)	3.3 (0.5)	6.7 (1.3)	
Other Hispanics	3.3 (0.5)	2.9 (0.4)	5.0 (0.8)	
Non-Hispanic white	80.6 (1.4)	82.4 (1.2)	72.2 (2.3)	
Non-Hispanic black	7.9 (0.8)	7.3 (0.7)	10.7 (1.1)	
Other race	4.4 (0.4)	4.1 (0.5)	5.5 (0.8)	
BMI (kg/m ²), mean	29.0 (0.1)	28.6 (0.1)	30.9 (0.2)	< 0.0001
<i>Education, %</i>				< 0.0001
Less than high school	20.3 (1.1)	18.0 (1.1)	31.2 (1.9)	
High school graduate/GED	23.8 (0.8)	23.4 (0.9)	25.3 (1.3)	
Some college or AA degree	28.8 (0.9)	28.8 (1.1)	28.9 (1.8)	
College graduate or above	27.1 (1.3)	29.8 (1.5)	14.6 (1.5)	
<i>Income to poverty ratio, %</i>				< 0.0001
≥ 1.00	90.7 (0.6)	92.6 (0.5)	81.9 (1.4)	
< 1.00	9.3 (0.6)	7.4 (0.5)	18.1 (1.4)	
<i>Smoking status, %</i>				< 0.05
Never	49.1 (1.0)	50.0 (1.0)	45.4 (1.9)	
Former	40.3 (0.8)	39.9 (0.9)	42.2 (1.7)	
Current	10.6 (0.5)	10.2 (0.6)	12.3 (1.1)	
<i>Alcohol consumption, %</i>				< 0.0001
Yes	69.4 (1.1)	70.6 (1.2)	63.8 (1.7)	
No	30.6 (1.1)	29.4 (1.2)	36.2 (1.7)	
<i>Physical activity, %</i>				< 0.0001
None	56.4 (1.2)	52.2 (1.3)	75.5 (1.5)	
< 150 min/week	15.7 (0.6)	17.0 (0.7)	9.8 (1.1)	
≥ 150 min/week	27.9 (1.0)	30.8 (1.2)	14.7 (1.4)	
Dietary vitamin D intake (mcg), mean	4.7 (0.08)	4.8 (0.09)	4.3 (0.1)	< 0.05
Vitamin D supplements (mcg), mean	17.9 (1.0)	17.6 (1.1)	19.1 (3.4)	0.680
Total vitamin D intake (mcg), mean	22.7 (1.1)	22.5 (1.1)	23.5 (3.4)	0.789
25(OH)D ₃ (nmol/l), mean	70.6 (0.8)	72.2 (0.8)	63.2 (1.2)	< 0.0001
25(OH)D ₂ (nmol/l), mean	6.3 (0.4)	6.0 (0.4)	8.1 (0.8)	< 0.05
25(OH)D (nmol/l), mean	76.9 (0.7)	78.2 (0.8)	71.3 (1.2)	< 0.0001

Parenthesis represents standard error of the estimates.

ly higher 25(OH)D₃ and 25(OH)D₂ concentrations, respectively. However, in the final model, total 25(OH)D concentrations did not significantly differ by disability status.

As shown in figure 1, 25(OH)D concentrations significantly decreased across BMI categories, which was more accentuated among disabled subjects. For instance, obese non-disabled and

disabled participants had 9.2 and 12.2 nmol/l lower 25(OH)D concentrations compared with their normal-weight counterparts, respectively. As shown in figure 2, 25(OH)D concentrations significantly increased only among non-disabled subjects defined as physically active. However, physically active disabled older adults had on average 6.9 nmol/l higher 25(OH)D concentrations than

Table II.

Vitamin D levels (nmol/l)	Non-disability	Disability	Vitamin D nmol/l difference	p value
Nov 1st to April 30th				
25(OH)D ₃	67.8 (1.0)	65.6 (1.7)	-2.1 (1.9)	0.057
25(OH)D ₂	6.5 (0.9)	7.8 (1.2)	1.3 (1.7)	0.448
25(OH)D	74.3 (1.2)	73.5 (1.8)	-0.8 (2.0)	0.689
May 1st to Oct 31st				
25(OH)D ₃	73.6 (0.9)	68.6 (1.8)	-4.9 (1.8)	< 0.001
25(OH)D ₂	5.8 (0.5)	8.5 (1.2)	2.6 (1.2)	< 0.05
25(OH)D	79.4 (0.8)	77.1 (1.3)	-2.3 (1.4)	0.124
Combined periods*				
25(OH)D ₃	71.4 (0.7)	67.3 (1.3)	-4.1 (1.3)	< 0.05
25(OH)D ₂	6.1 (0.5)	8.3 (0.8)	2.2 (0.9)	< 0.05
25(OH)D	77.5 (0.7)	75.6 (1.1)	-1.9 (1.1)	0.117

Models adjusted for age, gender, race/ethnicity, education, income to poverty ratio, BMI, smoking, alcohol consumption, physical activity status, and total vitamin D intake. *Models also adjusted for six-month time periods.

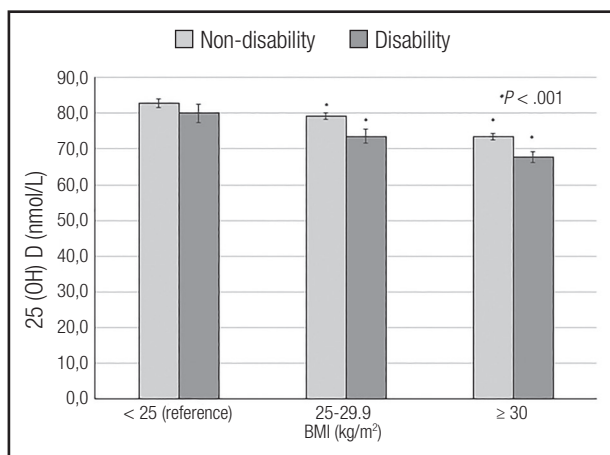


Figure 1.

25(OH)D concentrations according to BMI categories and physical disability status.

those with sedentary lifestyle. As shown in figure 3, 25(OH)D concentrations markedly increased as dietary vitamin D intake also increase, irrespective of the disability status. Notably, non-disabled and disabled participants with a daily vitamin D intake > 15 mcg had increased 25(OH)D concentration at 91.4 and 89 nmol/l, respectively.

DISCUSSION

The results of the present study indicate that overall U.S. older adults with physical disability had lower 25(OH)D₃ and 25(OH)D

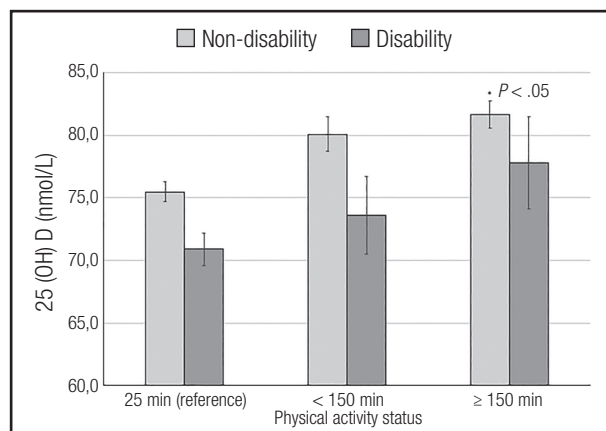


Figure 2.

25(OH)D concentrations according to physical activity and disability status.

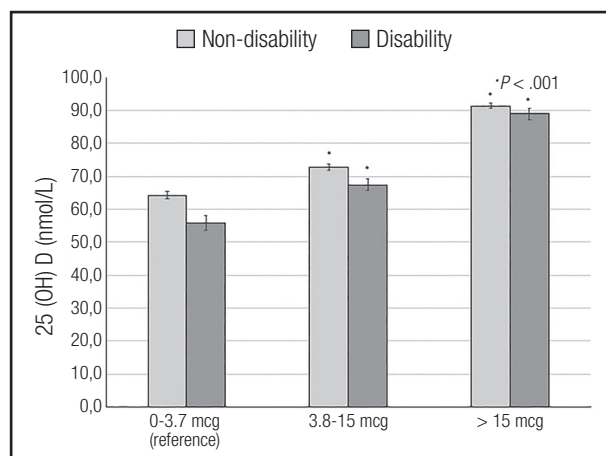


Figure 3.

25(OH)D concentrations according to daily vitamin D intake and disability status.

concentrations than their non-disabled counterparts. However, after adjustment for potential confounders, total 25(OH)D concentrations did not significantly differ according to disability status. In general, 25(OH)D₃ concentrations remained lower among participants with disability, particularly between May 1st and October 31st. On the contrary, higher 25(OH)D₂ concentrations were consistently seen among disabled older adults during the study period. The present results contrast with those from prior studies in which significantly lower 25(OH)D levels were described among older adults with disability in ADL (5,9,10). Possible explanations for these contradictory results may be related to higher 25(OH)D₂ concentrations present among subjects with physical disability, which has not been previously reported. Moreover, dietary vitamin D intake was not completely assessed as a major determinant of vitamin D status, particularly in older adults with disability. For instance, Nakamura et al. reported the frequency of fish consumption as a surrogate of vitamin D intake among older Japanese with various levels of physical disa-

bility (10). Likewise, among participants in the Women's Health and Aging Study I, which included women with ≥ 2 domains of disability, the prevalence of vitamin D deficiency defined by a serum 25(OH)D level < 25 nmol/l ranged between 9.2% and 14%. However, vitamin D intake was not assessed in that particular study.

Notably, increased 25(OH)D concentrations were seen among older adults with and without disability who consumed vitamin D > 15 mcg per day. In contrast, participants with a daily vitamin D intake between 0 and 3.7 mcg had on average 50% lower 25(OH)D concentrations than those with adequate vitamin D intake, irrespective of their disability status. Thus, the present findings suggest that a daily vitamin D intake of > 15 mcg is an effective strategy for maintaining 25(OH)D concentrations > 75 nmol/l, particularly in disabled older adults. Of interest, most of the U.S. older adults obtained their dietary vitamin D intake from supplements, which accounted for 79% of the total dietary vitamin D intake. Although there is a general consensus that 25(OH)D₂ is only present in populations consuming sun-dried and UVB light-exposed mushrooms or 25(OH)₂ supplements, a recent analysis of the National Adult Survey in Ireland reported that 25(OH)D₂ was present in the diet of the majority of adults, at variable but possibly nutritionally relevant levels (17). Similarly, the increased 25(OH)D₂ concentrations found particularly among disabled older adults indicate that 25(OH)D₂ consumption obtained from food or supplements may also represent an important source of dietary vitamin D in older U.S. adults. Barake et al. previously reported that among participants in the NuAge study conducted in Quebec, Canada, the mean vitamin D intake from food and supplements was 14.1 mcg/day among those with vitamin D status > 75 nmol/l, which is also consistent with the present results (18). In addition, the Institute of Medicine dietary recommendations of vitamin D ≥ 15 mcg among individuals aged 50 years and older should be considered as adequate to maintain sufficient 25(OH)D concentrations (> 75 nmol/l) among disabled older adults (19).

Although it is well documented that sunlight exposure is a main determinant of vitamin D status, this variable was not specifically evaluated in the NHANES cycles 2007-2014 (20,21). However, previous studies have documented that the relationship between physical activity and circulating 25(OH)D concentrations mostly reflect the effect of sunlight exposure during outdoor physical activity (22,23). Indeed, a recent study reported that U.S. older adults physically active had on average 8.1 and 7.1 nmol/l higher 25(OH)D and 25(OH)D₃ concentrations than those with sedentary lifestyle, respectively. Moreover, the increased 25(OH)D₃ concentration seen among subjects physically active indicate that sunlight exposure is important to achieve sufficient 25(OH)D status in older U.S. adults (24). Despite this evidence, about two-thirds of U.S. older adults with physical disability did not meet physical activity guidelines, which may explain a non-significant linear increase in 25(OH)D concentrations according to physical activity status.

As expected, BMI categories had an effect on 25(OH)D concentrations among older adults, irrespective of their disability status. For instance, after adjustment for potential confounders, obese subjects with and without disability had on average 12.2 and

9.2 nmol/l lower 25(OH)D concentrations compared with their normal-weight counterparts, respectively. Moreover, the mean 25(OH)D concentration difference by disability status increased from 3.6% among participants with normal weight to 8.5% among those considered obese. This inverse association between obesity and low vitamin D status has been explained by decreased bio-availability of vitamin D as a result of sequestration of vitamin D by the adipose tissue, dilution of vitamin D in the large fat mass of obese people and reduced sun exposure (25). Thus, obese older adults with disability should be encouraged to maintain a healthy weight to improve their 25(OH)D status.

Overall, arthritis/rheumatism was the leading cause of physical disability among U.S. older adults, which is in agreement with previous reports (26,27). Moreover, a recent study among participants in the Mexican Health and Aging Study demonstrated that older adults with arthritis and vitamin D insufficiency were three times as likely to have physical disability as compared with their normal counterparts (28). Thus, further studies should be conducted to examine the relationship between arthritis attributable physical disability and 25(OH)D concentrations among older adults.

Several limitations should be considered while interpreting the present findings. First, because of the NHANES survey cross-sectional design, the study results do not necessarily infer causation. Second, participants self-reported their ADL limitations, which may have been subject to recall bias. Third, subject's sunlight exposure or use of sunscreen was not evaluated in this analysis. Fourth, the effect of latitude on participants' 25(OH)D concentrations was unknown. Fifth, the association between physical disability and 25(OH)D concentrations was limited to non-institutionalized older adults. However, a small cross-sectional study conducted among newly admitted nursing home patients in Honolulu, Hawaii, reported that vitamin D deficiency was significantly associated with the number of ADL disabilities (29). Finally, the present findings may be only generalizable to physically disabled older adults with similar sociodemographic characteristics and dietary vitamin D intake.

In conclusion, similar 25(OH)D concentrations were seen among U.S. older adults according to disability status. This finding was predominantly attributed to increased 25(OH)D₂ concentrations in subjects with physical disability. Thus, adequate vitamin D intake is an effective strategy to maintain sufficient 25(OH)D concentrations among disabled older adults.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Efectos del ejercicio físico intervalado en la mejora del control glicémico de adultos obesos con insulinoresistencia

Effects of interval exercise in the improvement of glycemic control of obese adults with insulin resistance

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Resumen

Introducción: el ejercicio físico presenta evidencia para el tratamiento de la resistencia a la insulina. Sin embargo, es necesario profundizar en base a estos conocimientos.

Objetivo: comparar la efectividad de un programa de entrenamiento intervalado de alta intensidad (HIIT) con uno de resistencia muscular (RT) para mejorar parámetros bioquímicos de insulina/glicemia basal y poscarga.

Material y métodos: se estudiaron 28 personas (edad 36 ± 13 años) insulinoresistentes no medicadas. Se formaron aleatoriamente dos grupos: grupo RT ($n = 14$) y grupo HIIT ($n = 14$). Cada grupo participó de 12 semanas de intervención (tres sesiones/semana). Ambos grupos fueron homogéneos ($p > 0,05$) en cuanto a edad, peso, talla e índice de masa corporal (IMC). La glicemia/insulinemia basal y poscarga igual fueron evaluadas pre- y posintervención.

Resultados: tras la intervención existieron disminuciones significativas en ambos grupos en grasa (%), HIIT (Pre = $40,20 \pm 7,31$ vs. Post = $36,49 \pm 7,28\%$, $p = 0,006$), RT (Pre: $39,04 \pm 8,52$ vs. Post: $34,91 \pm 8,80\%$, $p = 0,002$); en insulina en ayunas HIIT (Pre: $20,64 \pm 9,44$ vs. Post: $15,20 \pm 6,47$ uIU/ml, $p = 0,0006$), RT (Pre: $18,50 \pm 8,24$ vs. Post: $13,59 \pm 6,11$ uIU/ml, $p = 0,015$); en insulina post carga, HIIT (Pre: $127,57 \pm 71,73$ vs. Post: $69,25 \pm 39,42$ uIU/ml, $p < 0,0001$), RT (Pre: $125,78 \pm 59,85$ vs. Post: $63,45 \pm 36,44$ uIU/ml, $p < 0,0001$); y en glicemia en ayunas, HIIT (Pre: $92,86 \pm 11,39$ vs. Post: $87,36 \pm 8,00$ mg/dl, $p = 0,031$), RT (Pre: $90,79 \pm 11,26$ vs. Post: $85,26 \pm 7,88$ mg/dl, $p = 0,045$). En relación a la glicemia poscarga, solo el grupo HIIT disminuyó significativamente (Pre: $128,57 \pm 26,90$ vs. Post: $103,47 \pm 12,70$ mg/dl, $p < 0,001$), reportando diferencias con el grupo RT ($p < 0,042$).

Conclusión: ambas metodologías de trabajos muestran similares resultados para el tratamiento de la insulinoresistencia.

Palabras clave:

Ejercicio.
Insulinoresistencia.
Obesidad. Glicemia.

Abstract

Background: physical exercise presents evidence for the treatment of insulin resistance. However, it is necessary to deepen this knowledge.

Objective: to compare the effectiveness of a high intensity interval training program (HIIT) with one of resistance training (RT) to improve biochemical parameters of insulin/basal glycemia and post-load.

Material and methods: twenty-eight (36 ± 13 years old) non-medicated insulin-resistant individuals (age 36 ± 13 years) were studied. Two groups were randomly formed: RT group ($n = 14$) and HIIT group ($n = 14$). Each group participated in 12 weeks of intervention (three sessions/week). Both groups were homogeneous ($p > 0.05$) in terms of age, weight, height and BMI. Basal glycemia/insulinemia and post-load were evaluated, pre and post intervention.

Results: after the intervention there were significant decreases in both groups in: fat (%) HIIT (Pre = 40.20 ± 7.31 vs Post = $36.49 \pm 7.28\%$, $p = 0.006$), RT (Pre: 39.04 ± 8.52 vs Post: $34.91 \pm 8.80\%$, $p = 0.002$); fasting insulin, HIIT (Pre: 20.64 ± 9.44 vs. Post: 15.20 ± 6.47 uIU/ml, $p = 0.0006$), RT (Pre: 18.50 ± 8.24 , vs Post: 13.59 ± 6.11 uIU/ml, $p = 0.015$); insulin post load, HIIT (Pre: 127.57 ± 71.73 vs Post: 69.25 ± 39.42 uIU/ml, $p < 0.0001$), RT (Pre: 125.78 ± 59.85 vs Post: 63.45 ± 36.44 uIU/ml, $p < 0.0001$); and fasting glycemia, HIIT (Pre: 92.86 ± 11.39 vs Post: 87.36 ± 8.00 , $p = 0.031$), RT (Pre: 90.79 ± 11.26 vs Post: 85.26 ± 7.88 mg/dl, $p = 0.045$). In relation to post-load glycemia only the HIIT group decreased significantly (Pre: 128.57 ± 26.90 vs Post: 103.47 ± 12.70 mg/dl, $p < 0.001$), reporting differences with the RT group ($p < 0.042$).

Conclusion: both programs showed similar results for the treatment of insulin resistance.

Key words:

Exercise. Insulin
resistance. Obesity.
Glycemia.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS) indicó que 1,5 millones de personas fallecieron de forma directa a causa de la diabetes mellitus tipo 2 (DMT2) en el año 2012 (1). Además, se estima que para el año 2030 crecerá en un 54% el número mundial de personas con esta patología (2). Por otra parte, es amplia la evidencia científica que existe y que demuestra que la prescripción de ejercicio físico adaptada en cuanto a volumen, intensidad y metodología a las necesidades del paciente logra no sólo prevenir patologías como la DMT2 (3-7), sino también mejorar la funcionalidad metabólica, como, por ejemplo, el mecanismo de insulinosensibilidad en tejidos como el músculo esquelético y el tejido adiposo, que se produce por medio del aumento de la actividad de síntesis proteica y biogénesis mitocondrial (8). Así, el ejercicio físico se transforma en una herramienta clave para la rehabilitación y prevención del riesgo cardiometabólico, obesidad y la insulinoresistencia con sus progresiones, patologías que en general tienen una génesis común (9-12).

Diversos estudios también exponen que algunas metodologías de ejercicio físico como fuerza muscular o en inglés "*Resistance training*" (RT) (13,14) y el entrenamiento intervalado de alta intensidad (HIIT) (15) logran mejorar de manera significativa el estado metabólico y la salud a nivel de composición corporal, debido a que atacan el ineficiente funcionamiento del músculo esquelético. Además, inducen adaptaciones que están relacionadas con mejoras en la salud cardiovascular y la capacidad cardiorrespiratoria (16). En algunos estudios (17,18), las mejoras en la salud se producen solo después de unas pocas sesiones.

Debido a los antecedentes existentes y al crecimiento sostenido de la DMT2 en el mundo, el objetivo de la presente investigación fue comparar la efectividad de un programa de HIIT con uno de RT para mejorar parámetros bioquímicos de insulina/glicemia basal y poscarga en pacientes obesos con insulinoresistencia.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODO

PARTICIPANTES

La muestra del estudio fue voluntaria y por conveniencia. Está compuesta por 28 sujetos (edad 36 ± 13 años) insulinoresistentes con sobrepeso u obesidad, los cuales fueron distribuidos de forma aleatoria de la siguiente manera: 14 adultos con la metodología RT 1' ejercicio, 2' descanso, tres series de cada ejercicio ($1 \times 2 \times 3$) (edad $33 \pm 10,7$ años), y el grupo HIIT, compuesto por 14 adultos (edad $39 \pm 14,6$ años). La investigación fue aprobada por el Comité de Ética Local.

PROCEDIMIENTOS

Los pacientes fueron sometidos a evaluaciones de peso (Tanita® Model 2001, China) y grasa corporal a través de bioimpedancia tetrapolar (Inbody S10). Para ello, se les evaluó ligeros de ropa y sin elementos metálicos externos. Por otra parte, se realizaron

pruebas de tolerancia a la glucosa oral (PTGO, 75 g de glucosa) y se obtuvieron valores de insulina/glicemia basal (con ayuno previo ≥ 8 horas) y poscarga (120 minutos) mediante el método de extracción de sangre venosa.

INTERVENCIÓN

En ambos grupos de intervención, a los pacientes en tratamiento con metformina se les suspendió la medicación previo consentimiento del médico tratante, antes de comenzar con las evaluaciones de laboratorio y el protocolo de intervención. El tratamiento se realizó en las instalaciones del Centro de Ejercicio Físico y Salud MitoAustral (Punta Arenas, Chile) tres veces a la semana, en días no consecutivos y durante 12 semanas.

En el grupo RT, se consideró el trabajo de 12 grupos musculares, con cargas externas, organizados en cuatro circuitos de tres ejercicios cada uno y completando un total de 36 minutos efectivos de ejercicio por sesión. Las cargas se aplicaron según el fallo muscular del individuo dentro del margen de tiempo determinado. Asimismo, debía realizar entre 30 y 40 repeticiones (el número de repeticiones se anotaba en una planilla) dentro del mismo tiempo para asegurar que el ejercicio fuese de resistencia y no de fuerza; de esta manera se manejaba el aumento o la disminución de las cargas. Por otra parte, se consideró un calentamiento de diez minutos y cinco minutos de vuelta a la calma (enfriamiento), con estiramientos de cada uno de los grupos musculares trabajados (total sesión = 51 minutos).

En cuanto al grupo HIIT, realizaron pedaleo sobre una bicicleta de spinning (Oxford BE-2701). Se consideró un calentamiento inicial de diez minutos al 50% de la frecuencia cardíaca máxima (FCM = $220 - \text{de edad}$), seguido de un minuto de pedaleo "*all out*" a una velocidad de entre 35-45 km/h, combinado con dos minutos de descanso pasivo, repitiendo el ejercicio diez veces. Al terminar la última serie, el individuo descansaba sentado en la bicicleta durante dos minutos, para luego realizar la etapa de enfriamiento a través de estiramientos de las zonas trabajadas, completando un tiempo efectivo total de 45 minutos por sesión.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICOS

En las figuras se utilizaron la media y la desviación estándar (DE). Se utilizó el test de Shapiro-Wilk para determinar la normalidad de los datos y el test de Levene para establecer la homocedasticidad. La prueba ANOVA de medidas repetidas fue utilizada para determinar diferencias entre las medias antes y después de la intervención. El nivel para significancia estadística se estableció en $p < 0,05$. Todos los análisis estadísticos se realizaron utilizando el software SPSS (versión 23.0).

RESULTADOS

En la evaluación basal de las variables antropométricas no existieron diferencias significativas entre ambos grupos ($p > 0,005$) (Tabla I).

Tabla I. Características antropométricas en pre- y postintervención

Variable	RT		HIIT		Valor p Pre	Valor p Post
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post		
Edad (años)	32,5 ± 10,7	-	38,6 ± 14,6	-	0,201	-
Peso (kg)	84,5 ± 22,7	80,2 ± 20,4	82,1 ± 16,1	80,0 ± 15,3	0,922	0,851
Talla (m)	1,62 ± 0,1	-	1,62 ± 0,1	-	0,872	-
IMC (kg/m ²)	31,7 ± 6,6	30,1 ± 5,8	30,8 ± 5,0	30,2 ± 4,6	0,872	0,844

Datos presentados como media ± DE. IMC: índice de masa corporal; RT: grupo resistencia muscular (sobrecarga) 1 x 2 x 3; HIIT: grupo de entrenamiento intervalado de alta intensidad 1 x 2 x 10.

Antes y después de la intervención existieron disminuciones significativas en el porcentaje de grasa de ambos grupos, en el grupo HIIT (Pre = 40,20 ± 7,31 vs. Post = 36,49 ± 7,28%, $p = 0,006$) y en el grupo RT (Pre: 39,04 ± 8,52 vs. Post: 34,91 ± 8,80%, $p = 0,002$) (Fig. 1). En la comparación entre los grupos HIIT y RT no existieron diferencias significativas en Pre y Post ($p > 0,05$).

En la insulina en ayunas existieron reducciones significativas en el grupo HIIT (Pre: 20,64 ± 9,44 vs. Post: 15,20 ± 6,47 uIU/ml, $p = 0,0006$) y en el grupo RT (Pre: 18,50 ± 8,24 vs. Post: 13,59 ± 6,11 uIU/dl, $p = 0,015$) (Fig. 2). En la comparación entre los grupos HIIT y RT no existieron diferencias significativas en Pre y Post ($p > 0,05$).

Por otra parte, la insulina poscarga demostró una variación significativa en ambos grupos: HIIT (Pre: 127,57 ± 71,73 vs. Post: 69,25 ± 39,42 uIU/ml, $p < 0,0001$) y RT (Pre: 125,78 ± 59,85 vs. Post: 63,45 ± 36,44 uIU/ml, $p < 0,0001$) (Fig. 3). En la comparación entre los grupos HIIT y RT no existieron diferencias significativas en Pre y Post ($p > 0,05$).

Respecto al comportamiento de la glicemia en ayunas, esta disminuyó significativamente en ambos grupos: grupo HIIT (Pre: 92,86 ± 11,39 vs. Post: 87,36 ± 8,00 mg/dl, $p = 0,031$) y grupo RT (Pre: 90,79 ± 11,26 vs. Post: 85,26 ± 7,88 mg/dl, $p = 0,045$).

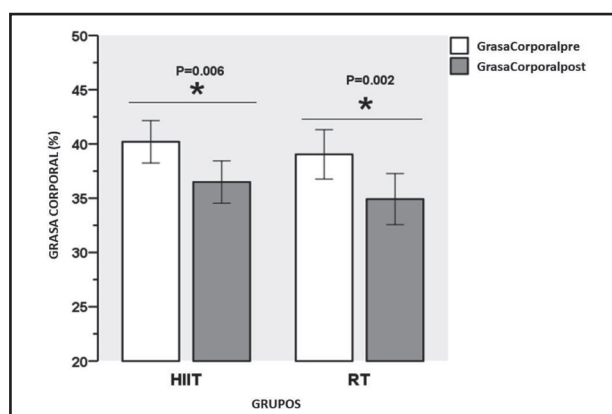
(Fig. 4). En la comparación entre los grupos HIIT y RT no existieron diferencias significativas en Pre y Post ($p > 0,05$).

En relación a la glicemia poscarga, el grupo RT no experimentó una reducción significativa de sus valores en el pre- y postintervención, en cambio, en el grupo HIIT disminuyó significativamente (Pre: 128,57 ± 26,90 vs. Post: 103,47 ± 12,70 mg/dl, $p < 0,001$) (Fig. 5). Existieron diferencias significativas postintervención entre RT vs. HIIT ($p < 0,042$).

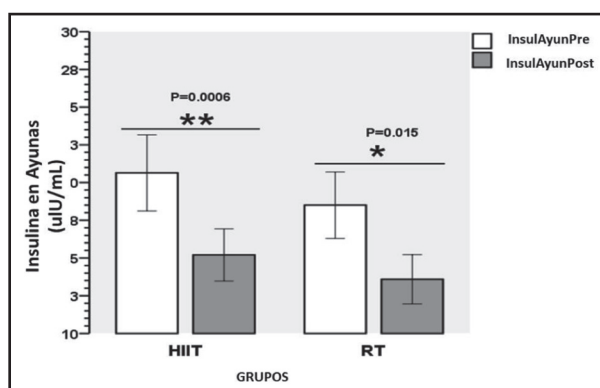
DISCUSIÓN

El objetivo de la presente investigación fue comparar la efectividad de un programa de HIIT con uno de RT para mejorar parámetros bioquímicos de insulina/glicemia basal y poscarga en pacientes obesos con insulinoresistencia. El principal hallazgo de esta investigación es que ambos métodos mejoran los parámetros de glicemia e insulina en ayuno y poscarga. Además, se logró una disminución significativa de la grasa corporal (%). Por tal motivo, ambos métodos son factibles de aplicar respetando los principios fisiológicos y la condición física inicial de cada sujeto.

En el grupo HIIT disminuyó la glicemia en ayuno y poscarga de forma significativa. Por este motivo se propone la elección

**Figura 1.**

Cambios en el % de grasa corporal pre- y postintervención. Datos presentados como media ± DE. Los grupos son presentados como grupo RT 1 x 2 x 3 y grupo HIIT 1 x 2 x 10. Los valores de significancia son señalados como * $p < 0,05$.

**Figura 2.**

Cambios en la insulina en ayunas pre- y postintervención. Los datos se presentan como media ± DE. Los grupos son presentados como grupo RT 1 x 2 x 3 y grupo HIIT 1 x 2 x 10. Los valores de significancia son señalados como * $p < 0,05$, ** $p < 0,01$.

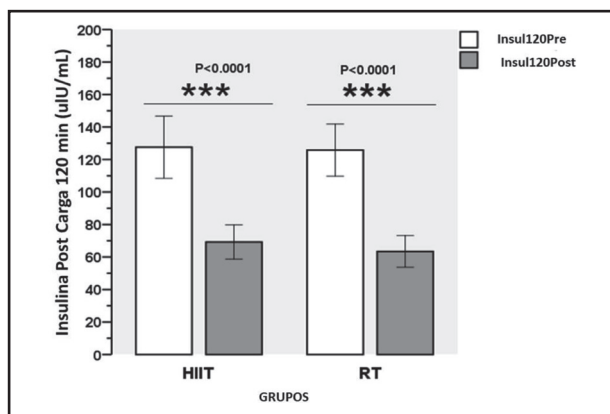


Figura 3.

Cambios en la insulina poscarga 120 minutos pre- y postintervención. Los datos se presentan como media $\pm$ DE. Los grupos son presentados como grupo RT 1 x 2 x 3 y grupo HIIT 1 x 2 x 10. Los valores de significancia son señalados como *** $p < 0,0001$.

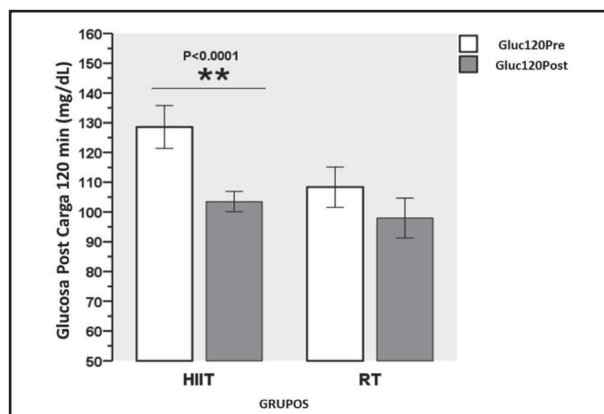


Figura 5.

Cambios en la glucosa poscarga 120 minutos pre- y postintervención. Los datos se presentan como media $\pm$ DE. Los grupos son presentados como grupo RT 1 x 2 x 3 y grupo HIIT 1 x 2 x 10. Los valores de significancia son señalados como ** $p < 0,0001$.

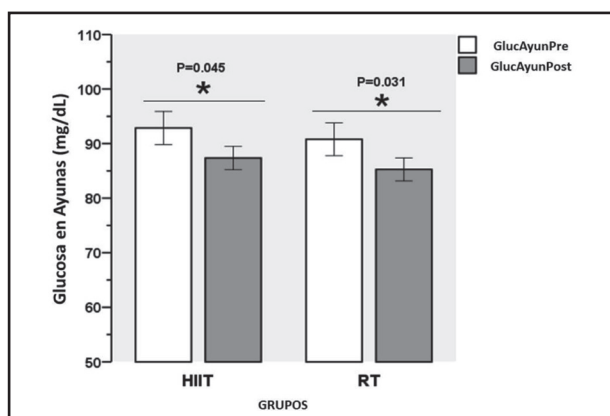


Figura 4.

Cambios en la glucosa en ayunas pre- y postintervención. Los datos se presentan como media $\pm$ DE. Los grupos son presentados como grupo RT 1 x 2 x 3 y grupo HIIT 1 x 2 x 10. Los valores de significancia son señalados como * $p < 0,05$.

de este tipo de entrenamiento dentro de las terapias de primera línea para el tratamiento de DMT2. Similares resultados fueron reportados en una investigación en la cual se utilizó un protocolo HIIT durante 12 semanas (19). Sin embargo, estudios de menor duración no han reportado cambios significativos en la glicemia en ayuno (20); por lo tanto, el tiempo es un factor que debe ser considerado. Otra investigación reportó una mejora en el control glicémico y la función de las células β pancreáticas en pacientes con DMT2, demostrando que HIIT es una estrategia de ejercicio beneficiosa para la salud de los pacientes (21).

En la presente investigación, la insulina en ayunas y poscarga mejoró de forma significativa en ambos grupos de estudio. Asimismo, algunas investigaciones han reportado mejoras en la sensibilidad de la insulina con una intervención HIIT (21-23). Los

programas HIIT presentan mayor actividad de proteínas relacionadas con el metabolismo glicolítico al compararse con ejercicios continuos de media a baja intensidad (22). Además, presentan aumento de la captación de glucosa por parte del tejido muscular, lo que mejora el control glicémico en pacientes con riesgo de DMT2 (21-23).

En cuanto al grupo RT, se pudo determinar que, al igual que el HIIT, tiene un efecto potente dentro del proceso de rehabilitación de la insulinorresistencia, igual a lo reportado en trabajos anteriores (14,24). De esta manera, el entrenamiento de resistencia muscular es efectivo para el control glicémico tanto por sí solo como combinado con otras metodologías de entrenamiento (25).

Respecto a la glicemia poscarga, solo en el grupo HIIT disminuyeron significativamente sus valores. Estos resultados pueden ser explicados por el potente efecto lipolítico que se produce debido al aumento significativo de catecolaminas en las metodologías HIIT (11), ya que algunos estudios previos han informado mejoras similares a través de la remodelación del músculo esquelético respecto a cambios en marcadores del estado de salud después de aplicar HIIT (26,27).

En relación a los resultados bioquímicos obtenidos, la evidencia demuestra que HIIT es una terapia que presenta beneficios y que debe considerarse cuando se prescriben intervenciones de ejercicio para las personas que viven con DMT2 (28). Asimismo, RT es una estrategia prometedora para promover la salud metabólica general en individuos con DMT2, a través de mejoras en el rendimiento mitocondrial muscular y aumentos en la masa muscular que pueden tener un impacto positivo en la capacidad de respuesta de la insulina y el control de la glucosa (25).

Por último, se reportaron cambios significativos en el porcentaje de grasa corporal en ambos grupos. Los cambios obtenidos en cuanto a porcentaje de grasa según la literatura pueden relacionarse principalmente con el aumento de la biogénesis mitocondrial y la síntesis proteica y enzimática, que han repor-

tado múltiples beneficios en la composición corporal en diversos estudios (29-31).

En conclusión, las metodologías HIIT y RT empleadas lograron disminuir significativamente las variables plasmáticas en un periodo de tres meses de intervención. Por lo tanto, ambas metodologías sirven para ser aplicadas al tratamiento de la insulinoresistencia, respetando los principios fisiológicos del entrenamiento y la condición física inicial de cada paciente. Además, se debe considerar también que se utilizaron materiales de fácil acceso, como las bicicletas estáticas y las mancuernas de peso intercambiable, lo cual convierte este tipo de entrenamientos en una alternativa a la hora de tratar este tipo de patologías. Sin embargo, es necesario presentar la autorización médica correspondiente para evitar cualquier tipo de riesgo durante el ejercicio físico.

AGRADECIMIENTOS

Agradecemos especialmente al profesor Cristián Álvarez, quien aportó continuamente sus conocimientos durante el desarrollo de este estudio.

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Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Green tea supplementation improves oxidative stress biomarkers and modulates IL-6 circulating levels in obese women

La suplementación con té verde mejora los biomarcadores del estrés oxidativo y modula los niveles de IL-6 de la circulación en mujeres obesas

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Abstract

Introduction: obesity is associated with high levels of oxidative stress (OS) and inflammation. There is a lot of evidence that some polyphenols, such as green tea, have a positive impact on the OS state and consecutively, on inflammation.

Objectives: the purposes of this study were: a) evaluate OS biomarkers in both obese and normal weight women; and b) evaluate if green tea supplementation has an impact on OS and inflammatory cytokine biomarkers of obese women.

Methods: we evaluated obese (body mass index [BMI] ≥ 40 kg/m²) and normal weight (BMI between 18.5 and 24.9 kg/m²) women. Blood samples were used to access malondialdehyde (MDA), trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC) and inflammatory cytokines. We randomly chose obese patients (18 individuals) and then gave them green tea supplementation for eight weeks. Statistical analysis included the Shapiro-Wilk, Wilcoxon, independent and paired t tests; $p < 0.05$ were considered as significant.

Results: we enrolled 42 obese (BMI: 48.2 ± 9.3 kg/m²) and 21 normal weight (BMI: 22.5 ± 2 kg/m²) women with an average age of 36.2 ± 9.1 years old. The serum levels of MDA were higher in obese (2.52 ± 0.31 μ mol/l) than in eutrophic women (2.13 ± 0.26 μ mol/l; $p = 0.000$). On the other hand, lower TEAC values were observed in the obese (0.75 ± 0.06 mM/l) than in the eutrophic group (0.78 ± 0.04 mM/l; $p = 0.009$). After the green tea intervention, MDA decreased 4.7% and TEAC increased 10%. Interleukin-6 (IL-6) serum levels decreased 12.7% after treatment ($p = 0.03$).

Conclusions: a) the obese group had lower antioxidant capacity than eutrophic; and b) green tea supplementation ameliorated TEAC and MDA and reduced serum levels of IL-6 in obese women.

Key words:

Green tea. Catequina.
Oxidative stress.
Inflammation. TEAC.
Malondialdehyde.
IL-6. Obesity.

Resumen

Introducción: la obesidad se asocia con altos niveles de estrés oxidativo (EO) e inflamación. Existe mucha evidencia de que algunos polifenoles, como el té verde, tienen un impacto positivo en el estado del EO y, consecutivamente, en la inflamación.

Objetivos: los propósitos de este estudio fueron: a) evaluar los biomarcadores de EO en mujeres obesas y de peso normal; y b) evaluar si la suplementación con té verde tiene un impacto en el EO y biomarcadores de citoquinas inflamatorias de las mujeres obesas.

Métodos: evaluamos mujeres obesas (índice de masa corporal [IMC] ≥ 40 kg/m²) y con peso normal (IMC entre 18,5 y 24,9 kg/m²). Se utilizaron muestras de sangre para determinar el malondialdehído (MDA), la capacidad antioxidante equivalente de trolox (TEAC) y las citoquinas inflamatorias. Elegimos al azar pacientes obesas (18 individuos) y luego les dimos suplementos de té verde durante ocho semanas. El análisis estadístico incluyó las pruebas de Shapiro-Wilk, Wilcoxon, t pareadas e independientes; $p < 0,05$ fueron considerados como significativos.

Resultados: se reclutaron 42 mujeres obesas (IMC: $48,2 \pm 9,3$ kg/m²) y 21 de peso normal (IMC: $22,5 \pm 2$ kg/m²) con un promedio de edad de $36,2 \pm 9,1$ años. Los niveles séricos de MDA fueron más altos en las personas obesas ($2,52 \pm 0,31$ μ mol/L) que en las mujeres eutróficas ($2,13 \pm 0,26$ μ mol/L; $p = 0,000$). Por otro lado, se observaron valores TEAC más bajos en los obesos ($0,75 \pm 0,06$ mM/L) que en el grupo eutrófico ($0,78 \pm 0,04$ mM/L; $p = 0,009$). Después de la intervención con té verde, la MDA disminuyó 4.7% y el TEAC aumentó 10%. Los niveles séricos de interleucina-6 (IL-6) disminuyeron 12.7% después del tratamiento ($p = 0,03$).

Conclusiones: a) mujeres obesas tienen menor capacidad antioxidante que las eutróficas; y b) la suplementación con té verde mejora TEAC y MDA y redujo los niveles séricos de IL-6 en mujeres obesas.

Palabras clave:

Té verde. Catequina.
Estrés oxidativo.
Inflamación. TEAC.
Malondialdehído.
IL-6. Obesidad.

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INTRODUCTION

Obesity is a multifactorial disease (1) and its prevalence is increasing quickly, some authors consider it as one of the worst problems in public health (2). Some biological processes such as oxidative stress and inflammation are closely related to obesity development (3). Recently, some authors highlighted the role of oxidative stress on the chronic inflammation status of obesity (4) and even on the progression of comorbidities as hypertension, diabetes, and atherosclerosis (5). Some studies have shown that a high fat diet (6) and high body mass index (BMI) are related to increased levels of oxidative stress biomarkers (7). Furthermore, Remla et al. (2016) (8) have shown that both IL-6 and oxidative stress biomarkers levels are higher in obese than in normal weight subjects.

Chronic inflammation is a condition intrinsically related to obesity. Some authors have shown significant differences between obese and normal weight women cytokines pattern (9). Some events, together, contribute to the maintenance of chronic inflammation in obese: adipocyte hypertrophy, hypoxia, angiogenesis, macrophage and lymphocyte infiltration, and inflammatory cytokine secretion (10). Inflammatory cytokines, like tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α), C-reactive protein (CRP) and interleukin-6 (IL-6) are some of the most important cytokines that are directly related to BMI, visceral adiposity, obesity development (Park et al., 2004) and insulin resistance (11). It has been demonstrated that IL-6 is directly related to glucose tolerance and triacylglycerides (TG) enhancing, and this might happen because IL-6 secretion may inhibit glycogenesis and stimulate gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis in the liver (4).

Oxidative stress is characterized by an imbalance in the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and antioxidant reactions. Free radicals are very reactive species and may cause damage to many tissues and macromolecules such as DNA, lipids and proteins (12). Traditionally, malondialdehyde (MDA) has been used as a biomarker for oxidative damage (13), and reflects the lipid peroxidation status. Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC) is an assay largely used to evaluate total antioxidant capacity, and reflects the potential of eliminating or combating free radicals (14-16). Studies have shown that the imbalance of such biomarkers is associated with the chronic inflammatory state, which is associated with obesity and other comorbidities (17).

Natural products are increasingly being valued as complementary treatment for chronic diseases traditional therapies, mainly because they might cause fewer side effects than conventional and synthetic drugs. Gautam and Jachak (2009) (18) described anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects related to molecules that are plant secondary metabolites such as alkaloids, terpenoids and mainly polyphenols. Wang Shu et al. (2013) described that many classes of polyphenols are related to antioxidant and anti-obesity effects in animal studies (19). Rice-Evans et al. relate those antioxidant positive effects to the polyphenols capacity of hydrogen donating, which acts as free radical scavengers (20). *Camellia sinensis*, also known as green tea (GT), is a popular plant species that is largely consumed and is rich in catechins,

which are part of a well-known class of polyphenols, from the flavonoids group. The most important catechin is the epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG). Recently, some authors described the anti-obesogenic effect of GT due to the regulation of adiponectin (21). Furthermore, in obese animals, catechins administration reduced serum levels of leptin and decreased the gene expression of TNF- α and IL-6 (22).

The hypothesis of this study is that decaffeinated green tea extract supplementation is capable of ameliorating inflammatory and oxidative stress biomarkers in women with grade III obesity. Thus, understanding the responses triggered by green tea consumption and associating them with biomarkers modulation might contribute to the elucidation of the anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects of green tea catechins and possibly, in the future, these compounds would be used as a complementary agent in weight loss therapies.

In this context the purposes of this study were: a) accessing oxidative stress biomarkers in both obese and normal weight women; and b) evaluating if green tea supplementation has an impact on these variables and on inflammatory cytokines biomarkers in women with severe obesity (BMI ≥ 40 kg/m²). This study was the first study that evaluated decaffeinated GT supplementation effects on oxidative stress and inflammatory biomarkers in Brazilian obese subjects.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

SUBJECTS AND TREATMENT

This study was carried out at the Clinical Hospital of Ribeirão Preto Medical School - University of São Paulo (Brazil) from July 2014 to March 2016. Severely obese (BMI ≥ 40 kg/m²) and normal weight women (BMI between 18.5 and 24.9 kg/m²) aged between 18 and 60 years old were invited to participate in the study. Patients were in fasting state before blood sample collection. Subjects were excluded if they were suffering from chronic diseases such as hypertension, diabetes mellitus, dyslipidemias, hyper or hypo-thyroidism and cancer, as well as if they were pregnant, alcoholics and smokers. For GT supplementation program, a smaller group of obese women were randomly selected from the major group and assigned for treatment. The patients received GT capsules for eight weeks and the daily dosage of EGCG was 450 mg. The standardization of the supplementation program, as well as the complete quantitative analysis of GT extract used, were performed according to previous data from our research group (23). The safety of the treatment was based on studies that pinpointed appropriate doses that did not lead to hepatotoxicity (24,25). The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Ethics Committee (CAAE: 30247414.6.0000.5440). All women voluntarily consented in participating. Regarding the sample size, all patients who filled the inclusion and exclusion criteria were selected within a given period. Therefore, a sample held for convenience/availability.

SAMPLE PREPARING

Total blood was collected in non-heparinized serum tubes with separation gel. Then, it was centrifuged at 7,000 rpm, 23 °C for 15 minutes. Serum samples were frozen immediately and stored at -80 °C.

OXIDATIVE STRESS ASSESSMENT

TEAC was measured based on the method purposed by Gomes et al. (2015) (26). A 2.5 mM solution of trolox (6-hydroxy-2, 5, 7, 8-tetramethylchromane-2-carboxylic acid; Sigma® Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) was prepared using phosphate buffer saline (PBS) and was the standard for the reaction. The 2, 2'-azinobis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) diammonium salt, also known as ABTS, and potassium persulfate (di-potassium peroxodisulfate) were also obtained from Sigma® Aldrich (St. Louis, Missouri, USA). Both ABTS solution and potassium persulfate were diluted in PBS solution, pH 7.2; the final concentration was 7 mM and 140 mM, respectively. The method is based on the reaction of ABTS with persulphate potassium. The radical cation ABTS^{•+} is formed and its green chromophore feature allows it to be read spectrophotometrically at 735 nm. Both trolox and sample addition reduce some ABTS^{•+} species into ABTS. Two readings were performed per sample with interval of five minutes after each addition; the observed bleaching is equivalent to the total antioxidant capacity.

The malondialdehyde (MDA) essay performed in this study was modified by Percário et al. (1994) (27). The basis of this method is that MDA, product of lipid peroxidation mainly from cellular injury, forms complexes with thiobarbituric acid (TBA; Sigma® Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA), and the chromophores can be read in UV-VIS spectrophotometer. In this essay, 1,1,3,3-tetrahydropropane (Sigma® Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) were used as standard. A 10 nM solution of TBA was prepared in a 75 mM monobasic phosphate solution (Sigma® Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) and adjusted to pH 2.5 with acetic acid (CH₃COOH); then, 250 µl of sample were added to 500 µl TBA solution and placed in water bath (95 °C, 60 minutes). An extraction was performed using 2 ml of butanol (C₄H₁₀O) and centrifuged at 175 g for 15 minutes. The supernatant was read in the spectrophotometer (BECKMAN DU640) at 535 nm. This essay was performed in duplicates.

INFLAMMATORY CYTOKINES

Serum concentrations of TNF-α, IL-6, IL-10, IL-1β and IL-17α were determined using the Panel I HCYTOMAG-60K-08 kit (Merck Millipore®). Data was processed and analyzed according to the manufacturer's instructions using the software Multiplex System manager. This method uses magnetic beads technology, which improves detection sensitivity by the Luminex xMAP® platform, due to the sensitivity and cost of the technique. The experiments were done in monoplicate.

STATISTICS

Normality was determined by the Shapiro-Wilk test and parametric data were analyzed with paired and an independent t-test. The Wilcoxon test was used to evaluate non-parametric data and $p < 0.05$ was considered as statistically significant. The software SPSS (version 20.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.; 2011) was used to analyze data.

RESULTS

SUBJECTS

A total of 42 obese (BMI: 48.2 ± 9.3 kg/m²; age: 37.2 ± 11.17 years old) and 21 normal weight (BMI: 22.5 ± 2 kg/m²; age: 34.45 ± 7.22 years old) women were recruited and completed the whole program. A subgroup of 18 obese women were chosen randomly from the total of 42 obese women in order to receive green tea supplementation; eleven women completed the program (Figure 1). Patients did not show significant weight loss and did not note adverse effects associated with the treatment; this data was from another study of our research group (23).

OXIDATIVE STRESS BIOMARKERS COMPARATIVE EVALUATION

Serum TEAC and MDA levels are represented in Figure 2. The serum levels of MDA were higher in obese (2.52 ± 0.31 µmol/l) than in normal weight women (2.13 ± 0.26 µmol/l; $p = 0.042$). On the other hand, TEAC values were lower in the obese group (0.75 ± 0.06 mM/l) than in the eutrophic group (0.78 ± 0.04 mM/l; $p = 0.017$). These results were expected once MDA and TEAC have opposite relationship to oxidative stress status.

OXIDATIVE STRESS AFTER GREEN TEA SUPPLEMENTATION

GT supplementation was performed in eleven obese women. The treated group had lower MDA levels after the supplementation (2.04 ± 0.18 versus 2.14 ± 0.23 µM/l; $p = 0.01$) and the TEAC level was higher after the treatment (0.78 ± 0.04 versus 0.70 ± 0.08 ; mM/l; $p = 0.009$) (Fig. 3).

INFLAMMATORY CYTOKINES

Interleukins evaluation revealed that the concentration of IL-6 decreased 12.7%, after the treatment ($p = 0.03$) (2.3 ± 1 versus 2 ± 0.9 pg/ml), and the levels of TNF-α, IL-10, IL-1β and IL-17A were similar before and after the intervention (Table I).

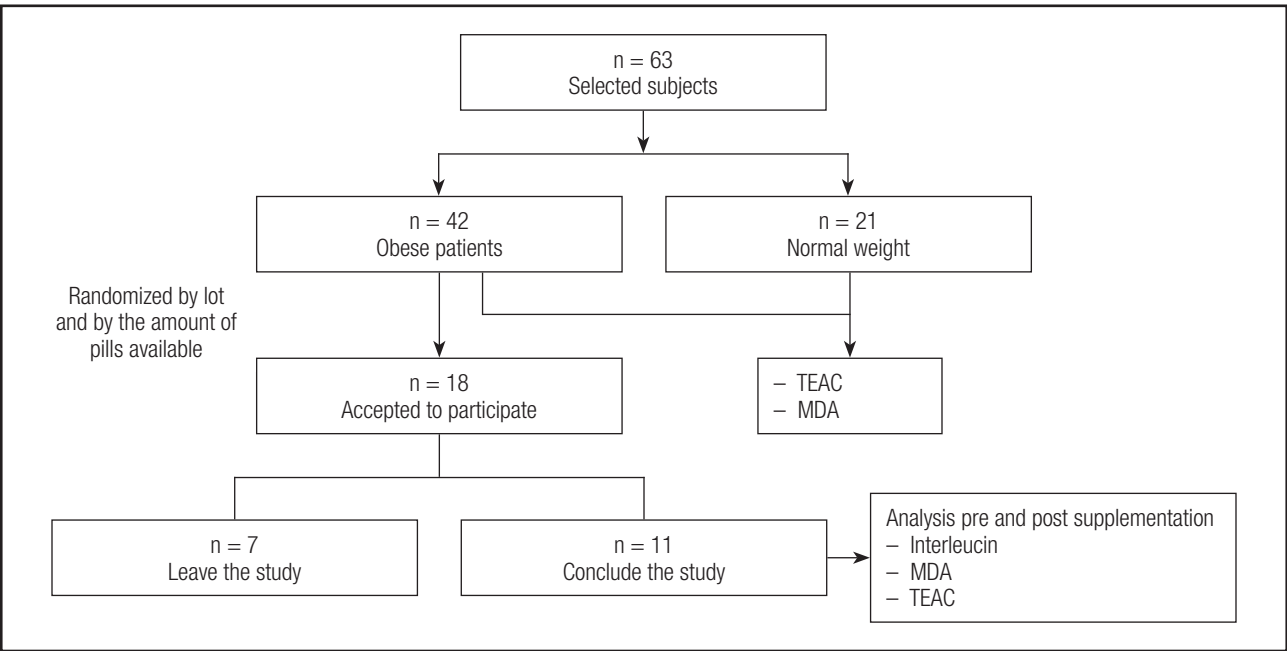


Figure 1.
Flowchart of the study design (MDA: malondialdehyde; TEAC: trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity).

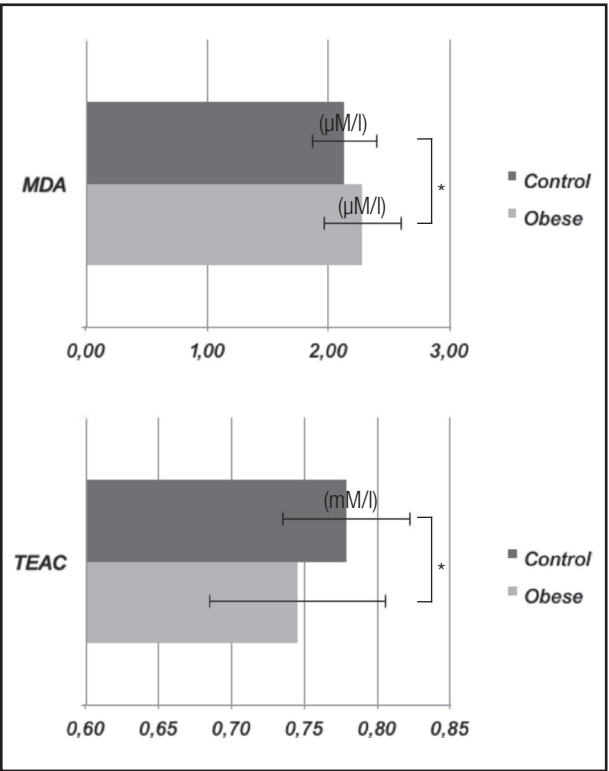


Figure 2.
Means of MDA and TEAC values of serum samples from normal weight and obese women (MDA: malondialdehyde; TEAC: trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity). * $p < 0.05$).

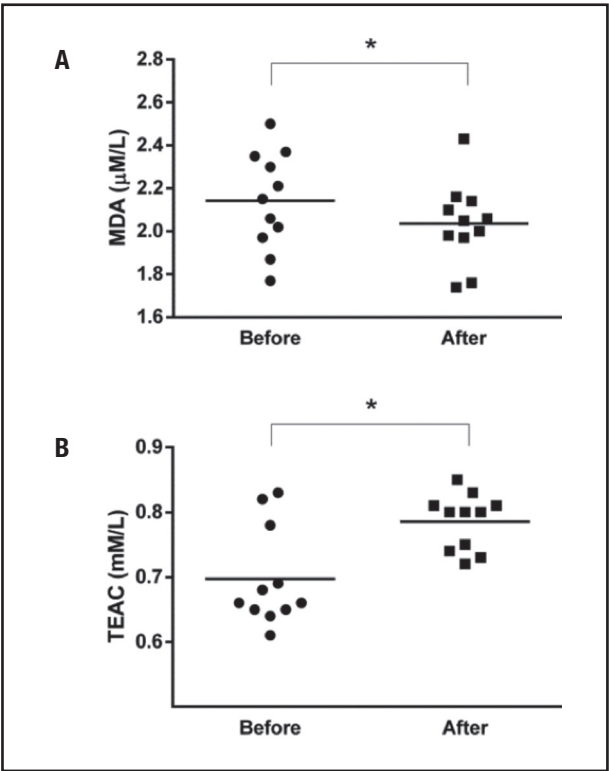


Figure 3.
Oxidative stress biomarkers in obese women before and after green tea supplementation. A. MDA values. B. TEAC values. * $p < 0.05$ (MDA: malondialdehyde; TEAC: trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity).

Table I. Inflammatory biomarkers in obese women before and after green tea supplementation

	TNF-α	IL-6*	IL-10	IL-1β	IL-4	IL-17a
Before	11.6 ($\pm$ 14.20)	2.3 ($\pm$ 1.04)	1.8 ($\pm$ 0.59)	8.1 ($\pm$ 6.07)	51.7 ($\pm$ 37.35)	6.0 ($\pm$ 16.53)
After	11.4 ($\pm$ 14.35)	2 ($\pm$ 0.95)	1.8 ($\pm$ 0.55)	8.2 ($\pm$ 6.52)	55.4 ($\pm$ 40.10)	6.4 ($\pm$ 17.71)

* $p < 0.05$. All values are represented in pg/ml.

DISCUSSION

In this study we found that obese women had lower capacity based on TEAC and MDA biomarkers. Obese women that received GT supplementation seemed to have their antioxidant and anti-inflammatory capacity improved, once TEAC, MDA and IL-6 levels significantly changed after the treatment. Since MDA is related to lipid peroxidation in cellular membranes and TEAC reveals the total antioxidant capacity, it can be assumed that after treatment obese subjects improved their oxidative stress status and also ameliorated the inflammatory response, which can be reflected by IL-6 decreasing.

Serum levels of MDA and TEAC are indicators of lipid peroxidation and capacity of fighting free radicals, respectively. In the present study, serum MDA levels were higher in obese than in non-obese women, corroborating previous studies that have first described that relation (7,28). Compared to the normal weight group, our data revealed lower TEAC values for obese; this result allows the inverse relation of TEAC and BMI to be considered. Bloomer and Fisher-Wellman (2009) (6) reported significant differences in TEAC between eutrophic and obese women after high fat diet ingestion. This study reflects how BMI is probably related to differences in the total antioxidant capacity; TEAC was also reduced in obese subjects after the diet intervention. Overall results obtained in the present study suggest that normal weight women have better antioxidant ability and less macromolecules damage caused by lipid peroxidation when compared to obese subjects. Olusi (2002) describes that it might happen because obese people normally have a high lipid and low antioxidant diet ingestion (7).

In addition, some authors believe that increased oxidative stress biomarkers in obese are directly related to a chronic low-grade inflammation status (16). Green tea was chosen for the treatment because it has both antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties already described (29). However, there is no consensus in the literature regarding the optimum dose of polyphenols. Daily supplementation of 379 mg of GT had positive effects on oxidative stress and inflammatory biomarkers (30). Polyphenols may affect oxidative stress by enhancing antioxidant enzyme production, such as glutathione, which is rich in thiol groups that are well known reducing agents and thanks to their chemical structure they are able to directly inhibit ROS generation (31).

Our data revealed that 450 mg of EGCG supplementation leads to an increase in TEAC, corroborating the literature. Henning et al. (2004) (32) observed that TEAC was increased after 386.5 mg GT consumption in non-obese subjects. Rice-Evans (1999) (33) reported that EGCG has a good ability in scavenging free radical species, especially in the ABTS^{•+} radical test. Capodice

et al. (2015) (34) results showed no modifications in TEAC with treatments during four weeks. Therefore, our results showed a MDA decrement after GT administration and this result corroborates some studies from colleagues. Spadiene et al. (2014) (35) also reported that MDA decreased after a 9-18 months treatment with 400-500 mg of GT, as well as other research groups that also observed this results using different therapeutic approaches (36). Our results suggest that oxidative stress biomarkers were sensitive to GT supplementation, and it is important to emphasize that further studies are needed to pinpoint the best treatment parameters for obese supplementation.

The interleukin analysis showed that the serum levels were similar in obese before and after treatment. This results corroborate Basu and Sánchez (2010) findings, which described a discrete effect on plasma cytokines after eight weeks and emphasized a decrease trend in IL-6 level (37). However, our data showed that IL-6 decreased significantly after GT treatment, and this is in accordance with Lu et al. (2012), who showed a reduction in IL-6 gene and protein expression in mice, after GT supplementation (38). Jung et al. (2008) reported that a 12-week GT treatment led to the reduction of both TNF- α and IL-6 in obese subjects (39). Bogdanski et al. (2012) showed that a three-month treatment with 379 mg of GT resulted in decreased levels of TNF- α (30). Maybe the differences between observed effects on TNF- α and other cytokines are due to the daily dosage and duration of the GT supplementation program.

Cytokines play an important role in signaling and mediating inflammation in obesity and in other inflammatory chronic diseases. Some authors describe that greater IL-6 levels are related to an antioxidant unbalance (40) and even may contribute to the disrupting signal transduction in insulin pathways, leading to insulin resistance and contributing to the development of type 2 diabetes and obesity (11).

There is a wide discussion about the administration of GT and its effects on antioxidant systems and inflammatory cytokines and about their efficacy for obese treatment. Further studies should be done to elucidate mechanisms of action and the best dose, extraction method and administration period. The GT effects described in this study may contribute to drug discovery, alternative and complementary therapies to obesity control.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

The GT intervention did not have an associated control or a placebo group; furthermore, no other dosage was tested (greater or smaller)

in different periods. Financial limitations prevented GT supplementation for all subjects involved in this study. In addition, the sample size was selected according to the number of clinical appointments performed at the outpatient clinic who met the inclusion criteria.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the supplementation of decaffeinated GT extract in women with grade III obesity can improve the biomarkers of oxidative stress and serum level of IL-6. Therefore, based on these results, it is recommended that the intake of GT could be an adjunct practice to the treatment of obesity.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Asociación del polimorfismo rs3751812 del gen *FTO* con marcadores de adiposidad y metabólicos en población chilena. Resultados del estudio GENADIO

Association of rs3751812 polymorphism of the FTO gene with adiposity and metabolic markers in Chilean population. Results of the GENADIO study

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Resumen

Antecedentes: el gen *FTO* presenta las variantes genéticas que confieren el mayor riesgo de obesidad hasta ahora identificado. Se han reportado asociaciones de polimorfismos del gen *FTO* y alteraciones de marcadores metabólicos en diversas poblaciones, pero no en chilenos. El objetivo de este estudio fue investigar la asociación del polimorfismo rs3751812 con marcadores de adiposidad y metabólicos en adultos chilenos.

Métodos: se determinó el genotipo del *FTO* en 409 participantes del estudio GENADIO. Se evaluaron marcadores de adiposidad (peso corporal, índice de masa corporal [IMC], % de masa grasa y perímetro de cintura), marcadores metabólicos (glicemia, insulina, HOMA_{IR}, colesterol total, colesterol LDL, colesterol HDL, triglicéridos, leptina, ALT, GGT, PCRus) y presión arterial. La asociación entre el genotipo *FTO* y los distintos marcadores se realizó mediante análisis de regresión lineal.

Resultados: tras ajustar los marcadores por las variables de confusión, se evidenció una asociación significativa de los genotipos de riesgo con todos los marcadores de adiposidad estudiados y con los marcadores metabólicos: insulina, HOMA_{IR}, leptina y colesterol HDL ($p < 0,05$). Para colesterol total, triglicéridos, colesterol LDL, ALT, GGT y PCRus, la asociación perdió significancia al ajustar por IMC.

Conclusión: este estudio revela que existe una asociación entre el polimorfismo rs3751812 del gen *FTO* con obesidad, hiperinsulinemia, hiperleptinemia y bajos niveles de colesterol HDL en la población chilena, lo que podría aumentar el riesgo de desarrollar diabetes mellitus tipo II y síndrome metabólico.

Palabras clave:

Obesidad. Diabetes mellitus tipo 2. *FTO*. rs3751812. Genética.

Abstract

Background: genetic variants of the *FTO* gene confer the highest risk of obesity identified so far. Associations between the *FTO* gene and alterations in metabolic markers have been reported in different populations but not in Chileans. The aim of this study was therefore to investigate the association of rs3751812 gene polymorphism with adiposity and metabolic markers in the Chilean adult population.

Methods: genotype of the *FTO* gene was determined in 409 participants from the GENADIO study. Adiposity markers (body weight, BMI, % fat mass and waist circumference), metabolic markers (glycemia, insulin, HOMA_{IR}, total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol, triglycerides, leptin, ALT, GGT, PCRhs) and blood pressure were measured. The association between the *FTO* genotype and the different markers was determined using linear regression analyses.

Results: there was an association between the polymorphism and all adiposity markers as well as insulin, HOMA_{IR}, leptin and HDL cholesterol ($p < 0.05$) in the fully adjusted model. For total cholesterol, triglycerides, LDL cholesterol, ALT, GGT and PCRhs, the association disappeared after adjustment by body mass index.

Conclusion: our findings verify the association between the *FTO* rs3751812 polymorphism with obesity, hyperinsulinemia, hyperleptinemia and lower levels of HDL cholesterol in the Chilean population. These alterations could increase the risk of diabetes mellitus type II and metabolic syndrome.

Key words:

Obesity. Diabetes mellitus type 2. *FTO*. rs3751812. Genetic.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La obesidad constituye uno de los principales factores de riesgo modificables para el desarrollo de patologías crónicas, entre ellas, la diabetes mellitus II (DMT2) (1). Estudios epidemiológicos evidencian que alrededor del 80% de los individuos con esta patología presentan sobrepeso u obesidad, lo que origina una serie de alteraciones fisiopatológicas que contribuyen a su desarrollo (2). Este escenario ha motivado la introducción del término “diabetes”, que hace referencia a la estrecha relación entre estas dos patologías. En Chile, la vinculación entre la obesidad y la DMT2 se verifica a partir de los resultados de la Encuesta Nacional de Salud 2016-2017, donde se observa una prevalencia de un 12,3% y 31,2%, respectivamente (3), datos mayores que lo reportado en encuestas anteriores (4). Estos índices ubican a Chile como uno de los países con mayor prevalencia de obesidad y DMT2 en Latinoamérica (5).

Un estilo de vida poco saludable, caracterizado por una excesiva ingesta energética sostenida en el tiempo y falta de actividad física (AF), es uno de los principales factores asociados al aumento de la obesidad y sus comorbilidades (1,6,7). No obstante, estudios de concordancia fenotípica de gemelos revelan, además, un importante componente genético, estimado en un 70% para la obesidad y en un 35% para la DMT2 (8). Hasta ahora, los polimorfismos de nucleótido único (SNP) en el primer intrón del gen *FTO* (*fat mass and obesity associated gene*) se han definido como las variantes genéticas que confieren mayor riesgo de obesidad. En esta región se han identificado más de diez polimorfismos, entre los que destacan los SNP rs9939609 y rs3751812, correspondientes a transversiones de A por T y G por T, respectivamente (9).

Investigaciones previas han verificado ampliamente la asociación entre el SNP rs9939609 del gen *FTO* y obesidad en diversas poblaciones, incluida la chilena (10,11). Sin embargo, para otros SNP como el rs3751812, se reporta un reducido número de estudios de asociación (12). Similar situación ocurre con marcadores metabólicos relacionados con DMT2, los cuales se han asociado al SNP rs9939609 del gen *FTO* en numerosas poblaciones, pero en menor medida con el SNP rs3751812 (13-15). Considerando la ausencia de estudios de asociación de este polimorfismo del gen *FTO* con marcadores metabólicos en Chile, el objetivo de este estudio fue investigar la asociación del SNP rs3751812 del gen *FTO* con marcadores de adiposidad y metabólicos en población adulta chilena.

MATERIALES Y MÉTODOS

La muestra seleccionada comprende a 409 individuos pertenecientes al estudio GENADIO, genotipificados por SNP rs3751812 en el gen *FTO*. El proyecto GENADIO fue realizado en Chile entre los años 2009-2011 con el objetivo de evaluar la prevalencia de factores de riesgo de enfermedades cardiovasculares en Chile. La población estudiada estuvo compuesta por 409 individuos, seleccionados con un rango de edad entre 20 y 60 años, de ascen-

dencia mapuche o europea de las regiones del Biobío, Los Ríos y Metropolitana, sin historial médico de enfermedad metabólica o cardiovascular y sin prescripción de antihipertensivos ni hipoglucemiantes (16). Para la selección de participantes de ascendencia mapuche o europea y el descarte de individuos de ascendencia mestiza, se incluyeron solo aquellos cuyos apellidos paterno y materno fuesen de origen mapuche o europeo, respectivamente. Además, para la selección de mapuches, se descartaron aquellos cuyo grupo sanguíneo fuese distinto al grupo O. El reclutamiento de los participantes se realizó mediante invitaciones abiertas a la comunidad o por intermedio de organizaciones comunitarias como centros de atención de salud primaria, centros educativos o clubes sociales. El estudio contó con la aprobación de los comités de Ética de la Universidad de Chile, Universidad de Concepción y Universidad de Glasgow en Reino Unido. Todos los participantes firmaron su consentimiento informado previo a la recolección de datos.

DETERMINACIÓN DE VARIANTES ALÉLICAS DEL GEN *FTO*

Para la genotipificación del SNP rs3751812, del gen *FTO*, se obtuvo ADN genómico desde leucocitos periféricos mediante el kit QIAamp® DNA Blood Midi Kit (QIAGEN, Ltd., UK). La discriminación alélica se realizó mediante *polymerase chain reaction* (PCR) de tiempo real en termociclador ABI 7900-HT. La detección del polimorfismo rs3751812 se realizó por la metodología TaqMan® Pre-Designed SNP Genotyping Assay con sondas específicas para el SNP. Los análisis fueron realizados en duplicado, con un 98% de éxito en la determinación del genotipo.

MARCADORES DE ADIPOSIDAD

La evaluación antropométrica se realizó por personal capacitado utilizando protocolos estandarizados (17). El peso corporal y la talla fueron determinados con una balanza electrónica (Tanita® TBF 300A, USA) y tallímetro (Seca® A800, USA) con una precisión de 100 g y 1 mm, respectivamente. El perímetro de cintura (PC) fue medido con una cinta métrica no distensible (Seca® Modelo 201, USA). El estado nutricional fue clasificado en base a los puntos de corte del índice de masa corporal (IMC) de la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS) para adultos: bajo peso: < 18,5 kg/m²; normal: 18,5-24,9 kg/m²; sobrepeso: 25,0-29,9 kg/m²; y obesidad: ≥ 30,0 kg/m² (18). Los valores utilizados para definir obesidad central fueron los siguientes: PC ≥ 102 y ≥ 88 cm en hombres y mujeres, respectivamente. La composición corporal se determinó mediante la medición de cuatro pliegues cutáneos (bicipital, subescapular, suprailíaco y tricipital) según los protocolos sugeridos por la Asociación Internacional de Cineantropometría (ISAK) (16). El algoritmo de Durnin y Womersley fue aplicado según el protocolo ISAK para la estimación del porcentaje de masa grasa (19).

MARCADORES METABÓLICOS Y PRESIÓN ARTERIAL

Las muestras sanguíneas fueron obtenidas por punción venosa tras 10-12 horas de ayuno. La glicemia basal, el colesterol total (CT), el colesterol HDL (cHDL) y los triglicéridos (TG) se analizaron por métodos enzimáticos de punto final (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Alemania) y las enzimas hepáticas gamma-glutamyltransferasa (GGT) y alanina aminotransferasa (ALT) se determinaron mediante ensayos de cinética enzimática (Randox Laboratories Ltd., Co. Antrim, Irlanda). El colesterol LDL (cLDL) se determinó usando la ecuación de Friedewald (20). La insulina y la leptina fueron determinadas por ELISA (Diagnostic System Labs, TX, Estados Unidos, y Linco Research Inc, St. Louis MO, Estados Unidos) y el Homeostasis Model Assessment of Insulin Resistance ($HOMA_{IR}$) fue determinado a través de la fórmula: $\text{insulinemia en ayunas } (\mu\text{U/ml}) \times \text{glicemia en ayunas } (\text{mg/dl}) / 405$. La proteína C reactiva ultrasensible (PCRus) se midió mediante inmunoturbidimetría (Kamiya Biomedical, Seattle, Estados Unidos). Cada determinación fue realizada en duplicado y se registró el promedio. Las presiones arteriales sistólica (PAS) y diastólica (PAD) fueron tomadas con un tensiómetro automático en posición supina después de un periodo de diez minutos de descanso (Omron M10-IT Healthcare UK Limited, Milton Keynes, Reino Unido).

VARIABLES SOCIODEMOGRÁFICAS Y DE ESTILO DE VIDA

Los datos sociodemográficos (edad, sexo, zona de residencia, nivel educacional, ingresos económicos, etnia) y los datos asociados con estilos de vida, como el tabaquismo, fueron recolectados mediante encuestas validadas (16). La medición de *fitness* cardiorrespiratorio se realizó mediante Chester Step Test y el resultado de la prueba fue en *metabolic energy equivalents* (METs), siguiendo las recomendaciones descritas por Buckley et al. (21). Los niveles de AF y el tiempo sedente fueron estimados por acelerometría de movimiento (Actigraph GTM1, Estados Unidos). La intensidad de la AF y el gasto energético se determinaron mediante el algoritmo de Freedson (22).

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Los datos de caracterización de la población estudiada son presentados como promedio y desviación estándar (DE) para variables continuas y como porcentaje para variables categóricas.

Para investigar la asociación entre el polimorfismo rs3751812, del gen *FTO* y los marcadores de adiposidad (peso corporal, IMC, PC, y % de masa grasa), se realizó un análisis de regresión lineal. El mismo análisis fue realizado para investigar su asociación con marcadores metabólicos (glicemia, insulina, $HOMA_{IR}$, CT, cHDL, cLDL, TG, ALT, GGT, PCRus y leptina) y presión arterial (PAS y PAD).

El genotipo del SNP rs3751812, del gen *FTO*, fue categorizado siguiendo un modelo genético aditivo (0 = GG - homocigoto para el

alelo protector; 1 = GT - heterocigoto para el alelo de riesgo; 2 = TT - homocigoto para el alelo de riesgo) y, posteriormente, mediante análisis de regresión lineal, se estimó el incremento en la variable de adiposidad por cada copia adicional de la variante de riesgo (alelo T). Estos resultados fueron presentados como promedio o coeficiente beta con su respectivo intervalo de confianza del 95% (95% IC).

Para determinar qué marcadores presentaban una mayor asociación con el SNP del gen *FTO* estudiado, todas las variables fueron estandarizadas a z-score; por ello, estos resultados fueron presentados como coeficiente beta estandarizado y sus respectivo 95% IC por cada copia adicional del alelo de riesgo del gen *FTO*.

Los datos de marcadores de adiposidad fueron ajustados por variables de confusión mediante la utilización de tres modelos estadísticos: modelo 0, sin ajustar; modelo 1, ajustado por edad, sexo, etnia, nivel educacional, ingreso económico, nivel socioeconómico y zona de residencia (urbano/rural); y modelo 2, ajustado por el modelo 1, pero también por AF, tiempo sedente y tabaquismo. Para los datos de marcadores metabólicos (incluida la presión arterial) se realizaron ajustes adicionales mediante los siguientes modelos: modelo 3, ajustado por el modelo 2, pero también por IMC. La distribución del equilibrio de Hardy-Weinberg, de los alelos del gen *FTO*, fue evaluada mediante el test Chi-cuadrado. Para todos los análisis se utilizó el programa Stata SE v14. El nivel de significancia fue definido como $p < 0,05$.

RESULTADOS

En la tabla I se presentan las características generales de la población según genotipo (GG, GT, TT). No se observan diferencias en las variables sociodemográficas, de estilo de vida ni en cuanto a los parámetros de AF entre los individuos con alelos de riesgo (GT y TT), respecto a individuos con el genotipo protector GG. Por otro lado, y tal como se observa en la tabla II, la frecuencia de los alelos del gen *FTO* en la población se distribuye según el equilibrio de Hardy-Weinberg, correspondiente a 0,701 para el alelo G y de 0,299 para el alelo T ($\chi^2 = 0,586$).

Los resultados de la asociación entre el SNP rs3751812, del gen *FTO*, y variables de adiposidad se presentan en la tabla III y en la figura 1. Estos resultados revelan que, en el modelo no ajustado, todos los marcadores de adiposidad incrementan significativamente por cada copia extra del alelo de riesgo (T) del gen *FTO* ($p < 0,0001$). El incremento en los marcadores de adiposidad, por cada copia del alelo de riesgo, fue equivalente a 3,88 kg para peso corporal, 1,58 kg/m² para IMC, 2,98 cm para PC y 1,27% para masa grasa. Tras ajustar por las variables de confusión (modelos 1 y 2), la asociación entre el polimorfismo estudiado y estos marcadores de adiposidad se mantuvo estadísticamente significativa (Fig. 1).

Los resultados de la asociación del SNP rs3751812, del gen *FTO*, con marcadores metabólicos se presentan en la tabla IV. Las asociaciones encontradas pueden ser categorizadas en tres grupos: a) marcadores cuya asociación con *FTO* es independiente de todos los factores de confusión (Fig. 2); b) marcadores que presentan asociación con *FTO*, pero que no permanece significativa al ajustar por IMC; y, finalmente, c) marcadores que no presentan asociación alguna con *FTO*, incluso en el modelo no ajustado.

Tabla I. Características de la población según el genotipo *FTO* (rs3751812)

	<i>FTO</i> (rs3751812)		
	GG	GT	TT
n	203	167	39
Edad (años)	35,2 ± 13,2	37,8 ± 12,0	44,1 ± 13,3
Sexo, % mujeres	56,2	53,3	71,8
Zona geográfica urbana, %	40,4	56,9	59,0
<i>Etnia</i> (%)			
Europea	43,8	56,9	51,3
Mapuche	56,2	43,1	48,7
<i>Nivel educacional</i> (%)			
Básico	23,0	24,8	36,4
Enseñanza media	43,7	42,7	42,4
Técnico/universitario	33,3	32,5	21,2
<i>Ingresos</i> (%)			
Bajo	39,9	38,2	42,4
Medio	11,0	13,4	9,1
Alto	49,2	48,4	48,5
<i>Tabaquismo</i> (%)			
Sí	49,3	52,1	66,7
No	50,7	47,9	33,33
<i>Actividad física y fitness</i>			
Actividad física (MET/min/semana)	922,0 ± 280,6	865,4 ± 278,1	879,1 ± 328,2
Tiempo sedentario (min/día)	508,4 ± 87,6	531,8 ± 92,3	549,2 ± 95,9

Datos presentados como promedio y desviación estándar (DE) para variables continuas y como % para variables categóricas. MET: metabolic energy equivalents.

Tabla II. Frecuencia del genotipo de *FTO* (rs3751812)

rs 3751812	n	Frecuencia %	Frecuencia de alelos	Valor p para HWE
GG	203	49,6	0,701	0,586
GT	167	40,8		
TT	39	9,5	0,299	

HWE: equilibrio de Hardy Weinberg.

Entre los marcadores metabólicos que presentan asociación independiente de todos los factores de confusión, incluidos en los modelos 1 al 3, se encuentran: insulina, leptina, HOMA_{IR} y cHDL (Fig. 2). La asociación se mantiene significativa para estos marcadores incluso cuando se ajusta por PC o % de masa grasa (datos no mostrados). En el modelo más ajustado (modelo 3), la presencia de cada copia del alelo de riesgo aumenta los niveles de insulina en 3,38 μ U/ml, lo que se traduce en un incremento de insulina sobre el rango normal para el genotipo con dos alelos de riesgo (TT). Consistentemente con lo anterior, el HOMA_{IR} presenta un aumento de 0,81 unidades por cada copia del alelo de riesgo del gen *FTO*, elevándose sobre el rango normal con la presencia de solo un alelo de riesgo (genotipos GT y TT). Respecto a la leptina, se observó un aumento de 2,01 ng/ml por cada copia del alelo de riesgo. Por su parte, el cHDL presentó una asociación negativa con *FTO*, observándose una reducción de 2,65 mg/dl por cada copia del alelo de riesgo, conduciendo a niveles bajo

el rango normal para hombres y mujeres. Entre los marcadores metabólicos que presentan una asociación con el polimorfismo que se pierde tras ajustar por IMC (modelo 3), se encuentran: CT, TG, cLDL, ALT, GGT y PCRus. Por último, en el grupo de los marcadores que no presentan asociación alguna con *FTO* se encuentran glicemia, PAS y PAD (Tabla IV).

Finalmente, para comparar la fuerza de asociación del polimorfismo con los marcadores estudiados, se calcularon los coeficientes beta estandarizados para todos los marcadores luego de ajustar por todas las variables de confusión (Fig. 3). Se observa que la magnitud de las asociaciones de los marcadores que se asocian con el polimorfismo del gen *FTO*, independiente de todos los factores de confusión, decrece en el siguiente orden: peso corporal (0,37 unidades de DE), IMC (0,36 unidades de DE), HOMA_{IR} (0,29 unidades DE), insulina (0,28 unidades de DE), PC (0,23 unidades DE), % de masa grasa (0,23 unidades DE), cHDL (-0,18 unidades DE) y leptina (0,16 unidades de DE).

Tabla III. Asociación entre el genotipo del *FTO* (rs3751812) con marcadores de adiposidad

Variables	FTO (rs3751812)			Efecto del modelo genético aditivo	Valor p
	GG	GT	TT		
Peso corporal (kg)					
Modelo 0	68,6 (67,2; 69,9)	72,3 (70,7; 73,0)	76,5(73,3; 79,7)	3,88 (2,39; 5,37)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	68,6 (67,3; 67,0)	72,0 (70,6; 73,5)	77,2 (74,2; 80,4)	3,98 (2,53; 5,44)	< 0,0001
Modelo 2	68,7 (67,3; 70,0)	72,04(70,6; 73,5)	76,9 (73,8; 79,9)	3,81 (2,37; 5,26)	< 0,0001
IMC (kg/m²)					
Modelo 0	27,0 (26,5; 27,5)	28,5 (28,0; 29,1)	30,2 (29,1; 31,4)	1,58 (1,05; 2,12)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	27,0 (26,6; 27,5)	28,6 (28,1; 29,1)	29,7 (28,6; 30,8)	1,41 (0,89; 1,93)	< 0,0001
Modelo 2	27,0 (26,6; 27,6)	28,6 (28,1; 29,1)	29,5 (28,4; 30,6)	1,33 (0,82; 1,85)	< 0,0001
Perímetro de cintura (cm)					
Modelo 0	95,1 (93,7; 96,6)	97,6 (96,0; 99,3)	101,7 (98,3; 105,0)	2,98 (1,39; 4,56)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	95,3 (93,8; 96,8)	97,6 (96,0; 99,2)	101,0 (97,6; 104,7)	2,63 (1,04; 4,23)	0,001
Modelo 2	95,4 (93,9; 96,8)	97,6 (96,0; 99,2)	100,6 (97,3; 104,0)	2,48 (0,89; 4,01)	0,002
% masa grasa					
Modelo 0	28,8 (28,1; 29,4)	29,9 (29,2; 30,6)	31,6 (30,2; 33,0)	1,33 (0,67; 1,99)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	28,8 (28,1; 29,3)	30,1 (29,4; 30,7)	30,9 (29,6; 32,2)	1,16 (0,53; 1,79)	< 0,0001
Modelo 2	28,8 (28,2; 29,4)	30,1 (29,5; 30,7)	30,8 (29,4; 32,0)	1,08 (0,45; 1,70)	0,001

Datos presentados como promedio y 95% IC según genotipo. El modelo genético aditivo indica el promedio de incremento en la variable de adiposidad por cada copia adicional de la variante de riesgo (T). El efecto aditivo y su respectivo 95% IC fueron determinados mediante regresión lineal. Los análisis fueron ajustados por: modelo 0, sin ajustar; modelo 1, ajustado por edad, sexo, etnia, nivel educacional, ingreso económico, nivel socioeconómico y zona de residencia (urbana/rural); modelo 2, ajustado por el modelo 1 pero también por actividad física, tiempo sedente y tabaquismo.

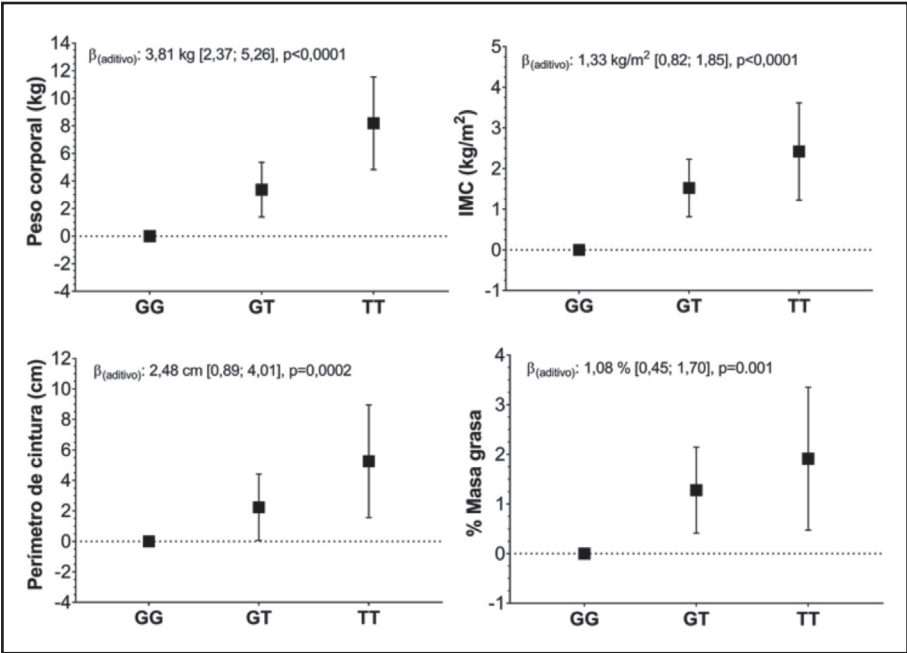


Figura 1.

Asociación entre el genotipo del *FTO* (rs3751812) con marcadores de adiposidad. Datos presentados como diferencias entre el alelo protector (G) y los genotipos con la variante de riesgo (T) y sus respectivos 95% IC. El modelo genético aditivo indica el promedio de incremento en la variable de adiposidad por cada copia adicional de la variante de riesgo (T). Los análisis fueron ajustados por: edad, sexo, etnia, nivel educacional, ingreso económico, nivel socioeconómico, zona de residencia (urbana/rural), actividad física, tiempo sedente y tabaquismo.

Tabla IV. Asociación entre el genotipo del *FTO* (rs3751812) con marcadores metabólicos

Variables	FTO (rs3751812)			Efecto del modelo genético aditivo	Valor p
	GG	GT	TT		
Glicemia (mg/dl)					
Modelo 0	97,7 (94,6; 100,9)	99,3 (95,4; 103,3)	101,0 (94,1; 108,0)	1,61 (-1,78; 5,00)	0,349
Modelo 1	98,6 (99,6; 101,7)	98,9 (95,0; 102,7)	98,0 (91,1; 104,9)	-0,24 (-3,48; 3,23)	0,942
Modelo 2	98,8 (95,8; 101,8)	98,9 (95,1; 102,6)	97,2 (90,4; 104,1)	-0,48 (-3,79; 2,84)	0,778
Modelo 3	98,9 (95,8; 102,0)	98,8 (94,9; 102,6)	97,0 (90,1; 103,9)	-0,69 (-0,23; 0,15)	0,690
Insulina (uU/ml)					
Modelo 0	6,9 (5,2; 8,7)	10,7 (8,6; 12,9)	16,5 (12,7; 20,4)	4,49 (2,61; 6,36)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	6,7 (5,1; 8,2)	11,3 (9,3; 13,2)	16,2 (12,6; 19,7)	4,70 (2,97; 6,42)	< 0,0001
Modelo 2	6,7 (5,2; 8,3)	11,3 (9,3; 13,2)	15,9 (12,4; 19,5)	4,58 (2,86; 6,31)	< 0,0001
Modelo 3	7,4 (5,9; 8,9)	10,6 (8,8; 12,5)	14,4 (11,0; 17,8)	3,38(1,70; 5,07)	< 0,0001
HOMA _{IR}					
Modelo 0	1,6 (1,3; 1,9)	2,7 (2,3; 3,2)	3,9 (3,0; 4,7)	1,12 (0,72; 1,51)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	1,6 (1,3; 2,0)	2,7 (2,3; 3,2)	3,8 (3,0; 4,6)	1,08 (0,69; 1,47)	< 0,0001
Modelo 2	1,6 (1,3; 2,00)	2,7 (2,3; 3,2)	3,8 (3,0; 4,6)	1,08 (0,69; 1,47)	< 0,0001
Modelo 3	1,8 (1,3; 2,2)	2,6 (2,2; 3,0)	3,4 (2,7; 4,2)	0,81 (0,42; 1,19)	< 0,0001
CT (mg/dl)					
Modelo 0	174,1 (167,5; 180,8)	192,6 (184,2; 200,9)	200,4 (185,6; 215,2)	14,85 (7,66; 22,04)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	176,0 (169,6; 182,4)	192,5 (184,4; 200,6)	191,3 (176,8; 205,9)	10,61 (3,52; 17,7)	0,003
Modelo 2	176,3 (170,0; 182,6)	192,5 (184,5; 200,5)	190,0 (175,5; 204,4)	9,97 (2,93; 17,0)	0,006
Modelo 3	180,4 (174,6; 186,2)	188,9 (181,6; 196,2)	181,0 (167,9; 194,2)	3,04 (-3,47; 9,5)	0,356
cHDL (mg/dl)					
Modelo 0	39,9 (37,8; 42,0)	33,4 (30,7; 36,0)	29,2 (24,5; 33,9)	-5,75 (8,04; 3,47)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	39,4 (37,4; 41,5)	33,4 (30,8; 36,0)	31,4 (26,7; 30,0)	-4,67 (-6,94; -2,40)	< 0,0001
Modelo 2	39,3 (37,3; 41,4)	33,4 (30,9; 36,0)	31,8 (27,1; 36,4)	-4,50 (-6,76; -2,24)	< 0,0001
Modelo 3	38,2 (36,3; 40,2)	34,4 (32,0; 36,8)	34,1 (29,7; 38,5)	-2,65 (-4,82; -0,48)	0,017
cLDL (mg/dl)					
Modelo 0	114,1 (107,0; 121,3)	136,5 (127,5; 145,6)	143,1 (127,1; 159,0)	17,04 (9,27; 24,80)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	116,0 (109,0; 122,9)	136,6 (127,9; 145,4)	133,3 (117,6; 149,0)	12,61 (4,94; 20,28)	0,001
Modelo 2	116,3 (109,4; 123,2)	136,6 (128,0; 145,2)	131,9 (116,3; 147,5)	11,95 (4,33; 19,57)	0,002
Modelo 3	120,7 (114,4; 127,0)	132,7 (124,8; 140,5)	122,4 (108,1; 136,6)	4,50 (-2,57; 11,58)	0,212
TG (mg/dl)					
Modelo 0	101,3 (93,3; 109,3)	114,3 (104,3; 124,4)	142,1 (124,3; 159,9)	18,03 (9,39; 26,67)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	103,5 (95,9; 111,2)	113,3 (103,7; 122,9)	134,4 (117,1; 151,7)	13,55 (5,15; 21,94)	0,002
Modelo 2	103,9 (96,3; 111,4)	113,2 (103,7; 122,7)	132,8 (115,7; 150,0)	12,78 (4,46; 21,11)	0,003
Modelo 3	107,8 (100,7; 115,0)	109,7 (100,7; 118,6)	124,2 (108,0; 140,4)	6,10 (-1,91; 14,12)	0,135

Datos presentados como promedio y 95% IC según genotipo. El modelo genético aditivo indica el promedio de incremento en la variable metabólica por cada copia adicional de la variante de riesgo (T). Este efecto aditivo y su respectivo 95% IC fue determinado mediante regresión lineal. Los análisis fueron ajustados por: modelo 0, sin ajustar; modelo 1, ajustado por edad, sexo, etnia, nivel educacional, ingreso económico, nivel socioeconómico y zona de residencia (urbana/rural); modelo 2, ajustado por el modelo 1 pero también por AF, tiempo sedente y tabaquismo; modelo 3, ajustado por modelo 2 pero también IMC. HOMA_{IR}: homeostatic model assessment; CT: colesterol total; TG: triglicéridos; ALT: alanina aminotransferasa; GGT: gamma-glutamyltransferasa; PCRus: proteína C reactiva ultra sensible; PAS: presión arterial sistólica; PAD: presión arterial diastólica.

(Continúa en la página siguiente)

Tabla IV (Cont.). Asociación entre el genotipo del *FTO* (rs3751812) con marcadores metabólicos

Variables	FTO (rs3751812)			Efecto del modelo genético aditivo	Valor p
	GG	GT	TT		
Leptina (ng/ml)					
Modelo 0	12,4 (10,6; 14,2)	14,2 (11,9; 16,5)	20,8 (16,7; 24,8)	3,40 (1,45; 5,36)	0,001
Modelo 1	12,3 (10,6; 14,1)	14,6 (12,4; 16,8)	19,9 (16,0; 23,9)	3,29 (1,39; 5,19)	0,001
Modelo 2	12,3 (10,6; 14,1)	14,6 (12,4; 16,8)	19,9 (16,0; 23,8)	3,27 (1,36; 5,18)	0,001
Modelo 3	13,1 (11,4; 14,8)	13,9 (11,8; 16,0)	18,3 (14,5; 22,1)	2,01 (0,14; 3,90)	0,036
ALT (UI/l)					
Modelo 0	33,6 (30,4; 36,7)	39,8 (35,8; 40,7)	46,0 (39,0; 52,9)	6,18 (2,81; 9,56)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	34,0 (30,9; 37,1)	39,8 (35,8; 43,6)	43,7 (36,8; 50,9)	5,21 (1,79; 8,62)	0,003
Modelo 2	34,2 (31,2; 37,2)	39,7 (35,9; 43,5)	42,8 (35,9; 49,7)	4,72 (1,39; 8,05)	0,006
Modelo 3	36,3 (32,3; 38,2)	38,8 (35,1; 42,5)	40,5 (33,8; 47,3)	2,92 (-0,41; 6,25)	0,085
GGT (UI/l)					
Modelo 0	31,8 (27,5; 30,1)	38,8 (33,4; 40,3)	48,2 (38,6; 57,8)	7,83 (3,17; 12,49)	0,001
Modelo 1	32,1 (28,0; 36,2)	39,1 (34,0; 44,3)	45,9 (36,6; 55,2)	6,97 (2,47; 11,47)	0,002
Modelo 2	32,2 (28,2; 36,3)	39,1 (34,0; 44,2)	45,0 (35,8; 54,2)	6,54 (2,09; 11,0)	0,004
Modelo 3	33,5 (29,5; 37,5)	38,0 (32,9; 43,0)	42,2 (33,1; 51,3)	4,36 (-0,12; 8,84)	0,054
PCRus (mg/l)					
Modelo 0	1,10 (0,91; 1,29)	1,48 (1,24; 1,72)	2,08 (1,66; 2,50)	0,45 (0,25; 0,66)	< 0,0001
Modelo 1	1,14(0,95; 1,32)	1,50 (1,26; 1,72)	1,87 (1,45; 2,29)	0,36 (0,16; 0,56)	0,001
Modelo 2	1,14 (0,97; 1,33)	1,49 (1,26; 1,72)	1,83 (1,41; 2,24)	0,34 (0,14; 0,54)	0,001
Modelo 3	1,26 (1,09; 1,42)	1,39 (1,18; 1,60)	(1,591,21; 1,97)	0,16 (-0,03; 0,35)	0,102
PAS (mmHg)					
Modelo 0	122,0 (119,6; 124,4)	123,1 (120,5; 125,7)	124,4 (118,9; 129,8)	1,15 (-1,41; 3,70)	0,378
Modelo 1	122,8 (120,6; 125,0)	122,8 (120,3; 125,2)	121,5 (116,3; 126,6)	-0,41 (-2,83; 2,00)	0,737
Modelo 2	122,9 (120,6; 125,1)	122,8 (120,3; 125,2)	121,1 (116,0; 126,3)	-0,55 (-2,98; 1,87)	0,654
Modelo 3	123,4 (121,2; 125,7)	122,3 (119,9; 124,5)	120,1 (114,9; 125,2)	-1,47 (-3,95; 1,00)	0,242
PAD (mmHg)					
Modelo 0	75,2 (73,5; 76,8)	75,8 (74,0; 77,7)	73,4 (72,6; 80,2)	0,63 (-1,84; 3,16)	0,605
Modelo 1	75,4 (73,8; 77,2)	75,3 (73,9; 77,6)	74,9 (71,1; 78,8)	-0,09 (-1,89; 1,71)	0,923
Modelo 2	75,6 (73,9; 77,2)	75,7 (73,9; 77,2)	74,6 (70,8; 78,4)	-0,24 (-2,04; 1,56)	0,795
Modelo 3	76,0 (74,3; 77,6)	75,4 (73,6; 77,2)	73,9 (70,1; 77,7)	-0,84 (-2,68; 1,00)	0,372

Datos presentados como promedio y 95% IC según genotipo. El modelo genético aditivo indica el promedio de incremento en la variable metabólica por cada copia adicional de la variante de riesgo (T). Este efecto aditivo y su respectivo 95% IC fue determinado mediante regresión lineal. Los análisis fueron ajustados por: modelo 0, sin ajustar; modelo 1, ajustado por edad, sexo, etnia, nivel educacional, ingreso económico, nivel socioeconómico y zona de residencia (urbana/rural); modelo 2, ajustado por el modelo 1 pero también por AF, tiempo sedente y tabaquismo; modelo 3, ajustado por modelo 2 pero también IMC, HOMA_{IR}, homeostatic model assessment; CT: colesterol total; TG: triglicéridos; ALT: alanina aminotransferasa; GGT: gamma-glutamyltransferasa; PCRus: proteína C reactiva ultra sensible; PAS: presión arterial sistólica; PAD: presión arterial diastólica.

DISCUSIÓN

Los principales resultados de este estudio demuestran una asociación entre el SNP rs3751812, del gen *FTO*, con peso corporal, IMC, % de masa grasa, PC y con los marcadores metabólicos insulina, HOMA_{IR}, leptina y cHDL. Un estudio anterior, realizado por

este equipo de investigadores en la misma cohorte, reportó una asociación del SNP rs9939609 con los mismos marcadores de adiposidad señalados (10). En este contexto, estos datos sugieren que ambos polimorfismos constituyen un grupo de ligamiento que confiere riesgo elevado de obesidad en los portadores. Además, al comparar la fuerza de asociación del genotipo de riesgo de

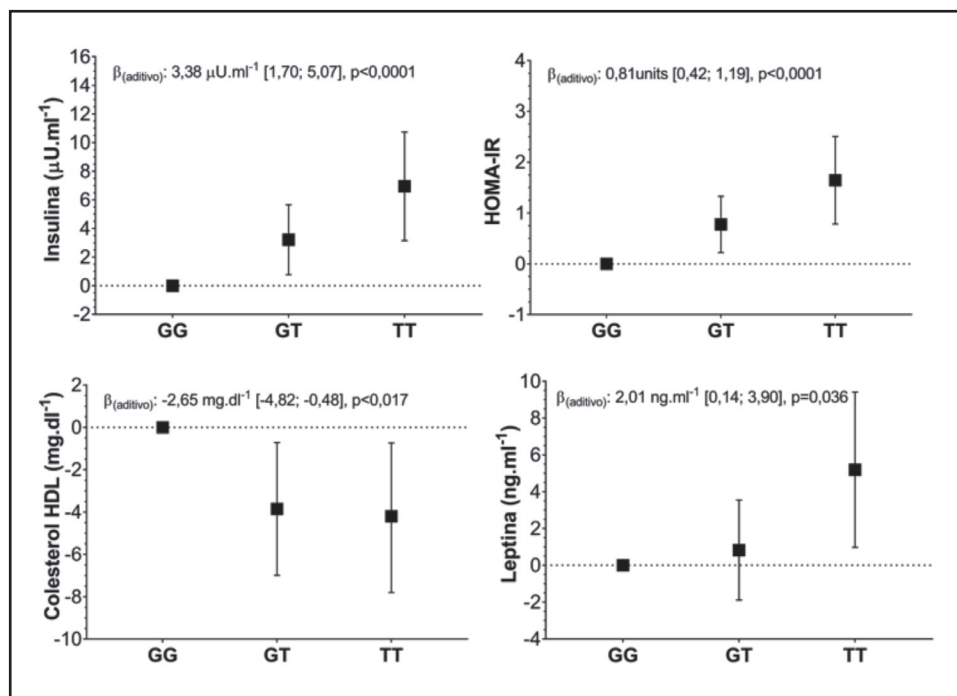


Figura 2.

Asociación entre el genotipo del *FTO* (rs3751812) con marcadores metabólicos. Datos presentados como diferencias entre el alelo protector (G) y los genotipos con la variante de riesgo (T) y sus respectivos 95% IC. El modelo genético aditivo indica el promedio de incremento en la variable metabólica por cada copia adicional de la variante de riesgo (T). Los análisis fueron ajustados por edad, sexo, etnia, nivel educacional, ingreso económico, nivel socioeconómico, zona de residencia (urbana/rural), actividad física, tiempo sedente, tabaquismo e IMC. HOMA_{IR}: homeostatic model assessment.

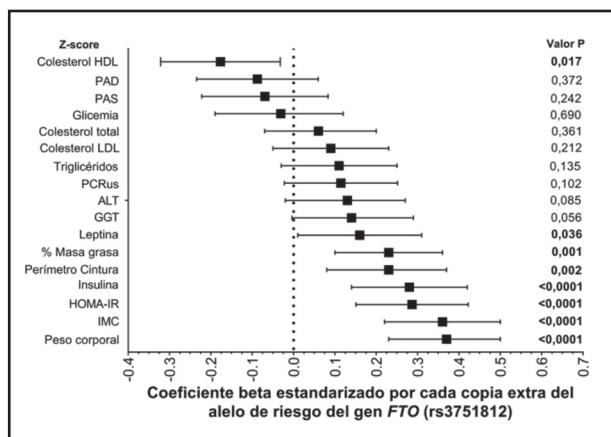


Figura 3.

Coefficientes beta estandarizados entre la asociación del gen *FTO* (rs3751812) y marcadores de adiposidad y metabólicos. Datos presentados como coeficiente beta estandarizados y 95% IC según genotipo. El modelo genético aditivo indica el promedio de incremento en la variable metabólica por cada copia adicional de la variante de riesgo (T). Los análisis fueron ajustados por edad, sexo, etnia, nivel educacional, ingreso económico, nivel socioeconómico, zona de residencia (urbana/rural), actividad física, tiempo sedente, tabaquismo e IMC. HOMA_{IR}: homeostatic model assessment; CT: colesterol total; TG: triglicéridos; ALT: alanina aminotransferasa; GGT: gamma-glutamyltransferasa; PCRus: proteína C reactiva ultrasensible; PAS: presión arterial sistólica; PAD: presión arterial diastólica.

FTO (*grFTO*) con los diversos parámetros estudiados mediante el coeficiente beta estandarizado, observamos que peso corporal, IMC, HOMA_{IR} e insulina presentan la mayor magnitud de asociación (en orden decreciente de importancia), lo cual revela una estrecha vinculación del *grFTO* con alteraciones en obesidad y en el metabolismo glucídico. No obstante, se identificó que la presencia del alelo de riesgo está asociada a niveles de insulina y leptina sobre los rangos normales para la población chilena (23). Por lo tanto, nuestros datos establecen una clara asociación del *grFTO* con resistencia a la insulina y leptina, lo que sugiere un riesgo elevado de desarrollar DMT2 en edades más avanzadas.

Estudios realizados en diversas poblaciones han evidenciado la asociación del gen *FTO* con DMT2, observándose una correlación positiva en los metaanálisis realizados (13,14). En una revisión sistemática previa, que incluyó un análisis de autocorrelación espacial, se observó que la asociación de *grFTO* con DMT2 es altamente dependiente de la localización geográfica, identificándose asociaciones entre los SNP rs9939609 y rs8050136 con DMT2 en poblaciones asiáticas, pero no en poblaciones norteamericanas (15). Este trabajo destaca la importancia de contar con estudios de asociación de *grFTO* en poblaciones con diversa etnicidad y que habitan en distintos lugares geográficos, tal como la presente investigación, que corrobora por primera vez la relación entre el polimorfismo rs3751812 del gen *FTO* y alteraciones metabólicas asociadas al desarrollo de DMT2 en población chilena.

Numerosos estudios han reportado que el gen *FTO* se expresa en el hipotálamo y tendría un rol como sensor del nivel plasmático de nutrientes y control de la ingesta energética, lo cual da luces sobre la relación entre los polimorfismos del gen *FTO* y el mayor riesgo de obesidad (24). En contraste, la evidencia que vincula a *FTO* con el metabolismo glucídico es limitada, aunque existen algunos estudios *in vitro* y en modelos animales que muestran que *FTO* participa en el control glicémico reprimiendo la expresión de enzimas regulatorias de la gluconeogénesis en respuesta a la hiperglicemia e hiperinsulinemia (25). En la misma línea, se reportó que la sobreexpresión del gen *FTO* en el hígado de ratones provoca desensibilización del receptor de leptina hepático debido a alteraciones inducidas por *FTO* en la vía de señalización JAK/STAT3, lo que conduce a una respuesta compensatoria de hiperleptinemia e hiperinsulinemia (26). Es probable que una alteración equivalente pueda ocurrir en humanos portadores del *grFTO*, debido a que se ha encontrado una mayor expresión del alelo de riesgo respecto al alelo normal en sangre y en fibroblastos de individuos heterocigotos para el gen *FTO* (27). Los niveles elevados de insulina y leptina en portadores del *grFTO* encontrados en nuestro estudio concuerdan con la evidencia actual y apoyan la noción de que el gen *FTO* representa un determinante molecular común para obesidad y DMT2 en virtud de los distintos roles que cumpliría en tejidos nervioso y hepático.

LIMITACIONES

Una limitación de nuestro estudio es la selección de una población sin historial de enfermedades metabólicas y con un promedio de edad inferior a los 40 años, lo cual impide establecer una asociación del gen *FTO* con DMT2 y con síndrome metabólico. No obstante, los datos obtenidos sugieren la existencia de tal asociación, ya que, además de las alteraciones encontradas en el metabolismo glucídico y en marcadores de adiposidad, se encontraron niveles disminuidos de cHDL en los portadores de *grFTO*. En la literatura, la asociación entre el gen *FTO* y el síndrome metabólico ha sido reportada para diversas poblaciones (28), encontrado algunos de ellos que la asociación es más frecuente en mujeres (29,30). El tamaño muestral de este análisis tampoco permitió realizar estudios comparativos entre sexos, pero sí fue suficiente para demostrar una asociación del SNP rs3751812 del gen *FTO* con alteraciones en el metabolismo glucídico y lipídico en una población joven, lo cual sugiere que el gen *FTO* podría constituir un marcador genético de riesgo temprano a enfermedades metabólicas.

CONCLUSIÓN

El presente estudio permite concluir que el SNP rs3751812, del gen *FTO*, está asociado a alteraciones metabólicas como hiperinsulinemia e hiperleptinemia, que podrían predisponer al desarrollo de DMT2 y síndrome metabólico. Dada la estrecha relación existente entre obesidad y DMT2, son esenciales todas

las iniciativas orientadas a mitigar el aumento de la prevalencia de estas patologías en Chile. Hasta ahora, los esfuerzos desplegados para mejorar los estilos vida asociados a obesidad y DMT2 aún no logran revertir el aumento sostenido de los índices de estas patologías a nivel mundial (31), por lo cual resulta pertinente explorar enfoques complementarios para mejorar las guías usadas en la prevención de la DMT2 y la obesidad, entre ellas, la identificación de nuevos marcadores de predisposición genética a enfermedades metabólicas.

DECLARACIÓN DE AUTORÍA

CCM concibió la pregunta de investigación. LM realizó los análisis estadísticos. LM y MV escribieron el manuscrito. Todos los autores revisaron críticamente el manuscrito y están de acuerdo con su versión final. MV, en nombre del resto de las personas firmantes, garantiza la precisión, transparencia y honestidad de los datos y la información contenida en el estudio, que ninguna información relevante ha sido omitida y que todas las discrepancias entre autores han sido adecuadamente resueltas y descritas.

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Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

Comparison of the dietary intake amongst women in the late postoperative period after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass with the bariatric food pyramid

Comparación de la ingesta dietética entre las mujeres en el postoperatorio tardío después del bypass gástrico en Y de Roux con la pirámide nutricional bariátrica

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Abstract

Introduction: the Roux-en-Y gastric bypass (RYGB) is considered to be an efficient treatment of obesity. There is an improvement in the dietary intake in the immediate postoperative period, but after the first year there is a tendency to return to the old pre-surgery habits. The objective of the present study was to compare the dietary intake of women in the late postoperative period after RYGB with the recommendations of the specific bariatric food pyramid.

Methodology: the whole population of patients submitted to RYGB being accompanied by two out-patients departments of the Complexo Hospital de Clínicas of Universidade Federal do Paraná in the period from March to September 2017 were considered, selecting only those who conformed to the inclusion criteria. The analyses carried out were: the hospital records, anthropometric evaluation, basal metabolic rate by indirect calorimetry, food consumption and questionnaires concerning physical activity, food intolerance and the dumping syndrome. The food consumption was separated into food groups in order to compare with the specific pyramid. Descriptive analyses were used to characterize the sample.

Results: it can be seen that the percent of macronutrients in relation to the total energy value (TEV) was within the values established by the recommended dietary allowances (RDA), although with respect to fiber, 68% of the participants showed a consumption below the adequate intake (AI). Inadequacy was observed for practically all the components when comparing the number of portions per food group of the bariatric pyramid, with the exception of the protein group.

Conclusion: after RYGB, the dietary consumption was compromised in quantity and quality. In addition, in the late postoperative period, women tended to choose high calorie dense foods poor in fiber, a fact that is aggravated by the presence of food intolerances.

Key words:

Gastric bypass. Food standards. Dietary intake. Bariatric food pyramid.

Resumen

Introducción: el *bypass* gástrico en Y de Roux (BGYR) es considerado un tratamiento eficaz de la obesidad. Normalmente, se percibe una mejoría en la ingesta dietética en el postoperatorio inmediato, pero después del primer año hay una tendencia a volver a los viejos hábitos preoperatorios. El objetivo del presente estudio fue comparar la ingesta dietética de las mujeres en el postoperatorio tardío después del BGYR con las recomendaciones de la pirámide nutricional bariátrica.

Material y métodos: se consideró a toda la población de pacientes sometidos a BGYR, además de dos ambulatorios del Complejo Hospital de Clínicas de la Universidade Federal de Paraná en el periodo de marzo a septiembre de 2017, seleccionando solo a aquellos que cumplían con los criterios de inclusión. Los análisis realizados fueron: registros hospitalarios, evaluación antropométrica, tasa metabólica basal por calorimetría indirecta, consumo de alimentos y cuestionarios sobre actividad física, intolerancia alimentaria y síndrome de *dumping*. El consumo de alimentos se dividió en grupos de alimentos para compararlos con la pirámide específica. Se utilizaron análisis descriptivos para caracterizar la muestra.

Resultados: podemos observar que el porcentaje de macronutrientes en relación con el valor energético total (VET) estuvo dentro de los valores recomendados por las ingestas diarias recomendadas (IDR), aunque con respecto a la fibra, el 68% de los participantes mostró un consumo inferior a la ingesta adecuada (AI, por sus siglas en inglés). Se observó una insuficiencia en prácticamente todos los componentes al comparar el número de porciones por grupo de alimentos de la pirámide bariátrica, con la excepción del grupo de proteínas.

Conclusión: después del BGYR, el consumo dietético se vio comprometido en cantidad y calidad. Además, en el postoperatorio tardío, las mujeres tendían a elegir alimentos ricos en calorías y pobres en fibra, un hecho que se agrava por la presencia de intolerancias alimentarias.

Palabras clave:

Bypass gástrico. Patrón alimentario. Consumo de alimentos. Pirámide nutricional bariátrica.

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INTRODUCTION

The Roux-en-Y gastric bypass (RYGB) is considered to be an efficient treatment of obesity and is associated with a decrease in mortality in obese patients (1-3). However, the non-maintenance of the weight loss on a long-term basis, a fact commonly observed in post-bariatric patients, can have a severe impact on the health of these individuals, becoming an important complication (4-6).

In Brazil, the dietary intake of overweight and obese individuals is rich in saturated fat and industrialized products, containing a high calorie density but poor in nutrients (7). Although authors have indicated an improvement in food intake in the first six post-operative months (8-10), after the first year there is a tendency to return to pre-surgery food habits (10,11).

Despite the significant changes in food intake after bariatric surgery, few studies evaluate food intake in the late postoperative period. In addition, studies comparing the food intake of this population with the bariatric pyramid are scarce. Thus, the objective of this study was to compare the food intake of women in the late postoperative period after RYGB with the recommendations of the specific pyramid.

METHODS

The present study was approved by the Ethics in Research Committee of the Complexo Hospital de Clínicas of Universidade Federal do Paraná (CHC-UFPR) under report nº CAAE: 62120316.4.0000.0096.

All patients submitted to RYGB and accompanied by multi-disciplinary out-patients departments of CHC-UFPR in the period from March to September 2017 were included in the initial sample (n = 340). Only those patients who conformed with the following inclusion criteria were selected: adult women submitted to RYGB in the CHC-UFPR in the period from 2005 to 2015, non-pregnant and having no metallic prostheses that could compromise any evaluation. The participants were invited to participate by telephone or approached on the day of their routine consultations. A total of 127 women were selected but 70 did not want to take part for personal or financial reasons, resulting in 57 participants. The analyses carried out were: medical record (demographic data, preoperative weight and postoperative nutritional accompaniment), anthropometric evaluation (weight and height) (12), basal metabolic rate by indirect calorimetry using the VMAX 29 Encore apparatus, and in the Metabolic Unit of CHC-UFPR, food intake and questionnaires concerning the level of physical activity (13), food intolerances (where the foods most cited in the literature were presented to the participants) (14) and the dumping syndrome according to the Sigestad score (15,16).

To analyze food ingestion, a 24-hour reminder was applied first to train the participants, followed by the use of a food report to be filled in for three days, including two weekdays and one weekend day. After returning the report, the not sufficiently clear data were duly identified together with the participant and visualization of food

portions from the Unicamp photographic manual 2014. The reports were standardized according to the *Tabela de Composição Nutricional dos Alimentos Consumidos no Brasil* (TACO) of the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (17) and, if necessary, according to the *Tabela para Avaliação do Consumo Alimentar em Medidas Caseiras* (18), the *Manual de Críticas de Inquéritos Alimentares* (19) or food labels. The data were then typed into the Brasil Nutri® software, and the spreadsheet generated related to TACO using the IBM® SPSS® Statistics 20 software. At the end of this process, the data generated were: macronutrients and fiber (grams per kilo of weight and percentages), energy value and food groups.

When separated into food groups, a comparison was made with the food pyramid adapted for postoperative bariatric surgery (20), for which the number of portions has to be calculated. According to the bariatric pyramid, the levels are divided as follows: the base is composed of recommendations for physical activity, adequate hydration and vitamin and mineral supplements. Following this, the groups are divided into: proteins, with a recommended ingestion of four to six portions per day, each portion being equivalent to approximately 30-80 g or 115-140 ml; vegetables, where the recommendation is for two to three portions per day, each portion being equivalent to 30-85 g; fruits, where the recommendation is for two to three portions per day, with each portion equivalent to 70-140 g; cereals and tubers, where the recommendation is for two to three portions per day, with each portion equivalent to 30-90 g; and finally fats and sweetmeats, where the recommendation is to avoid them, each portion being equivalent to 5 g and 15 g, respectively.

The sample characterization was carried out as from the descriptive statistical analysis (mean, standard deviation, median and frequencies) using the IBM® SPSS® Statistics 20 software.

RESULTS

The final sample was composed of 57 participants with a mean age of 47. Although the mean % EWL found was 68%, the majority of the participants were still obese, with a mean percent weight regain of 19% (Table I).

With respect to physical activity, according to the criteria of the World Health Organization (WHO), the majority of the participants were sedentary. According to the other questionnaires applied, 63% of the participants were classified as dumpers according to the Sigestad score, 75.5% showed intolerance to more than one food item and 50% reported not having followed the nutritional accompaniment in the postoperative period.

An evaluation of dietary intake showed that the percent of macronutrients in relation to the total energy value (TEV) was within the values recommended by the acceptable macronutrient distribution ranges (AMDR) (21), although with respect to fiber, 68% of the participants showed consumption below the adequate intake (AI) (Table II).

A comparison of the number of portions per food group of the participants' dietary intakes with the bariatric pyramid showed inadequacy for practically all the components, with the exception of the protein group (Table III).

Table I. Sample characterization

	Participants (n = 57)
Age (years)	47 (30-59)
Pre-weight (kg)	115 (85-180)
Minimum weight reached (kg)	70 ($\pm$ 14.5)
Current weight (kg)	80 (46.5-153)
Pre-BMI (kg/m ²)	45 ($\pm$ 6.54)
Current BMI (kg/m ²)	31 ($\pm$ 6.84)
% EWL	68% ($\pm$ 9)
% Weight regain	19% (0-71)

% EWL: excess weight loss percent; BMI: body mass index. Descriptive analysis of the variables expressed as mean $\pm$ standard deviation or median and minimum and maximum values.

Table II. Description of the energy values, macronutrients, fiber and references

	Participants (n = 57)*
Energy	
kcal	1,287 (217-3,046)
kcal/kg weight	16.8 (2.4-48.6)
Protein	
g/kg weight	0.78 (0.15-1.5)
% TEV	18.7 (10-27.4)
AMDR (% TEV)	10-35%
Carbohydrate	
g/kg weight	2 (0.26-5.43)
% TEV	49.9 (26-68.5)
AMDR (% TEV)	45-65%
Lipid	
g/kg weight	0.57 (0.09-2.35)
% TEV	31.5 (19.6-49.9)
AMDR (% TEV)	20-35%
Fiber	
g/kg weight	0.27 (0.07-0.53)
g/day	21 (6.7-33.7)
Below 25 g/day (RDA/AI)	39 (68%)
Above 25 g/day (RDA/AI)	18 (32%)

% TEV: total energy value percent; AMDR: acceptable macronutrient distribution ranges; RDA: recommended dietary allowances; AI: adequate intake. *Descriptive analysis of the variables expressed as the median, minimum and maximum values and frequency.

Table III. A comparison of the consumption of food group portions with the bariatric pyramid (BP)

Food group (recommendation of portions of the BP)	Number of portions (minimum-maximum)
Vegetables (2-3)	1 (0-8)
Fruits (2-3)	1 (0-4)
Cereals and tubers (2-3)	4 (0-8)
Proteins (4-6)	5 (1-9)
Sweetmeats (0)	2 (0-17)
Fats (0)	2 (0-24)

Source: the authors. The results are expressed as the quantity of portions referring to the food groups and the maximum and minimum numbers of portions.

choices combined with an active life appear to contribute to maintenance of the weight loss, thus avoiding weight regain (9,22,23).

In the present study, the percent of macronutrients was shown to be adequate with respect to TEV and when compared with the recommendations, a fact also found by other authors (24). However, this does not signify that the quality of these macronutrients was ideal, since inadequacy was observed with respect to the consumption of fibers by the majority of the participants, for example. This fact can be explained by the slow gastric emptying of this food group.

The reduction in gastric capacity is related to the reduction in volume of the food intake in the first months after surgery (25), although recent studies have indicated a relationship between the quantity and quality of the food and the speed of gastric emptying (26), suggesting that the quicker the gastric emptying, the smaller the possibility of food intolerances and possible complications, for example.

In the present study it can be seen that most of the participants presented food intolerances, mostly to more than one food. Intolerances are common in post-bariatric patients (9,27,28) and, in addition to the speed of gastric emptying cited above, the lack of nutritional accompaniment in the postoperative period could be related to a worsening of this situation. Some authors have indicated the importance of nutritional accompaniment in relation to the loss of weight and maintenance of the weight loss, since correct nutritional orientation and a good choice of diet decrease intolerances and discomfort and avoid the return to old habits, contributing directly to the success of the treatment (9,24,29-31).

In addition, the high prevalence of the dumping syndrome found in the public in the present study, which was reinforced by the literature (32-34), suggests that this later complication is a col-

DISCUSSION

Although a mean value for the % EWL > 50 was found, it can be seen that the majority of the participants were still obese, which can be explained by the sedentarism of the individuals combined with a high ingestion of carbohydrates, sweetmeats and fats; this can be seen by comparing with the bariatric pyramid. Good food

lateral effect of the surgical technique, and could be related to the secretion of incretins and an exaggerated induction of the insulinemic response, consequently causing a fall in blood glucose to hypoglycemic levels. It is possible that the exaggerated consumption of carbohydrates by the population in the present study could have contributed to this clinical condition.

The type of study could be indicated as a limitation, since an evaluation as from the preoperative period up to the late postoperative period would be of interest, in order to compare the results. In addition, since the method used to evaluate food consumption was subjective, it might not have been very precise, even though tools validated by the literature were applied (35,36).

The bariatric pyramid was created with the objective of creating healthier lifestyles and food habits, considering the reduced gastric capacity and specific nutritional requirements (8,10,20). This pyramid is specific for postoperative bariatric surgery and is a more accurate tool to evaluate the food intake of this public. Considering this specific pyramid, a consumption of fruits and vegetables below the recommended values and consumption above the ideal value for carbohydrates, sweetmeats and fats can be observed, which was also reported in other studies (9,10,11,37). Although some authors reported a decrease in the consumption of high calorie-dense foods in the first postoperative months (8), their consumption in the late postoperative period contributed to the non-maintenance of the weight loss (9,38).

CONCLUSION

After RYGB, food consumption was compromised in both quantity and quality. Added to this, the women tended to choose high calorie dense foods, poor in fiber, in the late postoperative period, a fact aggravated by the presence of food intolerances and the lack of continued nutritional accompaniment, which are important variables for a good long-term result for the surgery. Further studies are required to evaluate the food consumption as from the preoperative period up to the late postoperative period in order to better understand the evolution of the food habits of these patients.

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Trabajo Original

Obesidad y síndrome metabólico

INSIG2 gene polymorphism is associated with higher blood pressure and triglyceride levels in Brazilian obese subjects

El polimorfismo del gen INSIG2 se asocia con una mayor presión sanguínea y niveles de triglicéridos en sujetos obesos brasileños

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Abstract

Objective: this study aimed to evaluate the association between polymorphisms of INSIG, PCSK9 and FTO genes with anthropometric, biochemical characteristics and presence of metabolic syndrome in patients with severe obesity.

Material and methods: the present study enrolled 150 patients with grade II or III obesity, who were submitted to nutritional assessment, blood pressure measurement and peripheral blood collection. INSIG2 (rs75666605), PCSK9 (rs505151), and FTO (rs9939609) polymorphisms were genotyped using TaqMan Pre-Designed SNP Genotyping Assays probes in real time polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The experimental data are processed in SPSS Statistics 22.0 ($p < 0.05$).

Results: in this study, 72.2% of obese subjects had metabolic syndrome (MS). There was a higher prevalence of AA (86.9%), CG (51.1%) and AT (46.2%) genotypes for the PCSK9, INSIG2 and FTO polymorphisms, respectively. There was no association of these polymorphisms with the prevalence of MS ($p > 0.05$). On the other hand, individuals with at least one variant allele (G) for the INSIG2 gene had higher triglycerides levels, systolic and diastolic blood pressure ($p < 0.05$).

Conclusions: the polymorphism rs7566605 of the INSIG2 gene is associated with higher triglycerides levels and blood pressure values, which are also considered as risk factors for the development of MS.

Key words:

Obesity. Metabolic syndrome. Polymorphism. INSIG2. PCSK9. FTO.

Resumen

Objetivo: este estudio tuvo como objetivo evaluar la asociación entre polimorfismos de los genes INSIG, PCSK9 y FTO con las características antropométricas, bioquímicas y la presencia de síndrome metabólico (SM) en pacientes con obesidad grave.

Material y métodos: el presente estudio incluyó 150 pacientes con obesidad de grado II o III, que fueron sometidos a evaluación nutricional, medición de la presión arterial y extracción de sangre periférica. Los polimorfismos INSIG2 (rs75666605), PCSK9 (rs505151) y FTO (rs9939609) fueron genotipados utilizando sondas TaqMan Pre-Designed SNP Genotyping Assays en la reacción en cadena de la polimerasa en tiempo real (PCR). Los datos experimentales se procesan en SPSS Statistics 22.0 ($p < 0.05$).

Resultados: en este estudio, el 72,2% de los sujetos obesos tenían síndrome metabólico (EM). Hubo una mayor prevalencia de genotipos AA (86,9%), CG (51,1%) y AT (46,2%) para los polimorfismos PCSK9, INSIG2 y FTO, respectivamente. No hubo asociación de estos polimorfismos con la prevalencia de SM ($p > 0,05$). Por otro lado, los individuos con al menos una variante de alelo (G) para el gen INSIG2 tenían niveles más altos de triglicéridos, presión arterial sistólica y diastólica ($p < 0,05$).

Conclusiones: el polimorfismo rs7566605 del gen INSIG2 se asocia con niveles más altos de triglicéridos y valores de presión arterial, que también se consideran factores de riesgo para el desarrollo del síndrome metabólico.

Palabras clave:

Obesidad. Síndrome metabólico. Polimorfismo. INSIG2. PCSK9. FTO.

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INTRODUCTION

Metabolic syndrome (MS) is a term used to characterize cardiovascular risk factors and is characterized by the association of various abnormalities, such as central obesity, dyslipidemia, type 2 diabetes mellitus and systemic arterial hypertension (SAH). There are different definitions for diagnostic criteria, all using combinations of risk factors (18,25). MS frequency is significantly associated with favorable socioeconomic conditions, sedentary lifestyle, hypercaloric diets and high body mass index (BMI) (20). The global prevalence of MS varies depending on the region, urban or rural environment and characteristics of the population studied, like sex, age, race and ethnicity (16).

Considering that obesity is one of the risk factors for MS, the literature has pointed out the important role of genetic susceptibility for this disease development (23), including gene interactions and gene-environment interactions (19). Recent studies show the existence of several single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) located in different genes involved in lipid metabolism and insulin resistance, which play a role in obesity development (22).

In this context, the proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin 9 (PCSK9) gene encodes the glycoprotein PCSK9, which plays an important role in the cholesterol metabolism. Its expression modulates the number of low-density lipoprotein (LDLR) receptors (28) and affects the circulating levels of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-cholesterol), the main carrier of cholesterol in humans (11). The polymorphism E670G (rs505151) of the PCSK9 gene promotes increase of PCSK9 activity (gain of function), leading to reduction of LDLR and consequently, raise in plasma LDL-cholesterol, contributing to hypercholesterolemia (11,28).

Another gene that regulates cholesterol synthesis is the insulin-induced gene 2 (INSIG2), which encodes the INSIG2 membrane protein (8). INSIG2 inhibits sterol synthesis in the liver when the cells have an adequate supply of these (29). Deregulation of this process may affect lipid metabolism and increase insulin resistance (3), which are closely related to MS (4). Some studies have shown an association between the polymorphism rs7566605 of INSIG2 gene and obesity (13,29).

Furthermore, the fat mass and obesity-associated gene (FTO) encode an important protein whose exact physiological function remains unknown. Studies indicate that this gene plays a role in the nervous and cardiovascular systems and has a strong association with BMI, obesity and type 2 diabetes development (30,31). The FTO gene has several known SNPs, many of them related to BMI, with emphasis in rs9939609. In this case, the A allele is directly related to a greater accumulation of body fat, especially in homozygous form (AA).

In line with this, the objective of the present study was to evaluate the association between polymorphisms of INSIG2, PCSK9 and FTO genes with anthropometric, biochemical characteristics and presence of metabolic syndrome in patients with severe obesity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

SUBJECTS

This is a cross-sectional study, which enrolled individuals of an ethnic mixed population (27), aged between 18 and 60 years, with grade II or III obesity. The sampling procedure is fully described elsewhere and anthropometric and biochemical data of the studied population were already published by our group (21). Pregnant and lactating individuals, patients on hypocaloric diets and who underwent bariatric surgery were excluded. The study was conducted after approval by the Ethics Committee of the institution and according to the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided a written informed consent.

Questions about personal history of chronic diseases such as diabetes mellitus, systemic arterial hypertension, cardiovascular diseases and obesity were collected from medical records.

ANTHROPOMETRIC AND BLOOD PRESSURE (BP) MEASUREMENTS

For anthropometric evaluation, the following indicators were used: weight (kg), height (m), BMI (kg/m^2) and abdominal circumference (AC). According to Nicoletti et al. (2016), patients were weighed in a Filizola® scale-type digital scale, with a capacity of 300 kg and an accuracy of 0.2 kg. For height measurement, a vertical rod with a graduation of 0.5 cm was used. BMI was obtained using the formula: $\text{BMI} = P/A^2$, where P is the weight in kilograms and A is the height in meters. AC was measured by passing an inextensible metric tape with graduation of 0.1 mm on the largest circumference.

The systolic and diastolic blood pressure (BP) was measured using the indirect method with an auscultatory technique using a mercury column sphygmomanometer, with cuffs appropriate for obese individuals. The procedure was performed with the patient after five minutes of rest in a quiet environment, without having practiced physical exercises for at least 60 minutes and without having smoked in the 30 minutes before the procedure.

BIOCHEMICAL EVALUATION

Plasma total cholesterol (TC), low-density lipoprotein (LDL-cholesterol) and high-density lipoprotein (HDL-cholesterol), triglycerides (TG) and glycemia were analyzed in blood samples after 12 hours of fasting. As a protocol of the service, the dosages of TC, HDL-cholesterol and TG were performed by automated colorimetric method. LDL-cholesterol values were calculated by the Friedwald formula: $\text{LDL-cholesterol} = \text{TC} - (\text{HDL-cholesterol} + \text{TG}/5)$, with TG values lower than 400 mg/dl (9).

METABOLIC SYNDROME IDENTIFICATION

MS was defined according to the criteria of the I Brazilian Guidelines for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Metabolic Syndrome,

which uses diagnostic standards similar to the National Cholesterol Education Program-Adult Treatment Panel III (NCEP ATP III). In this case, MS was defined by a group of cardiovascular risk factors, characterized by at least three of the following components: a) abdominal circumference > 88 cm; b) fasting glycemia > 100 mg/dl; c) triglycerides > 150 mg/dl; d) HDL cholesterol < 50 mg/dl; and e) increased blood pressure: systolic blood pressure (SBP) ≥ 130 mmHg or diastolic blood pressure (DBP) ≥ 85 mmHg.

DNA EXTRACTION AND ANALYSIS OF GENETIC POLYMORPHISMS

DNA was extracted from peripheral blood samples using a GE Healthcare kit according to manufacturer's protocol. The genotypic determination was performed by the allele discrimination method in real time PCR (polymerase chain reaction), which allows the analysis of the variants in a specific segment of DNA. The single nucleotide polymorphisms rs505151, rs7566605 and rs9939609 were genotyped using TaqMan™ Pre-Designed SNP Genotyping Assays probes (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), as specified by the manufacturer.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data were presented in mean and standard deviation. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to verify the data normality. The Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium calculations for the polymorphisms were performed by applying the Chi-square test. The t-test for independent samples was used to compare the phenotypic variables among the genotypes of each polymorphism. To analyze the dominant model (DM), individuals with at least one variant allele were grouped and compared with those of the reference genotype. For the recessive model (RM) analysis, individuals with at least one wild-type allele were grouped and compared with those with both variant alleles. The associations of continuous

variables with genotypes were analyzed with general linear models controlling for sex and age. Statistical significance was set at 5%, all analyzes being performed in Statistical Package for Social Science software (SPSS version 22.0; Inc. Chicago, IL).

RESULTS

For this study, 150 severe obese subjects (80% females) with mean age of 47.2 ± 10.4 years were selected. The means of systolic and diastolic pressure were 122.2 ± 15.4 mmHg and 78.1 ± 10.0 mmHg, respectively. It was identified that 94.7% of patients presented grade III obesity, 73.3% systemic arterial hypertension, 25% high glycemic levels and 26.4% hypertriglyceridemia. Indeed, abdominal obesity was present in all patients. Thus, taking into account the criteria established by the NCEP, 72.7% of the patients selected for this study present metabolic syndrome.

Genotypic distributions of the polymorphisms rs505151 ($\chi^2 = 12.33$, $p = 0.92$), rs7566605 ($\chi^2 = 1.72$, $p = 0.64$) and rs9939609 ($\chi^2 = 0.82$, $p = 0.49$) exhibited the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. The allelic and genotype frequencies of the polymorphisms are presented in table I. The genotypes AA homozygous for PCSK9 gene, CG heterozygote for INSIG2 gene prevailed. On the other hand, there was a similar distribution between the AA and TT genotypes for FTO gene.

Tables II, III and IV show the anthropometric and metabolic variables for DM and RM for polymorphisms of PCSK9, FTO and INSIG2 gene, respectively. No difference was observed between the possible genotypes for PCSK9 and FTO gene. However, there was a difference between systolic and diastolic BP and triglycerides levels among the possible genotypes for INSIG2 gene, showing that individuals with at least one variant allele (G) had higher BP and triglycerides values. Linear regression analyses confirm the association between the polymorphism of INSIG2 gene and this variables, even when adjusted for gender and age (Table V). However, none of the polymorphisms studied was directly related to the risk of MS developing in patients with severe obesity (Fig. 1).

Table I. Genotypic and allelic frequency of polymorphisms assessed in severe obese patients evaluated in the study (n = 150)

Polymorphism	Gene	Genotype frequency			Allele frequency	
		Genotype	n	%	Allele	
rs 505151	PCSK9	AA	126	86.9%	Allele A	0.92
		AG	15	10.3%	Allele G	0.08
		GG	4	2.8%		
rs 7566605	INSIG2	CC	53	38.7%	Allele C	0.64
		CG	70	51.1%	Allele G	0.36
		GG	14	10.2%		
rs 9939609	FTO	AA	37	25.5%	Allele A	0.49
		AT	67	46.2%	Allele T	0.51
		TT	41	28.3%		

n: number of individuals.

Table II. Anthropometric and metabolic variables for genotypes of the rs505151 polymorphism in the PCSK9 gene in subjects with severe obesity (n = 150)

Variables	Dominant model		Recessive model	
	AA	AG + GG	AA + AG	GG
Weight (kg)	137.5 ± 23.5	140.9 ± 23.3	138.0 ± 23.2	147.8 ± 31.2
BMI (kg/m ²)	51.4 ± 7.5	50.7 ± 6.1	51.5 ± 7.4	49.1 ± 5.2
AC (cm)	144.7 ± 16.8	137.3 ± 21.4	144.6 ± 17.1	121.0 ± 5.6
Systolic BP (mmHg)	121.5 ± 15.1	122.6 ± 14.1	122.1 ± 15.6	117.5 ± 9.6
Diastolic BP (mmHg)	77.9 ± 10.2	78.7 ± 9.1	78.2 ± 10.1	75.0 ± 5.8
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	185.9 ± 35.6	177.8 ± 28.2	185.3 ± 35.0	160.0 ± 15.5
LDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	115.8 ± 32.1	110.1 ± 22.9	115.2 ± 31.3	104.7 ± 14.8
HDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	40.6 ± 10.0	40.2 ± 6.3	40.6 ± 9.5	34.5 ± 4.1
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	151.0 ± 89.8	136.4 ± 59.0	150.6 ± 87.0	102.5 ± 17.5
Glycemia (mg/dl)	101.6 ± 31.1	111.6 ± 56.5	103.6 ± 35.6	89.7 ± 17.3

BMI: body mass index; AC: abdominal circumference; BP: blood pressure; LDL-cholesterol: low density lipoprotein; HDL-cholesterol: high density lipoprotein.

Table III. Anthropometric and metabolic variables for genotypes of the rs9939609 polymorphism of FTO gene in severe obese subjects evaluated in the study (n = 150)

Variables	Dominant model		Recessive model	
	AA	AT + TT	AA + AT	TT
Weight (kg)	137.4 ± 24.5	138.3 ± 23.3	136.7 ± 22.9	142.1 ± 24.7
BMI (kg/ m ²)	51.8 ± 7.2	51.3 ± 7.5	50.8 ± 7.1	52.9 ± 7.9
AC (cm)	143.9 ± 18.6	144.0 ± 16.9	142.8 ± 16.2	146.5 ± 19.6
Systolic BP (mmHg)	123.3 ± 18.2	121.3 ± 14.0	121.6 ± 15.0	122.5 ± 15.6
Diastolic BP (mmHg)	79.4 ± 12.4	77.6 ± 9.1	77.6 ± 9.9	79.2 ± 10.5
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	186.7 ± 28.5	184.7 ± 36.4	186.1 ± 33.9	182.7 ± 36.2
LDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	117.4 ± 25.5	114.6 ± 32.7	117.2 ± 29.0	110.5 ± 35.3
HDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	40.0 ± 9.8	40.7 ± 9.6	40.9 ± 9.4	39.7 ± 10.2
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	165.9 ± 110.5	143.7 ± 75.5	150.8 ± 92.8	145.9 ± 66.4
Glycemia (mg/dl)	109.0 ± 42.2	100.9 ± 32.7	101.3 ± 30.9	107.4 ± 45.2

BMI: body mass index; AC: abdominal circumference; BP: blood pressure; LDL-cholesterol: low density lipoprotein; HDL-cholesterol: high density lipoprotein

Table IV. Anthropometric and metabolic variables for genotypes of polymorphism rs7566605 of INSIG2 gene in severe obese evaluated in this study (n = 150)

Variables	Dominant model		Recessive model	
	CC	CG + GG	CC + CG	GG
Weight (kg)	133.0 ± 22.8	141.0 ± 23.7	138.2 ± 23.4	134.7 ± 25.8
BMI (kg/m ²)	51.4 ± 7.4	51.3 ± 7.4	51.5 ± 7.3	50.2 ± 8.4
AC (cm)	143.6 ± 17.8	143.6 ± 16.0	144.1 ± 16.7	135.5 ± 17.2
Systolic BP (mmHg)	116.4 ± 14.7	125.6 ± 15.2*	121.2 ± 15.2	129.2 ± 17.8
Diastolic BP (mmHg)	75.0 ± 9.8	79.9 ± 9.9*	77.8 ± 10.0	80.0 ± 11.3
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	179.9 ± 35.9	186.9 ± 33.4	183.6 ± 35.2	188.3 ± 27.9
LDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	109.1 ± 32.2	117.7 ± 28.9	113.1 ± 30.6	124.8 ± 27.2
HDL-cholesterol (mg/dl)	42.6 ± 9.8	39.5 ± 9.3	40.9 ± 9.9	39.3 ± 8.2
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	132.2 ± 54.9	160.1 ± 102.4*	148.9 ± 85.9	150.6 ± 106.1
Glycemia (mg/dl)	98.1 ± 34.2	106.1 ± 36.2	102.4 ± 36.2	102.4 ± 36.2

BMI: body mass index; AC: abdominal circumference; BP: blood pressure; LDL-cholesterol: low density lipoprotein; HDL-cholesterol: high density lipoprotein. *: p<0.05

Table V. Multiple linear regression analysis, adjusted for sex and anthropometric variables, showing the contribution of the polymorphism rs 7566605 in the INSIG2 gene in the concentrations of triglycerides, systolic and diastolic pressure in subjects with severe obesity (n = 150)

Variables	β	r^2	p	IC 95%
Triglycerides				
		0.068		
rs 7566605	0.275		0.044	(1.186; 79.430)
Sex	-0.015		0.915	(-67.751; 60.915)
Weight (kg)	-0.353		0.050	(-2.431; -0.002)
AC (cm)	0.144		0.371	(-0.774; 2.036)
Systolic pressure				
		0.078		
rs 7566605	0.263		0.002	(2.999; 13.702)
Sex	-0.034		0.724	(-8.917; 6.211)
Age	0.101		0.239	(-0.101; 0.400)
Weight (kg)	0.145		0.144	(-0.033; 0.226)
Diastolic pressure				
		0.087		
rs 7566605	0.196		0.022	(0.589; 7.505)
Sex	-0.011		0.907	(-5.177; 4.598)
Age	0.211		0.015	(0.041; 0.364)
Weight (kg)	0.173		0.080	(-0.009; 0.159)

AC: abdominal circumference; CI: confidence interval.

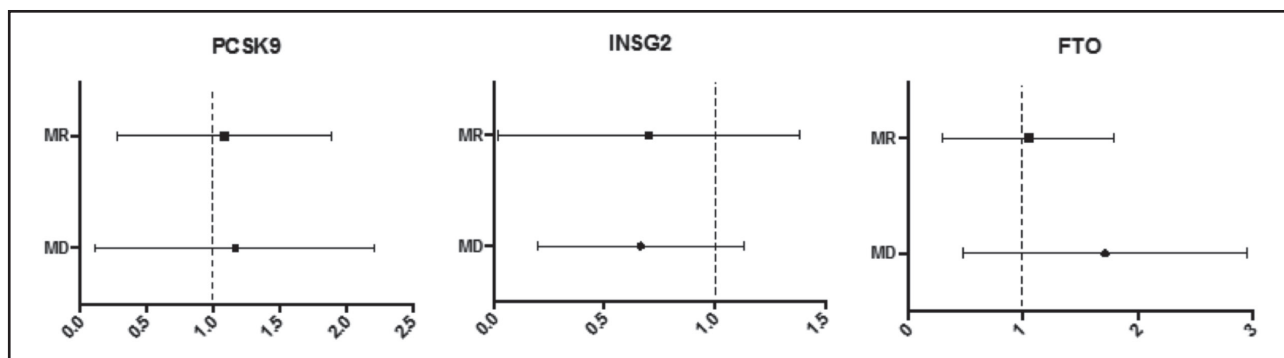


Figure 1.

Odds ratio (95% CI) of the association between polymorphisms rs505151 of PCSK9 gene, rs7566605 of INSIG2 gene and rs9939609 of FTO gene and the metabolic syndrome (MD: dominant model; MR: recessive model).

DISCUSSION

No direct relationship was found between the presence of polymorphisms rs505151 of PCSK9 gene, rs7566605 of INSIG2 gene and rs9939609 of FTO gene and the presence of MS. However, it was observed that rs7566605 of INSIG2 gene showed a significant relationship with three parameters analyzed: systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure and triglyceride levels.

Although our findings do not show a direct relationship between PCSK9 polymorphism and BMI or abdominal obesity, some cases have already been well described in the literature (28,32). Moreover, a Chinese study showed an association between the variant allele and HDL-cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol concentrations (2). Evidence supports that in patients with the polymorphism, the expression of the protein was higher, and consequently the circulating LDL-cholesterol concentrations were increased (15).

Furthermore, a study investigating the effect of this polymorphism on the risk of cardiovascular diseases (CVD) and stroke showed that in patients with a higher risk of CVD who had the variant allele, LDL-cholesterol concentrations were significantly higher (28).

Regarding the polymorphism of the INSIG2 gene, the literature is still controversial. Our findings corroborate previous studies that did not evidence associations of polymorphism with BMI or waist circumference (1). In contrast, Oki et al. (2009) evidenced that CC genotype is a protective genetic factor against the progression of hypercholesterolemia. The polymorphism of INSIG2 gene does not inhibit fatty acid synthesis, leading to an exaggerated production of cholesterol, fatty acids, triglycerides and phospholipids (3). Other studies found no association between polymorphism and severe obesity, or with phenotypes associated with hypertension (5,13). Thus, the present study is a pioneer to show association between blood pressure levels and this polymorphism. A possible mechanism of increased systolic and diastolic blood pressure would be the fact that the polymorphism increases the production of cholesterol and may contribute for atherosclerosis development, consequently raising the individual's blood pressure. As for the biochemical and metabolic parameters, the wild homozygous form of the INSIG2 (CC) gene was related to the reduction of waist/hip ratio and glycated hemoglobin, which may lead to an improvement in glucose intolerance (6).

The association between the FTO gene and obesity in humans is already well described (7,13). However, the evidence showing the role of this polymorphism in the development of type 2 diabetes mellitus is weak. Li et al. (2008) did not find associations between the gene and waist circumference and fasting glycemia. On the other hand, a recent study by Guclu-Geyik et al. (2016) found an association between polymorphism and MS in men. The mechanism by which the FTO gene leads to the development of obesity is not fully understood. The polymorphism of FTO gene was related to obesity, but not to MS; nonetheless, a predisposition to an increased risk of obesity may trigger other variables such as increased AC, altered fasting glycemia and dyslipidemia.

Thus, as a main finding, despite not being directly associated with the prevalence of MS, the presence of the variant allele of INSIG2 polymorphism could increase the chances of developing the disease. It should be emphasized that our sample size is limited and our analysis was performed in a population of mixed ethnic origin. Low power may have been responsible for lack of significant associations among severe obese individuals, and reaching significance for some of the potential interactions. Moreover, although adjustment by sex and age was performed, residual confounding such as physical active and dietary intake cannot be totally ruled out.

CONCLUSION

Polymorphisms of PCSK9, INSG2 and FTO genes are not associated with the MS prevalence; however, the polymorphism of INSIG2 gene is associated with higher concentrations of triglyc-

erides and blood pressure values, which are also considered as risk factors for the development of the disease.

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ETHICAL APPROVAL

All procedures performed in this study were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional research committee and with the Declaration of Helsinki of 1964 and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

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Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Relationship of anthropometric indexes and indicators of body composition by arm anthropometry on hospitalized pediatric patients

Relación entre índices antropométricos e indicadores de composición corporal por antropometría de brazo en pacientes pediátricos hospitalizados

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Abstract

Introduction: the purpose of this study was to evaluate the relationship of arm anthropometric indicators with direct indicators of nutritional status in hospitalized pediatric patients.

Methods: an analytical cross-sectional study with 760 patients hospitalized in the Pediatric Division of the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara during 2014 was used. The anthropometric indices were weight/length, weight/height, weight/age, length/age, height/age, head circumference/age and body mass index (BMI)/age. The arm indicators were mid-upper arm circumference (MUAC), total arm area (TAA), arm muscle area (AMA), arm fat area (AFA) and fat percentage (FP). The ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis, Mann-Whitney U and Pearson's correlation tests and also odds ratios were used to identify the probability of nutritional status impairment.

Results: the prevalence of acute and chronic malnutrition was higher in infants (31% and 30%, respectively). With arm areas (TAA, AMA, AFA), the risk of deficit (≤ -2 DE) was higher in infants and early preschoolers ($p < 0.001$). The correlation between the anthropometric indexes and the arm areas was direct and significant ($p < 0.001$). The BMI variability was explained in 68% by the AMA, AFA, and FP ($p < 0.001$); the variability of the height/age index was also explained in 34% by the AMA and AFA ($p < 0.001$).

Conclusion: it is possible to diagnose both a chronic and acute deficit using the indirect indicators of the arm, while the body mass index only reflects an acute deficit. Therefore, arm areas would be more useful indicators in the assessment of nutritional status and the diagnosis of chronic-acute malnutrition in hospitalized pediatric patients.

Key words:

Malnutrition. Body composition. Anthropometric indexes. Arm indicators. Pediatrics.

Resumen

Introducción: el objetivo de este estudio fue evaluar la relación de los indicadores antropométricos de brazo con los indicadores directos del estado de nutrición en pacientes pediátricos hospitalizados.

Métodos: se utilizó un estudio transversal analítico con 760 pacientes ingresados en la División de Pediatría del Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara durante 2014. Los índices antropométricos fueron peso/longitud, peso/altura, peso/edad, longitud/edad, altura/edad, circunferencia cefálica e IMC. Los indicadores del brazo fueron circunferencia media del brazo (CMB), área total del brazo (ATB), área muscular del brazo (AMB), área grasa del brazo (AGB) y porcentaje de grasa. Se utilizaron las pruebas de ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis, U de Mann-Whitney, correlación de Pearson y razón de momios para identificar la probabilidad de deterioro del estado nutricional.

Resultados: la prevalencia de desnutrición aguda y crónica fue mayor en lactantes (31% y 30%, respectivamente). Con las áreas del brazo (ATB, AMB, AFA), el riesgo de déficit (≤ -2 DE) fue mayor en lactantes y preescolares tempranos ($p < 0.001$). La correlación entre los índices antropométricos y las áreas del brazo fue directa y significativa ($p < 0.001$). La variabilidad del IMC fue explicada en un 68% por AMB, AGB y porcentaje de grasa ($p < 0.001$); la variabilidad del índice de talla/edad también fue explicada en un 34% por AMB y AGB ($p < 0.001$).

Conclusión: es posible diagnosticar el déficit crónico y agudo utilizando los indicadores indirectos del brazo, mientras que el IMC solo refleja un déficit agudo. Las áreas de brazo serían indicadores más útiles en el diagnóstico de desnutrición crónica-aguda en pacientes pediátricos hospitalizados.

Palabras clave:

Desnutrición. Composición corporal. Índices antropométricos. Indicadores de brazo.

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INTRODUCTION

Protein energy malnutrition (PEM) continues to be a public health problem worldwide, mainly in children under five years of age (1,2). In hospitalized pediatric patients, the prevalence of malnutrition ranges between 6% and 50%; this wide range of discrepant reported frequencies seems a consequence of the degree of development of the country analyzed (1,3-6). Some authors have described that, according to its severity, PEM can increase the morbidity and mortality of the hospitalized child (7). Several researchers have emphasized the importance of carrying out an adequate nutritional assessment of any child entering the hospital to identify any pediatric patients who are admitted with some degree of malnutrition (4,7-9) and those who are at risk of developing malnutrition during hospitalization (6,10). Several studies have shown that if an adequate assessment of a child's nutritional status is not carried out, no timely dietary management results and, as a consequence, the risk of complications and the length of the hospital stay increases (4,11,12).

Although there is some controversy about the usefulness of anthropometric indicators in the diagnosis of malnutrition (13), in general, there is a consensus that anthropometric indicators are adequate and accurate to assess nutritional status. In addition, they are noninvasive, low-cost, accessible, simple and practical (14,15). Particularly, the arm anthropometric indicators at the mid-upper-arm circumference (MUAC) and skin folds have been widely used in the hospital setting because they inform about body composition through the estimation of the total arm area (TAA), arm muscle area (AMA) and arm fat area (AFA) (15-19). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to estimate the indirect arm anthropometric indicators as an anthropometric expression of body composition and to explore its relationship with direct anthropometric indicators in hospitalized pediatric patients.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

An analytical cross-sectional study was carried out with 750 patients hospitalized in the Pediatric Division of the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara during 2014. All patients admitted in the previous day in weekdays to any of the services of the Pediatric Division were included. Those who remained less than 72 hours in the Emergency Room, who were hospitalized in a clinical ward, and whose parents or legally responsible person signed the informed consent were included. We did not include patients in whom the anthropometric measurements could not be made and those who were re-hospitalized in a period of less than three months. Patients with incomplete records and/or data were excluded. For each participant (or relatives), a questionnaire was applied to the family member or legally responsible person that included general identification and sociodemographic data.

ANTHROPOMETRIC MEASUREMENTS

Previous standardization of two observers was performed using the Habitch method (20); the measurements of weight, length, and

cephalic circumference with the techniques previously described were made upon admission (3). With the measurements taken, the Z-scores of the weight/length, weight/height, weight/age, length/age, height/age, head circumference/age, and BMI/age were estimated using the WHO Anthro version 3.2.2 and WHO Anthro Plus version 1.0.4 programs.

The World Health Organization (WHO) normal limits ($\pm 2SD$) were taken as a reference. The left mid-upper-arm circumference (MUAC) was obtained with a metallic metric tape (Rosscraft, USA). The triceps skinfold (TSF) was taken on the internal posterior surface of the previously marked middle part of the arm. The subscapular skin fold (SSF) was taken at the lower edge of the scapula. Both measurements were made with a Lange skinfold caliper (Michigan, USA). With MUAC and TSF arm areas were estimated with the Frisancho equations (21): total arm area (TAA): $TAA (cm^2) = MUAC (cm^2) / (4 \times \pi)$; arm muscle area (AMA): $AMA (cm^2) = [MUAC - (TSF (mm) \times \pi)^2 / (4 \times \pi)]$; arm fat area (AFA): $AFA = TAA - AMA$. Z-scores of these areas were estimated with the Sann reference values (22) for infants under 12 months and with the Frisancho reference (21) for children from one to 18 years. With the sum of the TSF and SSF, the percentage of body fat was calculated using the Slaughter equation (23) in a differentiated way by gender. For purpose of anthropometrical and statistical analyses, the total population was stratified into age groups according to the WHO: infants, toddlers, preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents (24).

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

One-way ANOVA with post-hoc tests (Bonferroni, Dunnett's T3) were used. The odds ratio was estimated to identify the probability of alteration of the nutritional status. Correlation matrices were made between the anthropometric indexes, arm areas and percentage of body fat. Finally, multiple regression models were designed with the anthropometric indices as dependent variables and the arm areas and fat percentage as independent variables. The outlier values that were considered due to measurement error or capture were excluded from the analysis. The software SPSS version 20 was used.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The protocol of investigation was evaluated and approved by the Bioethics and Research Committees of the Nuevo Hospital Civil de Guadalajara with the registration number in the Secretary of Health Jalisco: 1342/14.

RESULTS

Of the 760 children included, 27% were infants (one to eleven months), 9% toddlers (12 to 23 months), 25% preschoolers (24 to 71 months), 21% schoolchildren (72 to 143 months) and

18% adolescents (144 to 216 months). The age average in months was 4.6 ± 3 in infants, 17.6 ± 3 in toddlers, 45 ± 14 in preschoolers, 104 ± 21 in schoolchildren and 172 ± 16 in adolescents.

Table I shows the raw data and Z-scores of the anthropometric indicators; significant differences were observed in the anthropometric indexes (Z) between age groups. Infants had a greater deficit compared to toddlers, preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents in almost all anthropometric indexes.

When analyzing the arm anthropometry, it was observed that the infants had a greater deficit in TAA (Z), AMA (Z) and AFA (Z) in comparison with the other age groups, and there was also a greater deficit in preschoolers *versus* schoolchildren and adolescents in TAA (Z) and AFA (Z) (Table II).

There was a higher prevalence of acute malnutrition (BMI < -2 SD) in infants (31%) and in adolescents (13%); likewise, a higher prevalence of chronic malnutrition (height/age < -2 SD) was observed in infants (30%) and in toddlers (18%). It should

be noted that the presence of overweight/obesity increased gradually with age, until it was noticeable in schoolchildren (11%) and adolescents (8%). With respect to arm areas (TAA, AMA, AFA), a higher deficit (≤ -2 SD) was observed in infants and toddlers. It should also be noted that there are differences between the indicators evaluated; for example, between the TAA and AMA against BMI, there were around 10% points of difference, with the TAA and AMA being more sensitive in the identification of acute malnutrition, especially in infants, toddlers and preschoolers (Table III). There was an increased risk of deficit in TAA in infants, toddlers and preschoolers. In relation to the AMA and AFA, the risk of deficit was significantly higher in infants, and the same happened with the BMI. The risk of deficit of height/age index was higher in infants, toddlers and late preschoolers (Table IV).

Table V shows the proportional direct correlations between the anthropometric indexes and the arm areas, which are directly proportional.

**Table I. Raw data and Z-scores according to the age groups (n = 750).
Comparison of values between groups**

Indicator		Infants	Toddlers	Preschoolers	Schoolchildren	Adolescents
Weight (kg)	n	198	70	189	160	133
	Mean	5.78	10.10	15.13	28.99	50.42
	SD	2.05	1.69	3.19	10.69	12.88
Length/height (cm)	n	198	70	189	160	133
	Mean	60.99	79.49	99.20	130.1	158.29
	SD	7.37	5.30	9.14	11.76	9.19
BMI (kg/m ²)	n	198	70	189	160	133
	Mean	14.95	15.91	15.34	16.63	19.96
	SD	2.38	1.62	1.48	3.54	4.28
Cephalic C (cm)	n	192	68	52	-	-
	Mean	39.8	46.25	48.21	-	-
	SD	3.6	1.81	1.63	-	-
Weight/age (Z)*	n	198	70	189	-	-
	Mean	-1.68	-0.53	-0.43	-	-
	SD	1.77	1.35	1.11	-	-
Weight/height (Z)*	n	197	70	146	-	-
	Mean	-0.84	-0.27	-0.20	-	-
	SD	1.46	1.34	1.10	-	-
Cephalic C (Z)*	n	192	68	52	-	-
	Mean	-1.36	-0.38	-0.15	-	-
	SD	1.60	1.21	1.22	-	-
BMI/age (Z)*	n	198	70	189	160	133
	Mean	-1.26	-0.15	-0.15	-0.12	-0.20
	SD	1.65	1.31	1.11	1.53	1.54
Height/age (Z)*	n	198	70	189	160	133
	Mean	-1.45	-0.73	-0.54	-0.12	-0.40
	DE	1.62	1.33	1.17	1.01	1.08

BMI: body mass index; Cephalic C: cephalic circumference. *ANOVA differences between groups, $p < 0.001$; post-hoc tests; T3 by Dunnett and Bonferroni. Weight/age: infants vs toddlers $p < 0.001$; infants vs preschoolers $p < 0.001$. Height/age: infants vs toddlers $p < 0.001$; infants vs preschoolers $p < 0.001$; infants vs schoolchildren $p < 0.001$; infants vs adolescents $p < 0.001$; toddlers vs schoolchildren $p = 0.001$; preschoolers vs schoolchildren $p = 0.001$. Weight/height: infants vs toddlers $p = 0.001$; infants vs preschoolers $p = 0.001$. BMI/age: infants vs toddlers $p < 0.001$; infants vs preschoolers $p < 0.001$; infants vs schoolchildren $p < 0.001$; infants vs adolescents $p < 0.001$. Cephalic circumference: infants vs toddlers $p < 0.001$; infants vs preschoolers $p < 0.001$.

Table II. Skinfolds and arm areas according to the age groups (n = 749).
Comparison of arm areas between groups (Z-score)[†]

Age group		MUAC (cm)	TSF (mm)	SSF (mm)	TAA (cm ²)	TAA (Z)	AMA (cm ²)	AMA (Z)	AFA (cm ²)	AFA (Z)	Body fat (%) [*]
Infants	n	198	195	195	198	198	195	195	195	195	197
	Mean	11.47	7.27	5.8	10.77	-1.69	6.86	-1.68	3.90	-0.79	12.71
	SD	1.96	2.65	2.1	3.63	1.54	2.17	1.24	1.83	1.93	4.62
Toddlers	n	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69
	Mean	13.62	7.26	5.6	14.92	-0.94	10.32	-1.05	4.60	-1.24	12.60
	SD	1.37	1.76	1.5	2.85	1.09	2.01	0.88	1.30	0.58	3.23
Preschoolers	n	189	189	187	189	189	189	189	189	189	185
	Mean	15.10	8.31	5.8	18.36	-0.41	12.53	-0.95	5.84	-0.74	13.56
	SD	1.64	2.88	2.1	3.99	1.18	2.33	0.79	2.41	0.94	4.31
Schoolchildren	n	160	160	160	160	160	160	160	160	160	159
	Mean	19.00	12.55	8.7	29.81	0.15	18.35	-0.86	11.46	0.05	18.65
	SD	3.73	6.61	2.1	12.11	1.10	5.10	0.79	7.84	1.06	8.69
Adolescents	n	133	133	131	133	133	133	133	133	133	131
	Mean	23.66	16.00	12.4	45.99	0.05	28.32	-0.97	17.66	0.06	23.87
	SD	4.27	7.68	6.0	16.27	1.09	8.47	1.01	10.49	0.95	8.92

MUAC: mid-upper-arm circumference; TSF: tricipital skin fold; SSF: subscapular skin fold; TAA: total arm area; AMA: arm muscle area; AFA: arm fat area. ^{*}Percentage of fat (Slaugther, 1988). [†]ANOVA, differences between groups, $p < 0.001$; post-hoc tests; Dunnett's T3. TAA (Z): infants vs toddlers, preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents, $p < 0.001$; preschoolers vs schoolchildren and adolescents, $p < 0.005$. AMA (Z): infants vs toddlers, preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents, $p < 0.001$. AFA (Z): infants vs schoolchildren and adolescents, $p < 0.001$; toddlers vs preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents, $p < 0.001$; preschoolers vs schoolchildren and adolescents, $p < 0.001$.

Table III. Distribution of the frequency (%) of the anthropometric indexes and arm areas by age group in Z-score (n = 760)

Age group		TAA n (%)	AMA n (%)	AFA n (%)	BMI/age n (%)	Height/age n (%)
Infants	n	202	199	199	202	202
	< -3 a ≤ -2	95 (47)	86 (43.2)	62 (31.2)	63 (31.2)	60 (29.7)
	> -2 a ≤ 2	102 (50.5)	111 (55.8)	122 (61.3)	138 (68.3)	141 (69.8)
	> 2	5 (2.5)	2 (1)	15 (7.5)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.5)
Toddlers	n	70	70	70	71	71
	< -3 a ≤ -2	13 (18.6)	7 (10)	6 (8.6)	7 (9.9)	13 (18.3)
	> -2 a ≤ 2	57 (81.4)	63 (90)	64 (91.4)	62 (87.3)	58 (81.7)
	> 2	-	-	-	2 (2.8)	-
Preschoolers	n	191	191	191	191	191
	< -3 a ≤ -2	19 (9.9)	13 (6.8)	9 (4.7)	9 (4.7)	20 (10.5)
	> -2 a ≤ 2	166 (86.9)	177 (92.7)	178 (93.2)	176 (92.2)	169 (88.5)
	> 2	6 (3.1)	1 (0.5)	4 (2.1)	6 (3.1)	2 (1)
Schoolchildren	n	161	161	161	161	161
	< -3 a ≤ -2	2 (1.2)	9 (5.6)	-	15 (9.3)	7 (4.3)
	> -2 a ≤ 2	147 (91.3)	151 (93.8)	154 (95.7)	129 (80.1)	150 (93.2)
	> 2	12 (7.5)	1 (0.6)	7 (4.3)	17 (10.6)	4 (2.5)
Adolescents	n	135	135	135	135	135
	< -3 a ≤ -2	2 (1.5)	13 (9.6)	-	17 (12.6)	9 (6.7)
	> -2 a ≤ 2	124 (91.9)	117 (86.7)	130 (96.3)	107 (79.3)	124 (91.9)
	> 2	9 (6.7)	5 (3.7)	5 (3.7)	11 (8.1)	2 (1.5)

TAA: total arm area; AMA: arm muscle area; AFA: arm fat area; BMI: body mass index.

**Table IV. Probability of deficit (OR)
in indicators of body composition
by age group (< -2 Z) (n = 760)**

Indicators	OR	95% CI	p
Total arm area			
Infants vs toddlers	4	2.01-7.55	< 0.001
Infants vs preschoolers	8	4.64-13.9	< 0.001
Infants vs schoolchildren	71	17.0-292	< 0.001
Infants vs adolescents	59	14.2-245	< 0.001
Toddlers vs schoolchildren	18	3.97-82.8	< 0.001
Toddlers vs adolescents	15	3.32-69.4	< 0.001
Preschoolers vs schoolchildren	9	2.01-38.3	0.001
Preschoolers vs adolescents	7	1.68-32.1	0.004
Arm muscular area			
Infants vs preschoolers	7	2.99-15.70	< 0.001
Infants vs preschoolers	10	5.56-19.55	< 0.001
Infants vs schoolchildren	13	6.20-26.63	< 0.001
Infants vs adolescents	7	3.78-13.50	< 0.001
Arm fat area			
Infants vs toddlers	5	1.98-11.74	< 0.001
Infants vs preschoolers	9	4.46-19.34	< 0.001
BMI			
Infants vs toddlers	4	1.80-9.55	< 0.001
Infants vs preschoolers	9	4.41-19.10	< 0.001
Infants vs schoolchildren	4	2.40-8-11	< 0.001
Infants vs adolescents	3	1.75-5.67	< 0.001
Adolescents vs preschoolers	3	1.26-6.75	0.017
Height/age			
Infants vs preschoolers	4	2.05-6.21	< 0.001
Infants vs schoolchildren	9	4.11-21.01	< 0.001
Infants vs adolescents	6	2.82-12.41	< 0.001
Toddlers vs schoolchildren	5	1.88-12.97	0.001
Toddlers vs adolescents	3	1.27-7.76	0.020
Preschoolers vs school children	3	1.06-6.25	0.051

BMI: body mass index.

When performing the linear regression, it was observed that the variability of the BMI is explained in 50% by the TAA, in 47% by the AMA, in 40% by the AFA, and in 46% by the percentage of fat. The variability of the weight/age index is explained in 53% by the TAA, in 51% by the AMA, and in 40% by the percentage of fat. The variability of the weight/height index is explained in 38% by the TAA, in 32% by the AMA, and in 42% by the percentage of fat. It should be noted that between the height/age index and the cephalic circumference, a positive correlation is maintained, where the height/age index predicts 46% of its variability.

Table VI shows the multiple linear regression models; it is observed that in children under 36 months of age, the variability of the BMI is explained in 67% by the AMA, AFA and percentage of fat; 31% of

the variability of the cephalic circumference is explained by the AMA, AFA and percentage of fat. Likewise, the variability of the height/age index is explained in 35% by the AMA, AFA and percentage of fat. In patients older than 36 months, BMI variability is explained in 73% by the AFA and AMA; the variability of the height/age index is explained in 27% by the TAA, AMA and percentage of fat.

DISCUSSION

In the studied pediatric sample in hospitalized patients, it was observed that the prevalence of acute malnutrition (deficit in BMI) and chronic malnutrition (deficit in height/age) was higher in infants than in preschoolers, schoolchildren and adolescents. These findings do not differ from those observed by other researchers (4-6). The probability of deficit in arm areas was significantly higher in children under 24 months (infants and toddlers) than in the other age groups.

The frequency of deficit observed with these indirect anthropometric indicators of the arm coincided with the frequency of malnutrition described above with the anthropometric indexes of BMI and height/age. It is known that when there is an impairment in nutritional status, the reserves of fat and muscle (reflected in the areas of the arm) are significantly affected, particularly at early ages when growth and development are accelerated and there is greater metabolic activity. Therefore, any moderate or severe nutritional insult has a significant effect on nutritional status and body composition (3,15). These findings corroborate the hypothesis that arm areas are a useful tool in the diagnosis of malnutrition, especially acute malnutrition, regardless of the age group; it is also important to note that with the TAA and AMA, the identification of acute malnutrition increased by 10% points.

Another interesting finding refers to the positive correlations that occurred between the anthropometric indexes and body composition indicators. The correlation between BMI and TAA is noteworthy, since both indicators include fat and muscle mass; also, the correlation between BMI with the AMA and the AFA was observed previously (25,26). Hurtado-López et al. (17) mention that the anthropometry of the arm has a positive correlation with the indicators of body composition and, in turn, with linear growth. Their findings coincide with those observed in this study. As it has been observed, when the pediatric patient is undergoing a nutritional insult, the fat and muscle reserves are affected in the first instance; if the nutritional insult continues, linear growth is affected.

In the hospital setting, the prevalence of malnutrition is high, mainly in intermediate or intensive therapies (3,5,7). It should be noted that in these units of care for critically ill pediatric patients, a complete assessment of the nutritional status of the patient is not usually undertaken, due to the severity of the condition that prevents the patient from moving and/or the lack of adequate equipment to perform the proper anthropometric evaluation. Under these conditions, the evaluation of arm anthropometry is a good option, either as part of a comprehensive evaluation or as a specific alternative way of assessing nutritional status. This suggestion is based on the analysis of the multiple linear regression models, where it was observed that the anthropometric indexes are largely explained by the muscle and fat areas of the arm (16,25).

Table V. Correlation and determination coefficients of Z-scores of indirect arm anthropometric indicators (independent variable) with Z-scores nutritional status and growth indicators (dependent variable) obtained in a sample of hospitalized pediatric patients

Dependent variable	Independent variable	n	r	R ²	β	p
BMI	Total arm area	748	0.669	0.489	0.477	< 0.001
	Arm fat area	753	0.657	0.432	0.453	< 0.001
	Arm muscle area	753	0.567	0.432	0.453	< 0.001
Weight for height	Total arm area	408	0.594	0.353	0.528	< 0.001
	Arm fat area	409	0.521	0.271	0.469	< 0.001
	Arm muscle area	409	0.522	0.305	0.670	< 0.001
Weight for age	Total arm area	568	0.698	0.473	0.721	< 0.001
	Arm fat area	567	0.566	0.320	0.625	< 0.001
	Arm muscle area	569	0.683	0.466	1.042	< 0.001
Height for age	Total arm area	733	0.507	0.257	0.441	< 0.001
	Arm fat area	734	0.410	0.168	0.377	< 0.001
	Arm muscle area	735	0.518	0.269	0.639	< 0.001
Cephalic circumference for age	Total arm area	308	0.469	0.220	0.467	< 0.001
	Arm fat area	312	0.348	0.121	0.345	< 0.001
	Arm muscle area	312	0.515	0.265	0.690	< 0.001

BMI: body mass index.

Table VI. Multiple Linear Regression Models*. Relationship between indirect anthropometric indicators (Z-score) and percentage of body fat[†] with direct indicators (Z score) (n = 749)

Dependent variable	Independent variable	n	Mean	SD	r	R ²	p
< 36 months							
BMI	AMA	330	-1.40	1.18	0.821	0.674	< 0.001
	AFA		-0.98	1.60			
	% body fat		12.6	4.27			
Cephalic C	AMA	311	-1.41	1.20	0.556	0.309	0.001
	AFA		-0.99	1.63			
	% body fat		12.6	2.28			
Height/age	AMA	330	-1.40	1.18	0.591	0.349	0.010
	AFA		-0.98	1.60			
	% body fat		12.6	4.27			
≥ 36 months							
BMI	AFA	425	-0.09	1.24	0.852	0.726	< 0.001
	AMA		-0.91	0.97			
Height/age	TAA	425	0.02	1.35	0.521	0.271	< 0.001
	AMA		-0.90	0.96			
	% body fat		19.2	9.1			
Total population							
BMI	AMA	748	-1.13	1.09	0.822	0.676	< 0.001
	AFA		-0.47	1.48			
	% body fat		16.3	8.04			
Height/age	AMA	748	-1.13	1.09	0.582	0.339	< 0.001
	AFA		-0.47	1.48			

TAA: total arm area; AMA: arm muscle area; AFA: arm fat area; Cephalic C: cephalic circumference; BMI: body mass index. *Stepwise method. [†]Estimated fat percentage with Slaughter's equation (1988).

The arm anthropometry has been commonly used in the evaluation of patients with chronic kidney disease, chronic liver disease, and cystic fibrosis because the clinical conditions presented by these patients (visceromegaly, generalized edema, etc.) make it difficult to interpret weight/age, weight/height and BMI indexes (16,17,19).

There are several methods to evaluate body composition, such as dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) and bioelectrical impedance (IBE), among others (1). Among its advantages, the accuracy of the evaluation stands out; however, they are costly methods and are not always accessible in the hospital units that care for children, especially in less industrialized countries. In addition, the usefulness of these options in the hospitalized patient can be limited by the patient's clinical conditions, as is the case with IBE, which is affected by the patient's hydration conditions. Therefore, anthropometry of the arm would be an optimal, adequate, accessible and simple method for evaluating the body composition of the hospitalized patient, an opinion shared by other researchers (17,19,27-29).

One strength of the study is that the size of the sample was large and that different age groups with different pathologies were included. In addition, the length of the study period was a full year. One possible limitation was the outliers that had to be discarded in the statistical analysis.

In conclusion, the evaluation of arm anthropometry is a good option, either as part of a comprehensive evaluation or as a specific alternative way of assessing nutritional status. The measurement of the arm areas is a useful tool in the diagnosis of chronic-acute malnutrition, while the BMI only reflects an acute deficit in hospitalized pediatric patients.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Use of different segmental multi-frequency bioelectrical impedance devices for analysis of body composition in young adults: comparison with bioelectrical spectroscopy

Uso de diferentes equipamientos de bioimpedancia eléctrica multifrecuencia para análisis de la composición corporal en adultos jóvenes: comparación con espectroscopia bioeléctrica

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Abstract

Introduction: recently there have been several new versions of equipment based on the principles of bioelectrical impedance (BIA). Therefore, it is important to know the agreement between data produced by different commercially available equipment.

Objective: to verify the agreement between fat-free mass (FFM), fat mass (FM), and body fat percentage (BF%) estimated using different segmental multi-frequency BIA (Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770®) and whole-body spectral techniques (Xitron 4200).

Methods: the sample consisted of 117 adults of both sexes, aged between 18 and 28 years. Methodological procedures followed specific guidelines for each equipment model. Agreement was analyzed by the t-test for paired data, concordance correlation coefficient (CCC), and Bland-Altman plot.

Results: mean estimates of FFM, FM, and BF% produced by the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® devices did not present statistical differences compared to the Xitron 4200® reference device. CCC values for FFM demonstrated magnitudes between 0.904 and 0.931, representing clinically acceptable strength of agreement, while for FM and BF% the strength of agreements was weak (< 0.90). Regarding the FFM, the bias showed underestimates of -0.98 kg to -1.69 kg, with limits of agreement between -7.32 kg and 3.94 kg. In the case of FM and BF%, overestimations were observed that reached values of 1.01 kg and 0.71%, with limits of agreement of -1.91 kg to 3.93 kg and -3.86% to 5.28%, respectively.

Conclusion: FFM, FM, and BF% estimated by the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® devices were not individually comparable with estimates produced by the Xitron 4200® reference device; therefore, its replacement for diagnostic purposes and inter- or intra-subject comparisons is not recommended.

Key words:

Fat-free mass.
Body fat. Body
fat percentage.
Measurement bias.
Validity.

Resumen

Introducción: recientemente han surgido varias versiones de equipamiento que se basan en los principios de bioimpedancia eléctrica (BIA). Por lo tanto, es importante conocer la concordancia entre datos producidos por diferentes equipamientos disponibles comercialmente.

Objetivos: verificar la concordancia entre masa libre de grasa (MLG), masa grasa (MG) y porcentaje de grasa (%Grasa) estimadas por diferentes equipamientos de BIA por técnica segmentar de multifrecuencia (Tanita® MC-980U e InBody 770®) y espectral de cuerpo entero (Xitron 4200®).

Métodos: muestra constituida por 117 adultos de ambos sexos con edad entre 18 y 28 años. Los procedimientos metodológicos han seguido las directrices específicas de cada modelo de equipamiento. La concordancia se analizó mediante el test t para datos pareados, coeficiente de correlación de concordancia (CCC) y trazado Bland-Altman.

Resultados: las estimaciones medias de MLG, MG y %Grasa producidas por los equipamientos Tanita® MC-980U e InBody 770® no presentaron diferencias estadísticas en comparación con el equipamiento de referencia Xitron 4200®. Los valores de CCC para MLG presentaron magnitudes entre 0,904 y 0,931, lo que representa una fuerza de concordancia clínicamente aceptable, mientras que para MG y %Grasa la fuerza de concordancia fue débil (< 0,90). Con respecto al MLG, los sesgos apuntaron subestimaciones de -0,98 kg a -1,69 kg, con límites de concordancia entre -7,32 kg y 3,94 kg. En el caso de la MG y del %Grasa, se observaron sobreestimaciones que alcanzaron valores de 1,01 kg y 0,71%, con límites de concordancia de -1,91 kg a 3,93 kg y -3,86% a 5,28%, respectivamente.

Conclusión: la MLG, la MG y el %Grasa estimados por los equipamientos Tanita® MC-980U e InBody 770® no fueron comparables individualmente con estimaciones producidas por el equipamiento de referencia Xitron 4200®. Por lo tanto, no se aconseja su sustitución para efecto de diagnóstico y comparaciones inter o intraindividuos.

Palabras clave:

Masa libre de grasa.
Grasa corporal.
Porcentaje de grasa.
Sesgo de la medida.
Validez.

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INTRODUCTION

Through analysis of body composition it is possible to identify the main structural components of the human body, in particular the body weight fractions equivalent to fat mass (FM) and fat-free mass (FFM), used as important markers in the diagnosis of specific diseases (1,2), diet and exercise interventions (3,4), and performance improvement in athletes (5,6). As a result, there has been increasing interest from researchers and professionals from different areas in monitoring body composition, which has favored the development of new techniques and equipment that can offer greater validity of the estimates of its components (7). However, the results given by the different techniques available for analysis of body composition present variations depending on the biophysical assumptions that guide them and the requirements for conditions of use (8). In this context, it is important to know the limitations and potentialities of each technique as well as the validation criteria so that the estimates can be interpreted correctly.

Laboratory techniques, including dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry, computed tomography, magnetic resonance imaging, underwater weighing, and air displacement plethysmography, among others, provide very accurate estimates, thus representing the first choice to gather information about body composition. However, frequently, due to the high cost of the equipment, the requirement for complex installations, the methodological sophistication, the need for a technician specifically qualified to apply the procedures, and the difficulty in involving individuals in the measurement protocols, their use in the clinical environment has been limited (9). Thus, the simplicity and safety of procedures, portability of the equipment used, and relative ease of interpretation of the data have established bioelectrical impedance (BIA) as one of the techniques with greater applicability, encouraging an increasing number of professionals to use these methods (10,11). Several validation studies have been conducted with BIA procedures, and good correlations were found with reference techniques (12-17).

The BIA technique was originally described in the 1960s; however, it was not until 1980 that it became widely known (18). The procedures are based on the different levels of electrical conductivity of biological tissues exposed to an electric current. From data on the impedance, function dependent on the resistance presented by the tissues themselves, and the reactance or opposition caused by the insulation capacity to the conduction of the electric current presented by cell membranes and nonionic elements, the total, intra, and extracellular water quantities are estimated by specific formulas. Subsequently, through derivations using supposed fractions of body hydration, the proportions of FFM, FM, and body fat percentage (BF%) are calculated (19).

Recently, there have been several new versions of equipment based on the principles of BIA, broadly classified into two categories: mono-frequency and multi-frequency. Mono-frequency devices are more limited in their ability to distinguish water distribution in intra- and extracellular compartments, which weakens the validity indicators for FFM and FM estimates (10). Therefore, preference should be given to the use of multi-frequency equipment (11). The traditional characteristic of multi-frequency equip-

ment involves spectral frequencies up to 1,300 kHz, denominated BIA spectroscopy. However, other derivations of multi-frequency equipment provide impedance data generated by a specific set of frequencies, including from the lowest to progressively higher frequencies, typically 5, 50, 250, 500, and 1,000 kHz (11,18). Thus, due to the need to establish comparisons between both configurations, it is important to know the agreement between data produced by different commercially available equipment.

The objective of the present study was to verify the agreement between FFM, FM, and BF% estimated by different BIA devices involving segmental multi-frequency (Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770®) and whole-body spectral techniques (Xitron 4200®).

METHODS

EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM

Participants completed a single visit to the laboratory for this study. Subjects had body composition measured with BIA spectroscopy and two segmental multi-frequency BIA devices. The body composition indicators, including FFM, FM, and BF%, were estimated through formulas and algorithms contained in the software developed by the manufacturers themselves of each device.

SUBJECTS

To carry out the study, students were selected from the courses of nutrition and physical education of a Brazilian university. The intervention protocols were approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the institution. The inclusion of university students in the study was based on their desire to participate. To this end, all university students who attended both courses in the 2017 academic year were contacted and informed about the nature and objectives of the study and invited to participate. From a total of 298 undergraduates, 117 (66 women and 51 men) agreed to participate in the study, confirming by signing the free and informed consent. The participants were aged between 18 and 28 years (women: 22.4 ± 3.1 years; men: 23.3 ± 3.4 years).

PROCEDURES

The participants underwent the measurement protocols for the three devices in a single section, in a random sequence, between 7:00 and 9:00 in the morning and in a room with a controlled ambient temperature of approximately 23 °C. Initially, measurements of body weight and height were performed according to conventional methodology and the body mass index (BMI) was calculated, the ratio between body weight in kilograms and the square of the height in meters (20).

The methodological procedures for the BIA measurements followed the specific guidelines for the configuration of each device; however, the following were established as standard: a) not hav-

ing used diuretic medications in the previous seven days; b) to have been fasting for at least four hours; c) not having ingested alcohol or caffeinated beverages in the previous 48 hours; d) having abstained from moderate-intense physical activity in the previous 24 hours; e) urinating at least 30 minutes prior to the measurement; f) wearing swimming trunks or swimsuits; g) being barefoot; h) not wearing watches, earrings, rings, bracelets, or any other metal accessory; and i) remaining for at least 8-10 minutes in absolute rest in the position required by the device (supine or orthostatic) before performing the measurement, in order to minimize any bias as a result of acute changes in the distribution of body fluids (10,11,15,18,19). Data collection was postponed for any women who noticed the presence of menstrual flow. In addition to these precautions, the calibration characteristics of each device were observed.

In the case of spectral BIA, Xitron Hydra 4200® (Xitron Technologies, San Diego, CA, USA) equipment was used. This equipment model employs 256 frequencies between 4 and 1,024 kHz and determines internally the quantities of body water (total, intra, and extracellular) using mathematical modeling based on the Cole-Cole plot and the Hanai mixing theory (21). To perform the measurements the participants were placed supine on a stretcher isolated from electric conductors, their arms discreetly removed from the trunk and their legs abducted and separated by about 45°. After cleansing the skin with tissue dampened in alcohol solution, the two emitting electrodes were attached distally to the dorsal surface of the right hand and foot, in the plane of the head of the third metacarpal and third metatarsal, respectively. In turn, the receptor electrodes were placed proximally also on the right hand and foot, the first on the wrist, in an imaginary plane of union of the two styloid apophyses, and the second on the dorsal region of the tibiotarsal joint, on an imaginary line of the salient part of the two malleoli (15). Disposable Ag/AgCl electrodes were used with adhesive and conductive gel with a contact area of 4 cm².

For the segmental multi-frequency technique, Tanita MC-980U® (Tanita Corporation, Inc, Tokyo, Japan) and InBody 770® (Biospace, Los Angeles, CA, USA) devices were used. Both devices feature a tetra-polar tactile electrode system with eight contact points, two on each hand and foot, and perform impedance measurements at six different frequencies (1, 5, 50, 250, 500, and 1,000 kHz) for each segment (right arm, left arm, trunk, right leg and left leg). For data collection, after cleansing the skin of the soles of the feet and palms of the hands with tissue dampened in alcohol solution, the participants positioned themselves on the tactile electrodes for the feet embedded in the platform of the respective equipment. They were instructed to remain in the orthostatic position and to hold the equipment loops by lateral abduction of the arms at approximately 20° and flexion of the scapulohumeral joint at around 30°, providing contact with the eight points of the tactile electrodes: two on each foot (metatarsals and calcaneus) and two on each hand (metacarpals of the 2nd-5th fingers and phalange of the thumb). Prior to performing the measurement, it was verified that the legs and thighs and arms and trunk were not in contact (13).

Prior to the beginning the measurement procedures, information about the participant, including sex, age, and height were

recorded on the display of the three devices. Activating the equipment causes an electric current to travel through the participant's body, estimating a series of body composition indicators, including FFM, FM, and BF%, provided immediately through formulas and algorithms contained in the software developed by the manufacturers themselves. The procedures were replicated consecutively for each device and the average value of the indicators adopted as the representative values for the device.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

All data were analyzed using SPSS (version 24, IBM, Armonk, NY). Data were initially compared to the normal curve using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov distribution test. Considering that the data presented normal frequency distribution, the resources of parametric statistics were used. To characterize the sample, the descriptive statistics procedures (mean $\pm$ standard deviation) were used and, subsequently, the Student's t-test to identify any differences between the sexes. Agreement between the FFM, FM, and BF% values provided by Tanita® MC-980U, InBody 770®, and Xitron 4200® were analyzed using three statistical procedures:

1. Student's t-test for paired data.
2. Concordance correlation coefficient (CCC) proposed by Lin (22), which allows measurement of how much the pairs of measures produced by the equipment fit the identity line, established at 45° from the origin line. CCC values ≥ 0.90 were considered as clinically acceptable and CCC values < 0.90 were considered as weak (23).
3. Bland-Altman scatter plot, where the bias is represented by the mean difference accompanied by the standard deviation of the differences. In this case, the agreement limits of 95% were calculated by means of the mean difference ± 1.96 standard deviation of the differences between the devices (24,25).

RESULTS

Statistical information regarding the analyzed anthropometric variables is provided in table I. The participants of the study were aged between 18 and 28 years and, when comparing the mean values observed in both sexes, the differences found were not statistically indicated. However, mean values for body weight ($t = 13.327$, $p < 0.001$), height ($t = 17.728$; $p < 0.001$), and BMI ($t = 6.418$; $p < 0.001$) were significantly higher in men.

Statistical indicators regarding the degree of agreement of the measurements of FFM, FM, and BF% estimated by the Tanita® MC-980U, InBody 770®, and Xitron 4200® are shown in table II. In both sexes, the mean estimates of FFM, FM, and BF% produced by the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® did not present statistical differences in comparison with the Xitron 4200® reference device. Values equivalent to the CCC for FFM estimated by the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® devices presented magnitudes between 0.904 and 0.931, which represents a clinically

Table I. Mean, standard deviation and t-test values of anthropometric variables of the university students analyzed in the study

	Women (n = 66)	Men (n = 51)	t-test
Body weight (kg)	59.68 ± 8.05	75.35 ± 9.58	13.327 (p < 0.001)
Height (cm)	166.07 ± 5.69	177.62 ± 7.02	17.728 (p < 0.001)
BMI (kg/m ²)	21.74 ± 3.65	23.96 ± 3.94	6.418 (p < 0.001)

BMI: body mass index.

Table II. Statistical indicators regarding the degree of agreement between fat free mass (FFM), fat mass (FM) and body fat percentage (BF%) estimated by the devices Xitron 4200®, Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770®

	Mean ± standard-deviation	t-test	CCC*	Bias†	95% limit of agreement‡
Women (n = 66)					
FFM – Xitron 4200®	44.94 ± 5.76				
FFM – Tanita® MC-980U	43.05 ± 6.18	1.818 (p = 0.071)	0.904	-1.69 ± 2.87	-7.32 to 3.94
FFM – InBody 770®	43.68 ± 5.92	1.239 (p = 0.218)	0.921	-1.43 ± 2.55	-6.43 to 3.57
FM – Xitron 4200®	15.32 ± 2.47				
FM – Tanita® MC-980U	16.71 ± 3.13	2.432 (p = 0.064)	0.764	0.98 ± 1.74	-2.43 to 4.39
FM – InBody 770®	15.96 ± 2.75	1.407 (p = 0.162)	0.849	0.80 ± 1.62	-2.38 to 3.98
BF% – Xitron 4200®	25.53 ± 4.61				
BF% – Tanita® MC-980U	28.06 ± 5.28	2.553 (p = 0.059)	0.793	0.71 ± 2.33	-3.86 to 5.28
BF% – InBody 770®	26.78 ± 4.96	1.504 (p = 0.136)	0.875	0.43 ± 1.97	-3.43 to 4.29
Men (n = 51)					
FFM – Xitron 4200®	62.38 ± 7.82				
FFM – Tanita® MC-980U	61.19 ± 8.99	0.713 (p = 0.477)	0.914	-1.51 ± 2.56	-6.53 to 3.51
FFM – InBody 770®	61.94 ± 8.16	0.278 (p = 0.782)	0.931	-0.98 ± 2.04	-4.98 to 3.02
FM – Xitron 4200®	11.16 ± 1.96				
FM – Tanita® MC-980U	12.38 ± 2.34	2.654 (p = 0.061)	0.786	1.01 ± 1.49	-1.91 to 3.93
FM – InBody 770®	11.55 ± 2.17	0.952 (p = 0.343)	0.868	0.23 ± 1.10	-1.93 to 2.39
BF% – Xitron 4200®	15.23 ± 3.57				
BF% – Tanita® MC-980U	16.84 ± 4.15	2.100 (p = 0.069)	0.807	0.60 ± 1.73	-2.79 to 3.99
BF% – InBody 770®	15.67 ± 3.71	0.610 (p = 0.541)	0.882	0.33 ± 1.36	-2.34 to 3.00

*Concordance correlation coefficient. †Mean difference accompanied by the standard deviation of the differences. ‡Mean difference ± 1.96 standard deviation of the differences.

acceptable strength of agreement, while for FM and BF% the strength of agreement was weak (< 0.90).

Regarding FFM, the biases point to underestimates varying from -0.98 ± 2.04 kg, with agreement limits between -4.98 kg and 3.02 kg (InBody 770® versus Xitron 4200® in men), and -1.69 ± 2.87 kg, with limits of agreement between -7.32 kg and 3.94 kg (Tanita® MC-980U versus Xitron 4200® in women). In the case of FM and BF%, overestimations are observed, reaching values of 1.01 ± 1.49 kg and $0.71 \pm 2.33\%$, with agreement limits of -1.91 kg to 3.93 kg and -3.86% to 5.28% (Tanita® MC-980U versus Xitron 4200® in women), respectively.

Specific analysis of each device reveals that estimates of FFM, FM, and BF% produced by the InBody 770® tend to agree more closely with the estimates produced by the Xitron 4200®. In the comparison between the devices Tanita® MC-980U and Xitron

4200®, although relatively low mean differences are found, excessively high agreement limits are identified. When stratifying by sex, it is observed that men tend to present greater agreement between FFM, FM, and BF% estimated by the devices Tanita® MC-980U, InBody 770®, and Xitron 4200®.

Figure 1 shows the dispersion diagrams with a plot of the mean differences (abscissa) and individual differences between the BF% estimated by the considered device (ordinate). The graphical layout of individual data present different trends according to sex and device configuration. The women presented a positive association between the bias dimensions and the amounts of BF%, indicating that the BF% produced by the devices Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® is equally underestimated in smaller measures and overestimated in larger measures compared to the BF% produced by the Xitron 4200®. The differences are greatly

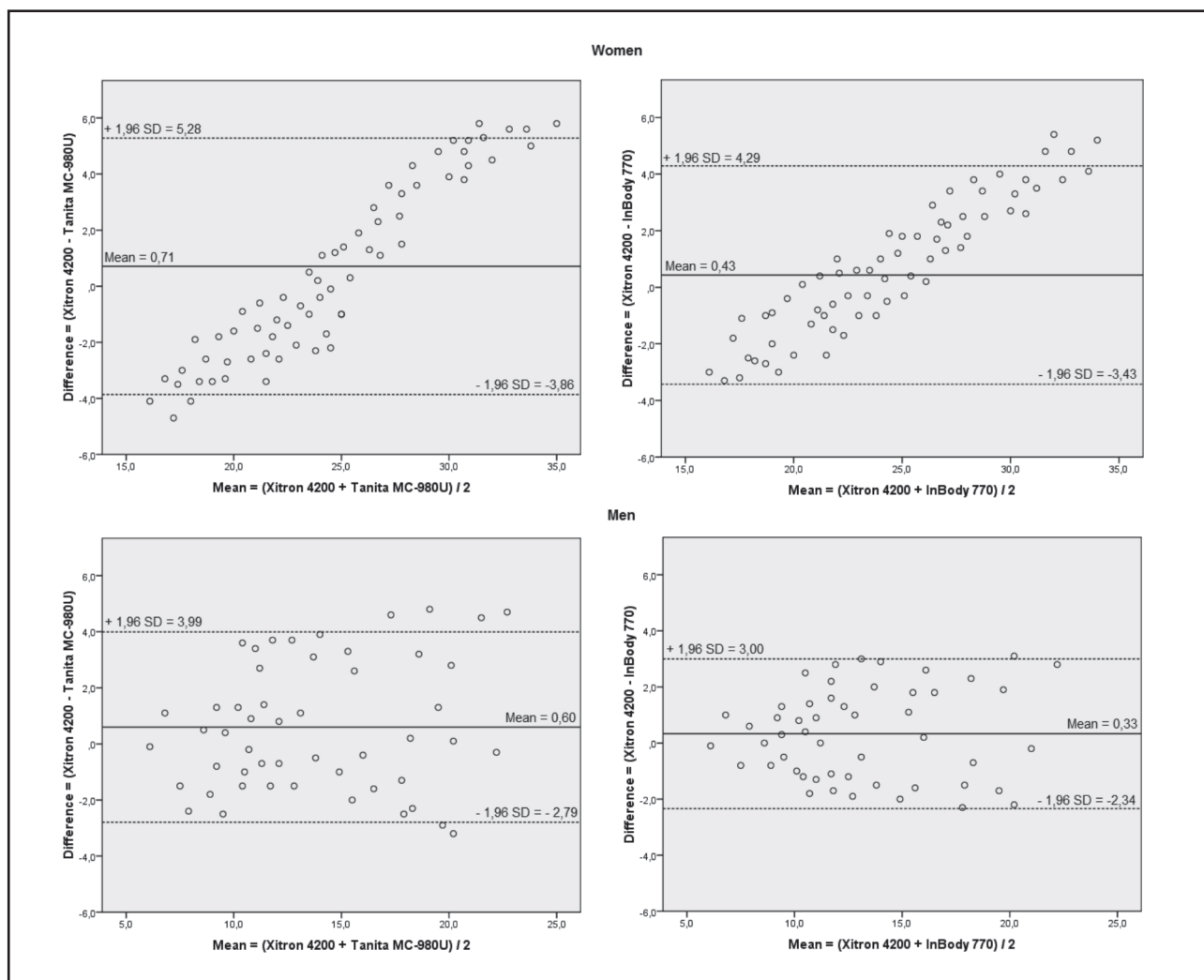


Figure 1.

Bland-Altman plot for the limits of agreement between amounts of body fat percentage (BF%) estimated by the devices Tanita® MC-980U, InBody 770® and Xitron 4200®. The solid line represents the mean difference between the estimates produced by the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® in comparison with the Xitron 4200® reference device. The dashed lines represent ± 1.96 standard deviation of the differences.

diminished as the BF% approaches intermediate measures. On the other hand, in men, the comparisons between the individual measures of BF% estimated by the Tanita® MC-980U, InBody 770®, and Xitron 4200® suggest differences of smaller magnitude and similar behavior throughout the continuum of measurements.

DISCUSSION

The present study verified the agreement with which two segmental configuration multi-frequency devices (Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770®) can estimate FFM, FM, and BF% values using as a reference a whole-body spectral configuration device (Xitron 4200®) in a sample of young Brazilian adults. The main finding pointed to a fragile agreement between the devices, and in the same participants, at the same time, and under the same condi-

tions, Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® produced systematically overestimated individual measurements of FM and BF% compared to the Xitron 4200® and, in turn, underestimated FFM measures.

The use of the Bland-Altman procedure was fundamental for data analysis since, despite the lack of statistical differences between the mean FFM, FM, and BF% measurements produced by the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® devices compared to the Xitron 4200® reference device, and the low magnitudes of the average biases, the limits of agreement of the individual measurements were extremely broad. The CCC values < 0.90 reinforced the fragility of agreement between the devices. In this regard, it should be pointed out that, in women, the degree of agreement was affected by the size of the adopted measures of FFM, FM, and BF%, which prevents the proposition of simple correction factors for adjustment in eventual comparisons between data produced by the devices.

Thus, the similarities between the mean measurements and the low magnitudes of the average biases suggest that if the purpose is to identify FFM, FM, or BF% in large-scale population surveys, then the use of the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® may be an efficient alternative to replace or carry out comparisons with measures produced by the Xitron 4200® when it is not available or its procedures are not recommended for the specific situation. However, due to the broader limits of agreement, the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® should be used with extreme caution in monitoring changes in individual body composition in the clinical setting.

Investigations with the purpose of identifying agreements between different configurations of BIA equipment under identical measurement conditions are common, be it in young, adult, and elderly populations. However, there has been a predominance of studies that seek to compare devices of tetra-polar *versus* bipolar configuration (26,27), multi-frequency *versus* mono-frequency (28), or compared with some reference method (12,16). To our knowledge, no previous studies have been conducted with the purpose of directly comparing spectral configurations of whole body and segmental multi-frequency equipment.

Immediately, it can be hypothesized that the observed discrepancies could be partially explained by methodological factors involving the orthostatic or supine position to perform the procedures and the arrangement of the electrodes emitting and receiving electric current. An orthostatic posture results in displacement of more fluid to the extremities, altering the volume and cross-sectional area and inducing changes in muscle hydration. Larger variations are identified in the proportion of extracellular fluids, as this compartment is more dependent on gravitational displacements (29). Experimental studies have shown that when posture changes from an orthostatic position to a supine position, extracellular water decreases significantly in the limbs (arms and legs); however, increases in the trunk region, causing, therefore, significant changes in the estimates of FFM, FM, and BF% (30).

Another decisive factor that may contribute to the divergences observed is the difference related to the emitting and receiving electrodes (type, quantity, and placement) used by the whole body spectral and segmental multi-frequency equipment. The Xitron 4200® reference device uses a tetra-polar disposable electrode system with adhesive and conductive gel fixed at four anatomical points, while the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® devices, despite using a tetra-polar electrode system, are tactile and in contact with the body at eight anatomical points. Previous studies have shown that different electrode characteristics can significantly impact impedance measurements due to observed fluctuations in the distribution of the electric field (31).

Although spectral BIA, using the Xitron 4200®, was used as the reference configuration for comparison with segmental BIA using the alternative devices Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770®, this configuration should not be considered as a gold standard for estimates of FFM, FM, and BF%. In this case, multi-compartmental analysis models, especially those involving four compartments, are the most indicated reference methods, since they do not assume theoretical assumptions and allow control of inter-individual var-

iability of the various molecular components of FFM. However, studies of multi-compartmental models have pointed out that spectral BIA is a valid and convenient technique for establishing estimates of FFM, FM, and BF% (32,33), supporting its use as a reference configuration.

Although there are some uncertainties and controversies over their use, BIA procedures present numerous advantages for use in the clinical setting (2,10). However, concern regarding the configuration of the equipment and validity of the algorithms and formulas used by the manufacturer to estimate the total, intra, and extracellular water quantities is fundamental for the quality of the measurements of FFM, FM, and % Fat. Therefore, an important aspect to be highlighted is the fact that the FFM, FM, and BF% measurements in the present study were recorded based on information made available specifically by each of the three devices according to algorithms and formulas defined by their own manufacturers, which is the usual situation in the clinical environment. In this case, another possible contributing factor to the divergences found between the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® compared to the Xitron 4200® reference device may be related to the differences in algorithms and formulas used by the manufacturers of the three devices for the estimations of FFM, FM, and BF%.

Even though a weak agreement was found between FFM, FM, and BF% measurements produced by spectral whole-body BIA (Xitron 4200®) and segmental multi-frequency BIA (Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770®), it should be noted that the use of spectral whole-body BIA requires the placement of electrodes with adhesive and conductive gel at specific anatomical points, which increases the susceptibility of error, and the evaluated individual should be in a supine position. Therefore, in principle, the use of the segmental multi-frequency technique may be more convenient due to the use of tactile electrodes coupled to the equipment itself, which minimizes the possibility of error related to the placement of electrodes with adhesive and conductive gel, and the evaluated individual is maintained in an orthostatic position, making it more feasible from a practical point of view. In addition, due to the lack of stretchers, the measurement procedures using segmental multi-frequency devices require less space in the clinical environment (14).

Although the results obtained in the present study are innovative based on the lack of previous research on the degree of agreement of these devices in the estimates of FFM, FM, and BF% in adults, some limitations should be considered. The spectral device Xitron 4200® was used as a reference for comparison with the other two devices. Although the Xitron 4200® presents high reproducibility of measurement and satisfactory validity for estimates of total, intra, and extracellular water in comparison with the deuterium dilution method (34,35), it is recognized that some discrepancies between the measures may be due to possible errors of estimates made by this device. Furthermore, other investigations similar to the present study used the Xitron 4200® as a reference for comparisons with other models of BIA equipment (36). Another limitation is the fact that the selected sample consists of a homogeneous group of apparently healthy young adults, with a relatively small proportion of participants with low

or obese body weight. Therefore, the results are comparable only to individuals with similar characteristics and should not be generalized to other segments of the population or to individuals with any type of morbidity that affects nutritional status or hydration. For this, further investigations are required, including individuals with extreme body weight and of different age groups and ethnic backgrounds. In addition, the degree of agreement was verified in a cross-sectional observational study, and it is therefore advisable to extend the study to a longitudinal design.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the present study was to provide evidence to support the use of segmental multi-frequency BIA equipment for analysis of body composition indicators in place of spectral BIA equipment. At times, it is useful to replace the use of spectral BIA equipment in the clinical environment as its procedures require the use of a stretcher and the placement of electrodes with conductive gel. However, based on the observed degrees of agreement, it can be concluded that estimates of FFM, FM and BF% measurements produced by the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® devices are not individually comparable with estimates produced by the Xitron 4200® reference equipment in young adults; therefore, its substitution is not recommended for diagnostic purposes and inter- or intra-subject comparisons.

However, considering the statistical similarity observed between the mean measures and the low magnitudes of the average biases, estimates of FFM, FM and BF% produced by the three devices may possibly be comparable in epidemiological studies. In addition, in view of the use of tactile electrodes and, thus, the possibility of reducing the pre-measure preparation time of the evaluated individuals, minimizing the chances of inter- and intra-investigator errors and avoiding the presence of specialized technicians to perform the procedures, the Tanita® MC-980U and InBody 770® could be more inviting for large-scale surveys.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Screening of nutritional risk: assessment of predictive variables of nutritional risk in hospitalized patients in a second-level care center in Mexico

Tamizaje de riesgo nutricional: evaluación de variables predictivas de riesgo nutricional en pacientes hospitalizados en un centro de atención de segundo nivel en México

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Abstract

Introduction: worldwide, hospital malnutrition constitutes an important issue of morbidity and mortality. Although the prevalence of malnutrition has been calculated as between 7% and 27% in hospitalized patients, its real prevalence remains unknown or underestimated because of the different criteria for its identification and diagnosis. The aim of this study was to determine the prevalence of nutritional risk in a cohort of hospitalized patients and to identify the significance of the predictors associated with nutritional risk.

Methods: the evaluation of the presence of nutritional risk was carried out in 247 individuals hospitalized at the second-level care institution Instituto de Seguridad y Servicios Sociales para los Trabajadores del Estado (ISSSTE) Zacatecas, Hospital General N° 26, in Mexico. Nutritional screening was evaluated during the first 24 hours of stay with the NRS 2002. The weighing of associated variables with nutritional risk was calculated statistically using the software Sigma Plot v11.

Results: forty-two percent of patients were at risk of malnutrition. Significant associations between nutritional risk and a reduction in food ingestion (during the last week), the illness severity of the patient, as well as age and sex ($p < 0.05$), were observed. A reduction in food ingestion during the previous week increased the likelihood of having nutritional risk 6.67 times more (95% CI: 3.4-13.2; $p < 0.001$) in the studied population.

Conclusion: the risk of malnutrition in hospitalized patients at ISSSTE-Zacatecas, Hospital General N° 26 is frequent (42%). Therefore, early detection of nutritional risk is important to offer for proper nutritional intervention with the objective of decreasing the associated morbidity and mortality.

Key words:

Hospital malnutrition.
Nutritional risk.
Nutritional screening.

Resumen

Introducción: la desnutrición hospitalaria constituye un problema de morbilidad y mortalidad en todo el mundo. Aunque la prevalencia de malnutrición se ha calculado entre el 7% y el 27% en pacientes hospitalizados, su prevalencia real sigue siendo desconocida o subestimada debido a los diferentes criterios para su identificación y diagnóstico. El objetivo de este estudio fue determinar la prevalencia del riesgo nutricional mediante la herramienta Nutritional Risk Screening 2002 (NRS-2002) en pacientes hospitalizados y ponderar los factores predictivos asociados con el riesgo nutricional.

Métodos: la evaluación de la presencia de riesgo nutricional se realizó en 247 hospitalizados en el hospital general de segundo nivel Instituto de Seguridad y Servicios Sociales para los Trabajadores del Estado (ISSSTE) Zacatecas, Hospital General N° 26, en México. La evaluación nutricional se realizó durante las primeras 24 horas de estadía mediante la herramienta NRS 2002. El análisis de datos se llevó a cabo mediante el software Sigma Plot v11.

Resultados: el 42% de los pacientes presentaron riesgo de desnutrición. Después de la corrección por covariables, se encontraron asociaciones significativas entre el riesgo nutricional y una reducción de la ingesta de alimentos (durante la última semana), la gravedad de la enfermedad del paciente, la edad y el sexo ($p < 0,05$). Entre la población estudiada, la reducción de la ingesta durante la última semana aumentó 6,67 veces la probabilidad de presentar riesgo nutricional (IC 95%: 3,4-13,2; $p < 0,001$).

Conclusión: el riesgo de desnutrición en pacientes hospitalizados en el Hospital General N° 26 Zacatecas-ISSSTE es frecuente (42%), por lo que es importante realizar una detección temprana para ofrecer una intervención nutricional adecuada y, con ello, disminuir la morbilidad asociada.

Palabras clave:

Desnutrición hospitalaria. Riesgo nutricional. Cribado nutricional.

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INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, hospital malnutrition constitutes a cause of morbidity and mortality and its prevalence is widely contrasting (1). In 2009, a prevalence of hospital malnutrition of around 23% remained constant in European and Oceania countries, like Spain and Australia (2,3). On the other hand, a study published in 2003 showed higher prevalence of malnutrition in Latin America countries, with a variation from 37.0% in Chile to 61.9% in Argentina (4), respectively.

Hospital malnutrition increases the period of hospital stay, as well as treatment costs for patients and the families who support them (5,6). In the same manner, the presence of malnutrition in patients increases comorbidities, the need for surgical procedures, medical interventions and treatments, as well as gastrointestinal symptoms, changes in corporal composition and low dietary daily ingestions (7), among others.

Although the prevalence of malnutrition had been calculated between 7% and 72% of hospitalized patients, its real prevalence remains unknown or is underestimated, because of different criteria used for its identification and diagnosis, as well as the time it gets evaluated during the course of the patient hospitalization (8,9).

The elements more commonly used in the screenings of hospital malnutrition include recent weight loss, decreased daily dietary ingestions during the previous days and the severity of illness (8,10). One of these screenings with better acceptance in recent years to evaluate the risk of hospital malnutrition is the Nutritional Risk Screening 2002 (NRS-2002) (11,12). This screening test involves two sections, an initial evaluation consisting of four basic questions: body mass index (BMI) less than 20.5 kg/m², weight loss in the last three months, reduction of dietary intake in the last week, and severity of the patient. If any of the results for these questions are affirmative, a final evaluation where the severity of these items is deepened and scored is considered (11). This tool has been used globally in different hospital specialties, such as in pulmonary clinics (13) where it was concluded that the NRS is a more sensitive predictor than BMI to diagnose the risk of malnutrition. These authors also found that a high nutritional risk was related to a longer hospital stay (10.2 ± 9.5 vs 5.4 ± 6.0 days; $p < 0.001$). In other medical conditions such as Crohn's disease, this screening can be used to determinate the nutritional risk as the disease progresses and its relationship with comorbidities present (14). Another application of the NRS is to evaluate the nutritional risk in postoperative patients. An example is the study performed by Boban et al. in patients who had undergone heart surgery and in which a 96% prevalence of nutritional risk was observed (15). In Mexico, only a few studies have been carried out, mainly in patients with cancer, where the effectiveness of this nutritional tool was evaluated and the prevalence of nutritional risk in the study population was calculated. The results showed a high prevalence of nutritional risk of about 50% in the study population (16,17).

Second-level care centers, in Mexico, serve the majority (~65%) of the health problems and needs that require hospital admission or emergency attention (18) and, notwithstanding its big limita-

tions, BMI is the variable used in most of these healthcare institutions for the estimation of nutritional status (19). Accordingly, and considering the evidence that nutritional risk is a major problem in worldwide hospitals, the objective of this study was to determine the prevalence of nutritional risk using the guidelines of the NRS 2002 in hospitalized patients at the second-level care institution Hospital General No. 26 of Zacatecas-ISSSTE, in Mexico. The weighting of the predictors associated with nutritional risk was also determined. The generation of this data could more accurately show the type of nutritional support required by these patients and, thus, reduce the risk of malnutrition during their hospital stay.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

STUDY DESIGN AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This transversal and prospective study was carried out in Zacatecas, Mexico. Patient selection was done within the departments of Clinical Nutrition, Hospitalization, Internal Medicine, Surgery and Gynecology of the Hospital General de Zacatecas-ISSSTE between February and March 2018. All hospitalized patients ($n = 247$) were included. No exclusion criteria were considered for the study. All participants provided written informed consent for their participation in the study, in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The protocol was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Academic Unit of Human Medicine and Health Sciences of the Universidad Autónoma de Zacatecas (approval ID: CEB-R-1002-2017).

NUTRITIONAL RISK ASSESSMENT

Anthropometric data were obtained. Weight and height were determined without shoes, using a scale (Tanita® BC533: with a maximum capacity of 150 kg and a precision of 100 grams) and stadiometer (precision of 1 mm) calibrated. In patients who could not stand on their feet, height was estimated according to the length of the forearm with subsequent conversion to height. In case of weight, armchairs with swing arm were used. Otherwise, and when height measurement was not possible, previous estimation formulas were used (20,21). BMI was calculated using weight and height measures as follows: $BMI = \text{weight in kg} / \text{height in m}^2$. The BMI variable was used to classify the patients as underweight ($BMI < 18.5$), normal weight ($BMI \geq 18.5$ to ≤ 24.9), overweight ($BMI \geq 25$ to < 30) and obese ($BMI \geq 30$) (22). This classification was used for all age groups. The evaluation of presence of nutritional risk was made during their first 24-48 hours after admission with the screening tool NRS 2002 (11). Briefly, for the NRS 2002 nutritional risk determination, an initial evaluation was included consisting of the four basic questions: BMI less than 20.5 kg/m², weight loss in the last three months, reduction of dietary intake in the last week, and the severity of the patient's disease. If any of the previous questions was affirmative, a final

evaluation where the severity of the first items was deepened and scored later. If the score was greater than or equal to three, the patient was considered to have nutritional risk. Personal and complementary clinical data were obtained from the clinical records of each patient.

DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of data was carried out by comparing clinical and personal characteristics using Chi-square or Fisher's exact test for categorical variables, and Student's t-test, Mann-Whitney U test or ANOVA as appropriate, for numerical variables. The odds ratio (OR) was calculated for positive associations. Multivariate logistic regression was used to evaluate the risk predictors using NRS as the dependent variable. *p* values < 0.05 were considered as statistically significant. Data analysis was conducted using Sigma Plot v.11 (Systat Software Inc., San Jose, CA) software.

RESULTS

A total of 247 patients were included in this study; 146 of them (59.0%) were women (Table I). The average age of the study population was 60.34 years ($\pm$ 19.05) and 35.6% of the participants were above the age of 70 years old. The average BMI in the study population was 26.97 kg/m² ($\pm$ 5.50) and 83.4% showed BMI above or equal to 20.5 kg/m². In all, 33.6% indicated having weight loss in the previous three months and 34.4% of the study population decreased their food intake in the previous week. The severity of illness in 49.8% of the patients was classified as mild (Table I).

The results of the NRS assessment in the study population classified by groups as NRS (+) or NRS (-) are shown in table I. One hundred and three patients (41.7%) were at risk of malnutrition (NRS+) and 144 (58.3%) were NRS (-). Among the patient population, 65.3% of patients without nutritional risk were women. The average BMI of the NRS (+) population was 27.72 kg/m², which placed them in the overweight diagnosis with two units above patients without risk (Table I). As expected, NRS variables (risk factors) that were included in the screening such as severity of the patient disease, decreased nutritional intake and recent weight change showed differences between study groups (*p* values < 0.001).

To identify the risks associated with the differences in proportions of NRS variables between groups of NRS (+) and NRS (-), an odds ratio analysis was carried out. The results of this analysis are shown in table II. The decrease in dietary ingestion during the previous week was associated with hospital malnutrition, increasing the probability of having malnutrition 7.9 (95% CI: 4.3-14.5; *p* < 0.001) times in the study population. Loss of weight during the past three months showed a six (95% CI: 3.4-10.9; *p* < 0.001) times increased risk of malnutrition. BMI below 20.5 kg/m² increased the probability of risk of malnutrition by 2.9 times among the study population (95% CI: 1.3-7.0; *p* = 0.011).

The variable sex was significantly different between study groups (*p* = 0.020), showing a protector effect against the disease and, accordingly, being a woman decreased the probability of suffering malnutrition 0.5 (95% CI: 0.3-0.9; *p* = 0.02) times in the study population (Table II).

The illnesses prone to development of hospital malnutrition were cancer (81.5%), lung disease (75.0%), chronic kidney disease (66.7%), liver diseases (75.0%) and cardiovascular disease (59.4%), whilst the ones with minor risk were the disorders associated with pregnancy, gonarthrosis and polytrauma (Fig. 1).

Only 6% of the patients at risk of suffering malnutrition had a low BMI (16.30 ± 1.97 kg/m²), whereas a few more than the half suffered from being overweight or obese (30.00 ± 4.57 kg/m²) (Fig. 2).

Finally, to evaluate the weighting of the variables with differences between groups, a multivariate logistic regression analysis was performed considering the NRS status as the dependent variable. The results of this analysis are displayed in table III. After statistical correction, decreased food ingest in the past week, severity of patient disease, age and sex were the variables that had significant *p* values in the analysis. Patients who decreased their food ingestion in the previous week had 6.7 times higher risk to be NRS (+) in the study population (*p* < 0.001; 95% CI: 3.39-13.19). Sex remained as a protector factor for malnutrition in the study population (*p* = 0.006; OR = 0.394; 95% CI: 0.20-0.76).

DISCUSSION

The prevalence of hospital malnutrition in Mexico affects nearly half of hospitalized patients, showing interstate dispersion as well as between institutions and being an important factor that negatively contributes to the recovery of the patient and increases the time of their hospital stay (10). Risk factors of this condition may be modified by taking the appropriate nutritional measures. Timely identification of patients who are at risk provides an opportunity to take appropriate actions to prevent the occurrence and/or the progression of malnutrition, and therefore, decreases the associated morbidity and mortality. Accordingly, the objective of this study was to determine the prevalence of nutritional risk through the NRS 2002 in hospitalized patients in the second-level care center Hospital General - ISSSTE in Zacatecas, Mexico. The weighting of the predictors associated with nutritional risk was also determined. In this study, 42% of patients were in risk of malnutrition. Previous reports have shown that the prevalence of hospital malnutrition in Mexican hospitals can vary from 23% to 65% (23,24). In spite of the fact that our data threw out that 42% of patients were suffering from malnutrition, positioning this number inside the range mentioned, it is important to mention that the population attending the Hospital General - ISSSTE is not representative of all the country's population in its entirety. The Hospital General - ISSSTE is part of the Mexican health insurance system, and those who are accredited have a relatively high economic level compared to the people covered by other types of social insurance such as "popular insurance" (designed for the general public, predominantly comprised of people with limited economic resources).

Table I. Characteristics of study population classified by risk groups

Characteristic	General (n = 247)	NRS (+) (n = 103)	NRS (-) (n = 144)	p-value
Age (years)	60.34 ± 19.05	66.56 ± 17.83	55.89 ± 18.70	< 0.001
Sex				
Women n (%)	146 (59.1)	52 (50.5)	94 (65.3)	0.020
Men n (%)	101 (40.9)	51 (49.5)	50 (34.7)	
BMI (kg/m²)	26.97 ± 5.50	25.92 ± 5.78	27.72 ± 5.19	0.003
BMI				
< 20.5 kg/m²	27 (10.9)	19 (18.5)	8 (5.6)	0.011
≥ 20.5 kg/m²	206 (83.4)	78 (75.7)	128 (88.9)	
Weight loss (past 3 months)				
Yes n (%)	83 (33.6)	57 (55.3)	26 (18.1)	< 0.001
No n (%)	150 (60.7)	40 (38.8)	110 (76.4)	
NA n (%)	14 (5.7)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)	
Decrease in food intake (last week)				
Yes n (%)	85 (34.4)	61 (59.2)	24 (16.7)	< 0.001
No n (%)	148 (59.9)	36 (38.8)	112 (77.8)	
NA n (%)	14 (5.7)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)	
Serious patients				
Yes n (%)	53 (21.5)	39 (37.9)	14 (9.7)	< 0.001
No n (%)	180 (72.9)	58 (56.3)	122 (84.7)	
NA n (%)	14 (5.7)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)	
Damage in nutritional status				
Normal n (%)	139 (56.3)	27 (26.2)	112 (77.8)	< 0.001
Mild n (%)	75 (30.4)	51 (49.5)	24 (16.7)	
Moderate n (%)	11 (4.5)	11 (10.7)	0 (0.0)	
Severe n (%)	8 (3.2)	8 (7.8)	0 (0.0)	
NA n (%)	14 (5.7)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)	
Severity of illness				
Normal n (%)	52 (21.1)	11 (10.7)	41 (28.5)	< 0.001
Mild n (%)	123 (49.8)	51 (49.5)	72 (50.0)	
Moderate n (%)	53 (21.5)	30 (29.1)	23 (16.0)	
Severe n (%)	5 (2.0)	5 (4.9)	0 (0.0)	
NA n (%)	14 (5.7)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)	
Age				
Age > 70 n (%)	88 (35.6)	55 (53.4)	33 (22.9)	< 0.001
Age ≤ 70 n (%)	48 (64.4)	48 (46.6)	111 (77.1)	

*p-value obtained from the comparison between NRS (+) and NRS (-) groups. NRS: Nutritional Risk Screening; BMI: body mass index; NA: no data available.

and/or Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social (IMSS). Therefore, the actual prevalence of nutritional risk in Mexico could be higher than that reported in our study.

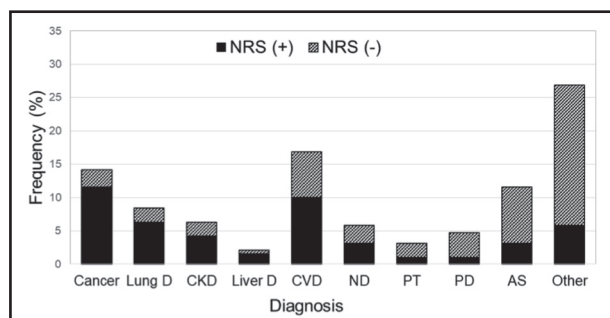
Regarding hospital malnutrition data in other Latin America countries, in a general hospital from Peru, Veramendi-Espinoza et al. evaluated the prevalence and factors associated with hospital malnutrition in 211 patients from medicine and surgery serv-

es. Their results showed a prevalence of hospital malnutrition of 46.9% and they identified an association between the number of comorbidities of the patient and the presence of malnutrition, and between the time of change of dietary intake and malnutrition (25). In agreement with our results, the authors found that women had a lower risk of malnutrition (OR = 0.36, 95% CI: 0.18-0.71 vs OR = 0.52, 95% CI: 0.32-0.91) and that a decrease in dietary intake

Table II. Determination of odds ratios

Characteristics	NRS (+) (n = 103)	NRS (-) (n = 144)	p-value	Odds ratio	95% CI
Sex					
Women n (%)	52 (50.5)	94 (65.3)	0.02	0.52	0.32-0.91
Men n (%)	51 (49.5)	50 (34.7)			
BMI					
< 20.5 kg/m ²	19 (18.5)	8 (5.6)	0.011	2.948	1.25-6.98
≥ 20.5 kg/m ²	78 (75.7)	128 (88.9)			
Weight loss (last 3 months)					
Yes n (%)	57 (55.3)	26 (18.1)	< 0.001	6.029	3.35-10.86
No n (%)	40 (38.8)	110 (76.4)			
NA n (%)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)			
Decrease in food intake (last week)					
Yes n (%)	61 (59.2)	24 (16.7)	< 0.001	7.907	4.32-14.46
No n (%)	36 (38.8)	112 (77.8)			
NA n (%)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)			
Severity of patient disease					
Yes n (%)	39 (37.9)	14 (9.7)	< 0.001	5.86	2.95-11.64
No n (%)	58 (56.3)	122 (84.7)			
NA n (%)	6 (5.8)	8 (5.6)			
Age					
Age > 70 n (%)	55 (53.4)	33 (22.9)	< 0.001	3.854	2.23-6.67
Age ≤ 70 n (%)	48 (46.6)	111 (77.1)			

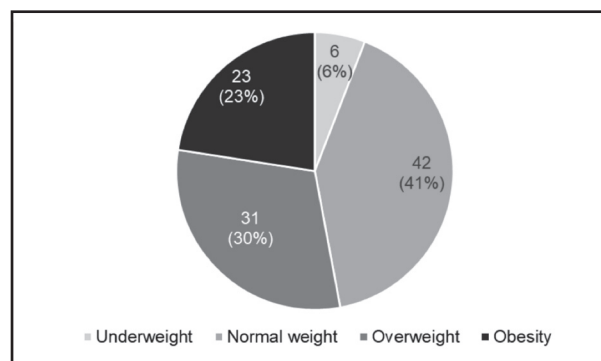
*p-value for the odds ratio. NRS: Nutritional Risk Screening; BMI: body mass index; NA: no data available.

**Figure 1.**

Diagnosis distribution in the study population (D: disease; CKD: chronic kidney disease; CVD: cardiovascular disease; ND: neurological disease; PT: polytrauma; PD: diseases associated with pregnancy; AS: abdominal surgeries).

during the previous week was strongly associated with the risk of malnutrition ($p = 0.031$ vs $p < 0.001$ in our study).

In our study, considering only the subjects with cancer diagnosis, 81.5% of them were in risk of malnutrition. In a previous study, Álvarez-Altamirano et al. evaluated the nutritional status of Mexican patients with a diagnosis of cancer using the NRS-2002 test, identifying that 50.2% of the patients presented nutritional risk (16). However, the prevalence of nutritional risk in patients with a cancer diagnosis in our study was higher than that reported by Álvarez-Altamirano et al.; in both studies the prevalence data in

**Figure 2.**

Diagnosis of nutritional risk using BMI. Considering only the NRS (+) group, the subjects were classified according to their BMI to evaluate their nutritional status. The pie diagram displays the results obtained for patients classified as underweight, normal weight, overweight and with obesity ($n = 102$).

these group of patients are considerably high. The cause may be related to increased caloric expenditure in these patients because of this pathology and the aggressiveness and/or side effects of the pharmacological treatments (26,27). Interestingly, BMI in both populations was very similar (27.12 ± 5.14 kg/m² vs 26.97 ± 5.50 kg/m²), reflecting the high prevalence of being overweight in both populations (16). In our study, to compare the usefulness of BMI in the establishment of nutritional risk in hospitalized

Table III. Determination of predictors

Variable	Coefficient	Standard error	Wald statistic	p-value	Odds ratio	95% CI
Constant	-2.48	0.651	14.511	< 0.001	0.084	0.02-0.30
Decrease in food intake (last week)	1.9	0.347	30.002	< 0.001	6.684	3.39-13.19
Severity of patient disease	1.214	0.395	9.459	0.002	3.367	1.55-7.30
Age	0.0269	0.00929	8.369	0.004	1.027	1.00-1.05
Sex	-0.932	0.336	7.692	0.006	0.394	0.20-0.76

**Odds ratio obtained from multivariate logistic regression analysis using NRS as the dependent variable.*

patients, BMI values (without age-related BMI classification) were compared with the NRS results. As previously reported, BMI alone showed not to be a good classificatory tool for the assessment of nutritional risk, detecting only a 6% of the patients at risk of suffering malnutrition (16) (Fig. 2).

Finally, two considerations should be highlighted:

1. According to the Global Leadership Initiative on Malnutrition (GLIM) consensus, NRS screening does not meet all the desirable criteria for nutritional risk analysis, since it does not include important aspects in the evaluation such as body composition, presence of edema, muscle function and biochemical data. Even though this information could provide an accurate classification of the disease, the NRS complies with four of the five main criteria agreed upon by the committee (non-volitional weight loss, low BMI, reduction of food intake and disease burden, while a reduction in muscle mass was absent) (8). Therefore, this consideration should be taken into account to extrapolate our results.
2. In our study, the risk factors included in the NRS were evaluated by establishing which of them had greater weight for the development of this condition. In addition, BMI as a continuous variable was also included, confirming that diagnosis by BMI is not a good predictor to assess nutritional risk in the hospitalized population. However, the shortcomings of the study were not having included more risk factors in addition to those included in the screening; this could give a broader picture to determine the genesis of hospital malnutrition. Accordingly, is widely recommended to pay more attention to hospital malnutrition, both in diagnosis as well as in treatment, taking into account the main risk factors. This would reduce costs for the hospitals, time of stays and mortality of the patients.

CONCLUSIONS

Forty-two percent of the studied population was at risk of suffering hospital malnutrition. The main risk factors identified were decreased food intake during the previous week and a weight loss during the previous three months. Female sex was identified as a protector factor against this disorder. The implementation of an effective screening test for nutritional risk to all populations who

are hospitalized in Mexican health institutions is highly recommended to offer proper nutritional intervention with the objective of decreasing the associated morbidity-mortality.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no competing interests. The authors are responsible for the content and writing of the research paper. The manuscript edition costs were covered in part by the Academic Unit of Human Medicine and Health Sciences-UAZ support (to CA-UAZ-207).

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Trabajo Original

Valoración nutricional

Phase angle and mid arm circumference as predictors of protein energy wasting in renal replacement therapy patients

Ángulo de fase y circunferencia media de brazo como predictores de desgaste proteico energético en pacientes con terapia renal sustitutiva

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Abstract

Objective: to analyze the association between phase angle (PA) and mid arm circumference (MAC) with protein energy wasting (PEW) in renal replacement therapy (RRT) patients.

Methods: cross-sectional study. Hemodiafiltration (HDF) and automated peritoneal dialysis (PD) patients were enrolled in the study. MAC and body composition were measured using impedance bioelectric (BIA); PA, fat free mass (FFM), fat mass (FM) and ECW/TBW were obtained. Biochemical (serum albumin and cholesterol) and dietary data (energy and protein intake) were collected. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated. Patients were classified with PEW according to ISRN criteria (low BMI, low albumin or cholesterol concentrations, low muscle mass and overhydration). Cut-off point of PA and MAC was obtained by ROC analysis. Logistic regression analysis was applied to evaluate the ability of both indicators to predict PEW.

Results: sixty-nine patients were included in the study. Fifty-two (52%) were female. Thirty-nine (39%) patients had PEW. The ROC curve reveals that the optimal PA cut-off value for malnutrition risk was 4.64° with 77.8% sensitivity and 76.2% specificity. For MAC, a cut-off value of 29.6 cm shows a sensitivity of 66.6% and specificity of 69.0%. Both indicators showed significant association to PEW after multivariate adjustment.

Conclusion: PEW is present almost in 39% of the RRT patients. PA and MAC are useful, simple and independent indicators for predicting PEW in chronic kidney disease patients on RRT.

Key words:

Chronic kidney disease. Protein energy wasting. Nutritional assessment. Phase angle. Mid arm circumference.

Resumen

Objetivo: analizar la asociación entre el ángulo de fase (AF) y la circunferencia media del brazo (CMB) con la presencia de desgaste proteico energético (DPE) en pacientes en terapia de remplazo renal (TRR).

Métodos: estudio transversal. Fueron incluidos pacientes en hemodiafiltración y en diálisis peritoneal automatizada. Se tomaron mediciones de CMB y de composición corporal utilizando bioimpedancia eléctrica (AF, masa libre de grasa, masa grasa y agua extracelular/agua corporal total). Se obtuvieron mediciones de albúmina y colesterol y se cuantificó el consumo dietético de energía y proteína. Se calculó el IMC. Se diagnosticó el DPE utilizando los criterios de ISRN (bajo IMC, baja albúmina o colesterol, baja musculatura y sobrehidratación). Se evaluó la habilidad del AF y CMB para predecir DPE a través de una regresión logística. Se obtuvieron puntos de corte para ambos indicadores utilizando una prueba ROC. Se evaluó la habilidad del AF y CMB para predecir DPE a través de una regresión logística.

Resultados: se incluyeron 69 pacientes en el estudio, el 52% de sexo femenino, y el 39% cumplieron criterios para DPE. El AF y el CMB predicen de forma adecuada el DPE según el análisis multivariado. Los puntos de corte obtenidos por la prueba ROC son < 4,64° para AF, con una sensibilidad del 77,8% y una especificidad del 76,2%, y < 29,6 cm para la CMB, con una sensibilidad del 66,6% y una especificidad del 69%.

Conclusión: el DPE está presente en el 39% de pacientes en TRR. El AF y CMB son indicadores independientes, útiles y simples para predecir DPE en pacientes con enfermedad renal crónica en TRR.

Palabras clave:

Enfermedad renal crónica. Desgaste proteico energético. Evaluación nutricional. Ángulo de fase. Circunferencia media del brazo.

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INTRODUCTION

Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is considered as a global public health problem. Incidence has increased in the last 30 years, raising the number of patients requiring renal replacement therapy (RRT) (1). In Mexico, more than 12/million people have CKD, and around 55 thousand patients were on RRT according the Census of Patients with Chronic Renal Failure (CIRC) of the Mexican Institute of Social Security, that attends to 73% of the Mexican population (2).

RRT, although necessary, may promote adverse health outcomes, such as infections, greater risk of mortality, decreased quality of life and detriment in nutritional status. In CKD population, malnutrition is denominated protein energy wasting (PEW) (3). Some studies have documented a high prevalence of this condition, with ranges of 50-75% in pre-dialysis patients and 75% in patients on RRT (4,5). In peritoneal dialysis (PD) Mexican population, Yanowsky-Escatell described in 2017 a prevalence of 65% of this situation (6). The etiology of this complex condition is multifactorial. Uremia, low energy and protein intake, increase in basal energy expenditure, inflammation, metabolic acidosis and nutrient loss during RRT contribute to its development (3).

The diagnostic criteria of PEW proposed by the International Society of Renal Nutrition and Metabolism (ISRNM) require anthropometrical indicators (weight change, body mass index), biochemical (albumin, transthyretin, total cholesterol), body composition measurements (fat and muscle mass) and dietary intake parameters (protein and energy intake), which demands devices (skinfolts calipers) and software for nutrition analysis that sometimes are unavailable in clinical settings (7). Other nutritional assessment tools were studied to assess PEW identification, such as phase angle (PA) obtained by bioelectrical impedance analysis (BIA), which is a safe, inexpensive and noninvasive method. The PA is based on total body reactance and total body resistance, independently of weight, height and body fat, and has been proposed as a nutritional indicator in other clinical conditions (cirrhosis, cancer, surgery patients and others) (8-11). In CKD patients, a low PA is associated with nutritional risk and higher mortality (12). Overhydration (OH), defined as the fluid excess above the normally hydrated tissues can be assessed by BIA and predicts mortality in dialysis patients (13). However, body composition measurements and PA may be affected by OH, due to the fact that resistance and reactance are affected by total body water, and this measurements are incorporated into models to estimate body composition (13).

Mid arm muscle circumference, an indicator that involves mid arm circumference (MAC) and triceps skinfold, is recommended as a nutritional parameter by ISRNM criteria, however, no reference data for Latin-American population are available. MAC is a simple and reliable indicator that decreases in hemodialysis patients with advanced malnutrition (14). Data about PA and MAC as independent indicators to predict PEW in CKD patients on RRT are lacking.

In the present study, we examined the prevalence of PEW and the characteristics of PEW in CKD patients on RRT, and evaluate the predictive value of the PA and MAC for PEW risk detection.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This is a cross-sectional analysis from a prospective cohort of patients with CKD on RRT. Data were collected between March 2014 and May 2017. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The procedures and measurements performed on the protocol are the conventional for patients on the same conditions in the hospital. It did not require an additional intervention that required authorization by the Ethics Committee. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients. We determined the power of the sample size assuming a type 1 error of 0.05 and a type 2 error of 0.2. Power obtained is 90% considering a difference in PA over 10% between patients with and without PEW.

All patients with CKD who are receiving outpatient hemodiafiltration (HDF) or automated peritoneal dialysis (PD) for ≥ 3 months at the Nephrology Department of the Instituto Nacional de Cardiología "Ignacio Chavez" in Mexico City were included in the study. Patients with pacemaker, age < 18 years, deteriorating general condition, severe edema or receiving continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis were excluded.

DATA COLLECTION

All demographic and clinical data (age, etiology of CKD, time on RRT and types of dialysis access) were collected from electronic medical records.

BLOOD SAMPLING

All blood samples were obtained using uniform techniques under fasting conditions before their scheduled dialysis sessions (HDF) or before the first dialysate exchange in PD patients. Cholesterol and albumin were determined.

BODY COMPOSITION

Weight and height were measured (Seca® model 700; Seca, Hamburg, Germany). MAC was measured with a metric tape (Seca® model 201; Seca, Hamburg, Germany) in the right arm except in patients with vascular access in that limb, in which case it was measured in the contralateral arm. Anthropometry was assessed using the standard procedures described by Lohman et al. (15).

Body composition was assessed by multifrequency BIA (InBody® model S10; Biospace, Seoul, South Korea). BIA measurements were obtained at a frequency of 50 Hz. Eight electrodes were placed on the surface of the thumb, fingers of the hand, and ball of the foot and heel with the patient in the supine position, after an overnight fasting and after drainage of PD fluids, or 30 min after HDF treatment ended. Metal objects were removed. Extracellular water (ECW), intracellular water (ICW), total body

water (TBW), fat mass (%) and fat free mass (FFM) were estimated using formulated prediction equations in the manufacturer's software by measured impedance values in different frequencies. PA was recorded (the arc tangent of the X_c/R ratio). Fat free mass index (FFMI) (fat free mass / height²) and body mass index (BMI) (body weight / height²) were calculated. All anthropometrical and BIA measurements procedures were performed by trained nutritionist.

DIET ASSESSMENT

To assess diet, a semi-quantitative food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) validated in Mexican population was used (16,17). The FFQ includes data describing the frequency of consumption of 116 foods during the previous year, and collects information about the consumption of 14 different food groups and ten intake frequencies: 6 or more per day, 4-5 per day, 2-3 per day, 1 per day, 5-6 per week, 2-4 per week, 1 per week, 2-3 per month, 1 per month or less, and never. The questionnaire also included ten open-ended choices and information on vitamin and mineral use. The conversion from foods to nutrients was calculated using the Evaluation System of Eating Habits and Nutrient Consumption (SNUT). The SFFQ was made by staff trained in standardized data collection and entry procedures. We studied the amount of energy (kcal/kg) and protein intake (g/kg).

DIAGNOSIS OF PROTEIN ENERGY WASTING

Four categories for criteria diagnosis of PEW proposed by ISRNM were used: a) serum chemistry (low serum levels of albumin [< 3.8 g/dl] or total cholesterol [< 100 mg/dl]); b) body mass (decreased BMI [< 23 kg/m² using dry weight]); c) muscle mass (FFMI < 17.0 or 15.0 kg/m² in men and women according ESPEN and GLIM definitions [18,19]); and d) dietary intake (unintentional decreased protein intake [< 0.8 g/kg of protein] or energy intake [< 25 kcal/kg]). We included another category: over-hydration (ECW/TBW > 0.385), which is correlated with inflammation status in CKD patients (20,21). PEW was defined with the presence of at least three of the five listed categories in patients and at least one test result in each of the selected categories. Patients were then divided into two groups according to the presence or absence of PEW.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data were analyzed utilizing the SPSS Software version 17.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Convenience sample was used and the total outpatient population that received HDF or PD was included. Whether the data was normal distribution or not, it was analyzed with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Data with normal distribution were presented as mean $\pm$ SD and non-normally distributed data were presented as median (interquartile range).

Differences between PEW patients and non-PEW were assessed by the Mann-Whitney U test, Student's t test or Fisher's exact test according to the nature of the variable. The association of different variables with PA and MAC were calculated by Spearman's rank correlations.

To compare the ability of PA and MAC in order to predict PEW status, a receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) was constructed. Area under the curve (AUC), cut-off values, sensitivity and specificity were calculated. An adjusted logistic regression analysis was performed to evaluate the ability of cut-off values obtained by ROC analysis adjusted to those variables that were significantly correlated by univariate analysis, and odds ratio (OR) were calculated. A p value < 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

This cross-sectional analysis included 69 patients on RRT. Forty-three patients were users of PD. Fifty-two (52%) were female. Demographical, anthropometric measurements and body composition parameters are presented in table I.

Table I. Demographic data

Variable	Patients (n = 69)
<i>Sex, n (%)</i>	
Men	33 (48%)
Women	36 (52%)
Age (years)	36.5 $\pm$ 13.4
Mid arm circumference (cm)	30.51 $\pm$ 3.99
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	24.5 $\pm$ 4.9
Fat mass (%)	29.4 $\pm$ 10.1
Fat free mass index (kg/m ²)	17.2 $\pm$ 2.3
Phase angle (°)	4.67 $\pm$ 0.81
<i>Comorbidities</i>	
Hemodiafiltration, n (%)	26 (38%)
Time on hemodiafiltration	4.8 (3 months-25 years)
<i>CKD Etiology</i>	(%)
Unknown	19
Systemic lupus erythematosus	11
Focal segmental glomerulosclerosis	8
Hyperuricemia	8
Others	54
Peritoneal dialysis, n (%)	43 (62%)
Time on peritoneal dialysis	2.8 (1-5 years)
<i>CKD Etiology</i>	(%)
Unknown	44
Arterial hypertension	28
Diabetes mellitus	21
Systemic lupus erythematosus	7

Mean $\pm$ SD or median (interquartile range).

The patients were divided into two groups based on PEW diagnosis for CKD (Table II): twenty-seven (39%) patients had PEW. Albumin concentrations (4.02 ± 0.36 vs 3.70 ± 0.36 , $p \leq 0.001$) and PA (4.99 ± 0.67 vs 4.18 ± 0.77 , $p \leq 0.05$) were significantly higher in non-PEW patients. PEW patients has a higher ECW/TBW (0.397 ± 0.007 vs 0.385 ± 0.008 , $p \leq 0.001$).

The correlation matrix for the PA and MAC with body composition/biochemical parameters is shown in table III. PA was significantly and positively correlated with MAC ($r = 0.261$, $p = 0.030$), albumin ($r = 0.45$, $p \leq 0.001$) and FFM ($r = 0.24$, $p = 0.04$), and significantly and negatively correlated with over-hy-

dration ($r = -0.77$, $p \leq 0.001$). MAC significantly correlated with age ($r = 0.285$, $p = 0.017$), weight ($r = 0.908$, $p \leq 0.001$), height ($r = 0.262$, $p = 0.029$), BMI ($r = 0.944$, $p \leq 0.001$) and FFM ($r = 0.508$, $p \leq 0.001$).

Figure 1 shows the ROC curve with the values of diagnostic accuracy of PA and MAC in the identification of PEW. The curve reveals that PA (AUC = 0.776, 95% CI 0.660-0.892, $p < 0.001$) and MAC (AUC = 0.661, 95% CI 0.517-0.806, $p = 0.024$) provides good diagnostic accuracy to distinguish between non-PEW and PEW patients. The optimal cut-off value for PA was 4.64° with 77.7% sensitivity and 76.1% specificity. For MAC, a cut-off

Table II. Differences between PEW and non-PEW CKD patients on automated peritoneal dialysis and hemodiafiltration

	Non- PEW (n = 42)	PEW (n = 27)	p value
Age (years)	35.5 (25-46)	32.0 (26-42)	0.786
Sex (%)	Men: 52% Women: 48%	Men: 41% Women: 59%	0.345
Renal replacement therapy (type)	PD 54% HDF 46%	PD 74% HDF 26%	0.106
Weight (kg)	62.9 (50-82)	56.4 (48.4-68.6)	0.128
Height (m)	1.59 ± 0.09	1.58 ± 0.1	0.571
Mid arm circumference (cm)	31.20 ± 3.76	29.4 ± 4.16	0.072
Fat mass (%)	29.2 ± 10.3	29.8 ± 9.9	0.818
Fat free mass (kg)	45.3 ± 9.4	43.0 ± 10.8	0.369
Fat free mass index (kg/m ²)	17.5 ± 2.06	16.8 ± 2.6	0.285
Cholesterol (mg/dl)	173.9 ± 33.7	165.1 ± 38.8	0.323
Albumin (g/dl)	4.02 ± 0.36	3.70 ± 0.36	$< 0.001^*$
Extracellular water/total body water (l)	0.385 ± 0.008	0.397 ± 0.007	$< 0.001^*$
Protein intake (gr/kg)	1.12 (0.55-1.92)	0.99 (0.69-1.73)	0.08
Energy intake (kcal/kg)	30.5 (17.8-48)	29.8 (20.6-46.5)	0.209
Phase angle (°)	4.99 ± 0.67	4.18 ± 0.77	$< 0.001^*$

Mean $\pm$ SD or median (IQR). *Statistics significance.

Table III. Correlations matrix of nutritional variables with phase angle and mid arm circumference

Variable	Phase angle		Mid arm circumference	
	R	p value	R	p value
Age (years)	-0.22	0.066	0.285	0.017*
Weight (kg)	0.20	0.085	0.908	$< 0.001^*$
Height (cm)	0.21	0.080	0.262	0.029*
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	0.12	0.290	0.944	$< 0.001^*$
Fat free mass (kg)	0.24	0.046*	0.508	$< 0.001^*$
Albumin (g/dl)	0.45	$< 0.001^*$	0.076	0.530
Extracellular water/total body water (l)	-0.77	$< 0.001^*$	0.011	0.927

*Statistics significance.

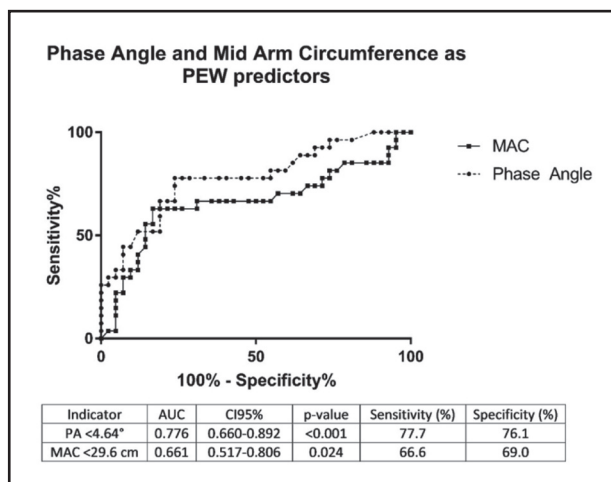


Figure 1.

A receiver operating characteristic curve assessing an optimal cut-off point of phase angle and mid arm circumference as indicators for PEW assessment.

value of 29.6 cm shows a sensitivity of 66.6% and specificity of 69.0%. A multivariate analysis was performed to calculate the risk of developing PEW using the obtained cut-off values (Table IV). The results showed that PA < 4.64° and MAC < 29.6 cm were significantly related to PEW after adjusted to multiple confounders.

DISCUSSION

The importance of nutritional status in CKD patients has been widely recognized, since poor status is associated with increased mortality rates and decreased quality life (22,23). This study indicates that PA and MAC are useful indicators for predicting PEW in CKD on RRT. In our population, 39% of patients had PEW. The prevalence in our sample is lower than in others countries; in Spain, Ruperto M reports that 52% of elderly patients on hemodialysis have PEW (24), while Pérez-Torres A et al. describe PEW in 30.1% of adults (media of 66.1 years) (25) or India (70% in PD patients) (24,26).

Many factors contribute to increasing the risk of malnutrition during aging (changes in food intake, inactivity, increase in fat

mass and proinflammatory cytokines) (27). Differences in prevalence may be explained by differences in age of populations, because our sample was younger than that of others studies (34 years vs 68 years in the study by Ruperto M et al.).

The best method to determine PEW, however, remains under debate. The ISRNM proposed an expert panel and developed a PEW definition and classification, and other tools were proposed to assess this condition, such as simple score (French PEW test) and malnutrition inflammation score (MIS), which includes biochemical (total iron binding capacity) or energy and protein intake (requires an electronic dietary assessment tool or software to nutritional analysis), which are not available in all hospital settings in developing countries (28). In order to facilitate the PEW identification in CKD patients, this research aims to explore other nutritional indicators easily obtained and available.

Da Silva et al. concluded in their study of 101 patients in HD that the bioelectrical impedance vectors parameters showed a low to moderate precision in men and low in women for malnutrition diagnosis (29). Considering that the BIA is a tool increasingly used in HD and PD units, and that PA is a good predictor marker of clinical outcomes and PEW in other populations (30), we suggest an external validation of our findings previous to the implementation of an exhaustive nutritional assessment by a renal dietitian in RRT patients with PA < 4.64°. This value cut-off point differs from the value proposed by Ruperto M and Sarmiento-Días M, who established PEW with results < 4.0° and < 6.0° for hemodialysis and PD, respectively (24,31). In other clinical populations, a value < 5.52° has been associated with malnutrition in patients with colorectal cancer (32), and values < 4.9° are associated with malnutrition and increased in the incidence of hepatic encephalopathy in patients with cirrhosis (11).

In patients with CKD, PA has also been used as a predictor of other complications, as well as decreased values are associated with an increase in mortality (13), oxidative stress (33), mortality and risk of infections (34) in patients on hemodialysis, and with vascular calcification and arterial stiffness in patients with PD (31).

In the study carried out by Arias-Guillén M et al., PEW patients were more overhydrated (OR 5.24, IC 95% 1.6-17.14, p = 0.006) (35). The inclusion of hydration status may be another useful indicator to PEW identification, agreeing with our diagnostic PEW criteria.

Similar observations, Caravaca F et al., in our population PA is associated with albumin (r = 0.45, p < 0.001) and body water

Table IV. Phase angle and mid arm circumference as variables to predict protein energy wasting logistic regression analysis

Prediction of PEW	β	Odds ratio	95% CI		p-value
			Lower	Upper	
Phase angle < 4.64°*	4.11	11.2	3.53	35.44	< 0.001
Phase angle < 4.64°†	3.71	11.29	3.14	40.5	< 0.001
MAC < 29.6 cm*	2.56	3.79	1.36	10.5	0.010
MAC < 29.6 cm‡	2.53	8.18	1.60	41.69	0.011

CI: confidence interval. *Non adjusted. †Adjusted to age, gender and albumin concentrations. ‡Adjusted to age, gender, body weight, height. β : unstandardized regression b coefficient.

distribution ($r = -0.77$, $p < 0.001$) (36). Similar to our findings, Da Silva AT reports an association between PA and MAC (29), while Arias-Guillén M reports low MAC in PEW patients (19.7 ± 2.2 cm vs 23.8 ± 2.5 cm in well-nourished patients). To our knowledge, there are no available studies proposing cut-off values to predict PEW in RRT patients. In inpatient population, $MAC \leq 22.5$ correlates properly with a $BMI < 18.5$ kg/m² (37).

The measurement and interpretation of PA and MAC by nurses or nephrology staff in dialysis centers where there are no renal dietitians may improve the PEW identification, and subsequently, proper reference to the specialist in renal nutrition care.

The present study has some limitations that should be considered: a) our results cannot be extrapolated to patients in hemodialysis or continuous ambulatory PD because our population only included patients in HDF and automated PD; b) the sample size is limited to the total patients who are receiving outpatient RRT in our hospital; c) our population is younger than a large part of the population in RRT; and d) the diagnosis of PEW was performed according to that proposed by the ISRNM, classification not validated for the Mexican population. Our phase angle findings could also apply to patients with similar characteristics. Future research should examine the accuracy of PA in aging and in patients who receive hemodialysis or continuous ambulatory PD.

In conclusion, PEW is present in almost 39% of the RRT patients. PA and MAC are useful, simple and independent indicators for predicting PEW in CKD patients on RRT.

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Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Organic food consumption: is it possible to develop public policy? A case study of Medellín *Los consumidores de alimentos orgánicos, ¿es posible construir política pública? Estudio de casos de Medellín*

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Abstract

Introduction: in several countries, there is an increasing trend of consumers and distributors of organic food.

Objective: to identify consumer motivation, a socioeconomic profile and possible sociopolitical actions for the development of public policy by the consumers of organic products supplied by 12 alternative food distribution networks in Medellín and Eastern Antioquia.

Methods: qualitative study with semi-structured interviews and participant and non-participant observation.

Results: the main reason for organic food consumption is personal wellbeing, specifically health, followed by care for the environment and social welfare because such consumption contributes to improving the quality of life of poor producers (farmers and indigenous people). The consumption of these foods is also in some cases a form of resistance against the food industry, agroindustry and supermarkets; however, this social awareness does not imply that consumers commit themselves to sociopolitical actions transcending to the collective sphere.

Conclusion: action by local governments is required to develop strategies that consolidate the transformative potential of consumer practices regarding organic products from alternative food networks.

Key words:

Food. Organics. Food system. Food habits. Community networks.

Resumen

Introducción: el incremento de consumidores y distribuidores de alimentos y productos orgánicos constituye una tendencia en varios países.

Objetivo: establecer las motivaciones para el consumo, el perfil socioeconómico y las posibles acciones de carácter sociopolítico para la construcción de políticas públicas realizadas por los consumidores de productos orgánicos de las 12 redes de distribución alternativa de alimentos que existen en Medellín y el oriente antioqueño.

Métodos: estudio cualitativo con entrevistas semiestructuradas y observación participante y no participante.

Resultados: se halló que la principal razón de consumo es el bienestar individual, específicamente la salud, seguido del cuidado del medio ambiente y el bienestar social porque se contribuye a mejorar la calidad de vida de los productores pobres (campesinos e indígenas). Se encontró, además, que el consumo de estos alimentos, se hace en algunos casos como forma de resistencia frente a la industria de alimentos, la agroindustria y los supermercados. Sin embargo, esta conciencia social no implica que los consumidores se comprometan con acciones sociopolíticas para trascender a la esfera colectiva.

Conclusión: se requiere una acción de los gobiernos locales para desarrollar estrategias que consoliden el potencial transformador de las prácticas de los consumidores de productos orgánicos de las redes alternativas de alimentos.

Palabras clave:

Alimentos. Orgánicos. Sistema alimentario. Hábitos alimentarios. Redes comunitarias.

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INTRODUCTION

The term organic products is widely used and has several meanings. In general, it includes natural foods that are free of artificial chemicals such as fertilizers, herbicides, pesticides, antibiotics and genetically modified organisms. The literature also shows that foods considered as “natural”, “local”, “fresh” and “pure” (1,2) may also be called organic.

In recent decades, there has been an increase in the number of organic product consumers around the world (3). This trend is within the context of a concern over the qualitative aspects of food, emerging from the 1960s, which includes among other factors food quality, nutritional content and methods of cultivation, processing and preparation (4-8). Research has indicated an increase in the consumption of organic foods in Europe, the United States and Australia, and, more recently, in countries such as China and India (9,10).

The most cultivated and consumed organic products are greens, vegetables and medicinal herbs because they were the first to be cultivated organically. However, supply tends to vary according to the traditions of the countries that consume organic products. The reasons that lead people to consume these products are varied. Personal wellbeing is one of the main reasons because the nutritional quality and health benefits of these products are attributes most emphasized by their consumers (11). Other studies have established the freshness and palatability of organic products, animal welfare and environmental conservation as motivation, as well as personal values, trust and identity (12-16).

Hansen et al. classified the motivations for organic consumption in three groups: environmental awareness, personal health and social awareness (15):

1. Environmental awareness is considered as one of the biggest drivers in the behavior of organic food consumers (3). People concerned about the environment are motivated by products that are considered to be respectful of the sustainability of their food habits (17).
2. Health awareness refers to the concern of consumers for their personal health status, which leads them to transform their eating habits and lifestyles (18-20). Thus, unlike environmental awareness, which focuses on concern for the environment, health awareness refers to the willingness of consumers to identify their concerns and take actions that improve their health status (20).
3. Social awareness stems from motivation out of concern for society and/or the consumer's social environment (21-23). For socially aware consumers, the organic market offers a viable and meaningful way to unite their personal concerns (for example, concern for their own health) with concerns about their social environment (for example, concerns for the welfare of their community) (15).

In relation to the socioeconomic characteristics of organic product consumers, regular consumers tend to be people with a higher education and middle to higher social class (24,25) and people who are willing to pay approximately 10% extra for these products (26,27). Similar characteristics related to the socioeco-

nomic conditions of consumers were also found in studies carried out in some Latin American countries (6,7,28,29).

Regarding purchase frequency, in a study carried out in Spain, organic product consumers were classified into three categories: regular or habitual, occasional and low consumers. Habitual consumers were defined as those who make organic food purchases at least twice a week; the other two categories include people with lower organic food purchase frequencies (27).

A particular characteristic of organic foods is that they are usually produced on a small scale by peasants and family farmers and are not distributed in large supermarket chains. They are most commonly marketed through alternative food networks (AFNs). In most cases of civil society, these initiatives seek to build new ways of producing, distributing and consuming food. AFNs are composed of alternative food producers in the broader sense of the term (organic, agrotoxin-free, and local), alternative distribution channels (other than supermarkets) and consumers (30-32). Because they distribute in local circuits, establishing trust between producers and distributors and implementing responsible consumption, AFNs are localized in nature and have been limited to relatively small groups, i.e., “niches” (33,34). For this reason, one of the issues that stimulates interest in the analysis of this field is the possibility of promoting all the components of this practice: production, distribution and consumption through public policies in order to overcome the small-scale challenges so that changes in consumption patterns are not confined to a small segment of the population.

Therefore, the importance of organic food consumption does not only rest on its health benefits. It is based on the expectation that the demand for these products will encourage the development of sustainable and fair food systems. Consumer practices can have a favorable impact on the environment, personal and public health, social cohesion and the economy (35,36). Consumer choices play a leading role in the direction of production. Consumers also exert strong influences through the ways they buy, transport, store, cook and consume their food (35,37).

According to Bui et al., the practice of eating organic foods can scale-up to become a transformative process of hegemonic systems if the motivation of those involved is not only personal in nature and does not only consider their own health and wellbeing but also if there is additional interest in social and environmental aspects that concern a larger section of the population (38). For these authors, in addition to these characteristics that have enabled AFNs to transcend the sphere of “niche” are those in which actors, i.e., consumers, seek and find mechanisms to join with other stakeholders and policy makers at the local level (38).

In Colombia, there are few studies on the consumption of organic foods, nor have the reasons for consumers and the possibilities of public policy development been explored so that organic food can be accessible to more of the population and so that the hegemony of the food system can be transformed. The objective of this study was to establish the motivation for consumption, a socioeconomic profile and possible sociopolitical actions for the development of public policy by organic product consumers from each of the 12 alternative food distribution networks that exist in

Medellín and Eastern Antioquia. The following research questions were posed: what is the socio-economic profile of organic product consumers?, what are the reasons for their preferences?, why buy from AFNs?, are these preferences motivated by social change or are they exclusively individual preferences?, and do consumers carry out collective action for the transformation of public policies aimed at the consumption of organic foods?

METHODS

This was a qualitative study with semi-structured interviews and participant and non-participant observation. The study was conducted in Medellín and the eastern subregion of the Department of Antioquia. Medellín is the second largest city in Colombia (South America) and has 2,140,00 inhabitants; it is surrounded by another nine municipalities, called the Metropolitan Area of the Aburrá Valley; the urban zone is divided into 16 municipalities, and the rural zone comprises five divisions called *corregimientos* (subdivisions of Colombian municipalities). The Eastern Antioquia region is approximately 50 kilometers from the city proper and produces most of the greens, vegetables and tubers consumed in Medellín.

AFNs comprise three components: a) agroecological or organic producers; b) distributors, which are called alternative channels because they are different from the conventional channels (supermarkets); and c) those who buy the products, i.e., the consumers.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with domestic consumers (who buy for themselves or their families) and institutional consumers (food services that purchase food to process to make them available to final consumers as prepared food). Intentional sampling was carried out, as is usual in group case studies because the phenomenon is intended to be present in the subjects selected (39). The interviewees were referred by alternative distribution channels (ADCs), which are the places where the food produced in AFNs is sold. In Medellín, there are 12 AFNs that were asked for information about their domestic and institutional consumers. No exclusion criteria were applied. Names and contact data of domestic or institutional consumers were requested from the 12 AFNs in the city, and the persons referred to were interviewed.

The initial contact with the participants was by telephone and via e-mail to explain the objectives of the research project and to request an interview. Fifteen semi-structured individual interviews were conducted, ten to domestic consumers and five to administrators or owners of spaces for institutional consumption. Visits were also made to the ADCs for participant observation that consisted of buying food, inquiring about types of products and exchanging information informally with sellers and other consumers. Non-participant observations were also carried out to purchase products but without any exchange or other type of communication. The collection of information was carried out by two teachers and six students in their last semester of Nutrition and Dietetics who were previously trained on conducting interviews, to ensure consistency. Fifteen interviews were conducted because category saturation was achieved using this number. The

interviews were transcribed and coded immediately after their completion. The data collection instruments and informed consent were approved by the Committee for Bioethics of the University Research Department through Act 15-43-674. The information was collected between the months of January to July 2016.

INFORMATION ANALYSIS

With regard to categories of analysis, two levels of analysis were carried out. In the first level, based on the reviewed literature and taking into account the objectives of the research, initial categories were defined. Once the codes were analyzed and applied, new codes and emerging categories were added to the initial proposal. A synthesis of the categories used is presented in table I. With this first level of analysis, a characterization of each of the cases was obtained separately.

In the second level of analysis, an exhaustive review was made of each of the categories to contrast the different cases. In this way, similarities and differences were identified to establish the final findings and, in particular, to address the objective of outlining possible sociopolitical actions carried out by the interviewees. All the coding and analysis of the information was done using the specialized software ATLAS/ti version 7.5.11 (40).

RESULTS

The results are presented simultaneously for domestic consumers (DCs) and institutional consumers (ICs), to later describe trends that are outlined in both cases.

SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

The DCs interviewed are people between 40 and 62 years old, with high levels of education (most have finished higher education that includes a postgraduate degree) and with an average monthly income equivalent to seven minimum wages (2,400 USD); they belong to the middle class. In the participant observation, other consumers were also identified as young families, pregnant or with children, who seek appropriate food for these periods of life.

The ICs are restaurants, which function as small businesses (only one was industrial), and half are family-owned. All the ICs are located in upper-middle class neighborhoods. Most involved the organic food market in the last seven years. The owners of the restaurants state that their clients are people of a medium-high socioeconomic level, young, and employed in the public or private sector; they are defined as people who show an affinity for reading, the arts and craftsmanship. Some restaurants have mostly foreign clients (tourists or business travelers). Only one of them has some (very few) clients with low economic resources or low education levels who devote themselves to trades such as recycling or field labor.

In relation to the prices of the products, the majority of domestic consumers find prices that are consistent with their expectations.

Table I. Categories of analysis and some guiding questions

Analysis category	Subcategories	Guiding questions
Social agency work	Organizational origin Grounds for contention Objects of transformation	Are you part of any network or organization? Why did you decide to participate in it? Are you part of local and regional organizational movements? Have you participated in social and/or political demonstrations? With what objectives?
Social and demographic conditions	Education level Occupation Income Place you live	Level of education achieved, current occupation, family income, place where you usually reside and residence time
Distribution model		Why do you choose this food marketing channel? Do you use other channels and for what reason?
Food practices	Food consumption	Do you have a special preference for the consumption of certain types of food? For what reason? Are these recent practices in your life?
Connectivity	Relationship between producers and consumers	What do you know about the producer of the food you buy? What relationship do you have with the producer?

They are usually willing to pay more for the food because they consider them healthy products. The ICs think differently. They find that the prices of some organic products are high, reaching 200% of traditional market prices (market places), which makes their final products more expensive. They point out that the cause of the high prices is the lack of suppliers and few logistical resources, especially transportation, available to organic producers.

PURCHASE PATTERN AND FREQUENCY

The organic products that DCs and ICs buy are fruits, vegetables, spices, beans, rice, bakery products (artisanal and whole-wheat), eggs, oils, quinoa, chia, amaranth, nut or soy drinks, dairy, panela, chocolate and wines. The most important imported products are legumes, which are the most demanded raw material in some of the vegetarian restaurants and come through regional importers from Canada. Both types of consumers (ICs and DCs) buy 70-90% of fruits, vegetables and greens in the ADCs, but all combine them with purchases in conventional and/or traditional channels (super-market and in the traditional channel, market-place) because ADCs still do not have a wide range of products.

Most of the interviewees state their food habits are in a process of change. Not all consumers define themselves as vegetarians, but they agree that they are making changes in their dietary habits that include less red meat, refined sugars, salt, flours and oils.

MOTIVATIONS FOR THE CONSUMPTION OF ORGANIC FOODS

The arguments for the consumption of organic food can be divided into three groups: the first for health and personal well-

being, the second for social welfare and the third as a form of resistance to the hegemonic food system. The groups are not exclusive; consumers are based on the three motivations simultaneously, as explained below.

Personal wellbeing as a motivation for the consumption of organic foods

Regarding the first group of arguments, health care is the main motivation of all the interviewees for their preferences; specifically, they want to consume food free of pesticides. The above reasons have the added benefit of quality and palatability. Many of the interviewees find that organic fruits and vegetables have a better consistency and are fresher. They also emphasize their ability to last in any form of storage: *"I like these foods because they are organic; they [producers] do not use chemicals, so I feel better knowing that I am not consuming chemicals"* (DC).

Environmental welfare as a motivation for the consumption of organic foods

Environmental welfare as a reason for consumption has several facets: sustainable production, water conservation and respect for animals. A restaurant owner states: *"This business was born to provide, in addition to a healthy gastronomic supply, an environmental awareness; the owners (...) saw that in Medellín, there was a need to venture into a philosophy that starts from awareness for the environment, the concern over animal abuse and responsible consumption of food"* (IC).

Social welfare as a motivation for the consumption of organic foods

For the interviewees, a fair market is the main reason for buying. Fair is understood as purchasing from vulnerable social groups such as farmers and indigenous groups, to contribute to improving their quality of life: *"I love these products because they are produced by hand, made by farmers"* (DC); *"we try to contribute to the mission that the earnings should go directly to the person who deserves it, that is to say, the farmers that produce the foods because, due to their lack of knowledge about marketing or distribution, they tend to be taken advantage of because the person with such knowledge steals part of their usefulness"* (IC).

Food as a form of resistance that motivates the consumption of organic foods

Different types of resistance were found in different aspects:

- Some people consume organic products because they have assumed new lifestyles they describe as "more spiritual", "slower-paced" and "less materialistic". In these cases, the consumption of organic foods is complemented by practices such as meditation, yoga and alternative medicine. These consumers have an understanding of health and disease that differs from Western medicine. Often, they also grow food in their homes and exchange it among groups of friends: *"From our philosophy, we believe that the body as a vehicle feeds on many things, not only physical foods as such, but on what you think, what you perceive, how you see the environment, so we wanted to develop a project with which we could impact society, through one of the feeding areas"* (IC).
- Some interviewees consume organic products because they see it as a form of reviving ancestral customs and from a familiar rural past that shelters many Colombian families: *"It's because we came from a farm; we never saw my dad who was a farmer throw chemicals on the crops; my grandmother also had a little garden, and from there I got all my food"* (DC).
- One of the most reiterated elements in both the IC and DC interviewees is the distrust of the food industry. On the one hand, the contents of the products manufactured by this industry require additives, preservatives, long-distance transportation and durable packaging. Second, consumers question the way in which companies say they are committed to the environment and the healthy lines sold: *"[companies] have some 'healthy' lines but use them as a marketing strategy"* (IC). Some products of the food industry have become more controversial, as in the case of soft drinks, not only because of their impact on health but also because they have become a symbol of the food system controlled by multinationals.
- In addition to the criticisms of the food industry are also criticisms of the certification of food quality that, according to some interviewees, has been *"monopolized by the industry*

to allow it to establish its own standards and exclude the things that are made under other conditions" (IC).

In this sense, consumers interviewed believe that the proximity and knowledge of the producer generates a level of confidence, which can be a greater guarantee than the processes of industrial certification: *"Certification is very expensive for poor farmers and producers, and having a certificate does not guarantee that things are truly being done well. When the consumer knows the producers, when they converse between producers and consumers, one trusts more in that than in the stamps"* (DC).

- Some consumers interviewed state that they want to commit to local social and economic development. They perceive that the conventional food system represents a threat to this development. Organic foods are conceived as *"belonging to us"*, *"produced in the way we have always done it"*, *"what protects our culture, what allows money to remain here"*, and *"what takes care of our environment"* (IC). They also prefer purchasing from organic producers because they are local, bringing more resources for their own towns: *"We can buy soft drinks, or we have the possibility of revitalizing the local economy that is boosted with all local products such as our fruits"* (DC).

The development of autonomy for the consumer

Some interviewees stated that they prefer to consume organic products because they are local to the region and because they are not commercialized in the conventional system, in order to achieve greater autonomy from supermarkets and multinational corporations. One of their aims is the recovery of local products that are currently not consumed because supermarkets do not sell them or products from neighboring countries: *"Now we have new opportunities; here they have brought quinoa, chia, amaranth, maca, kaniwa, other Peruvian foods... Yes, today they are revealing some very rich possibilities. They are being revitalized by groups of young people, who work together with the farmers and are generating other perspectives of food and other aspects of life"* (DC).

Social and political action

Both the ICs and the DCs interviewed do not belong to associations or social movements nor are they linked to organizations that develop public action in a structured way. It is about habits or lifestyles for the private sphere, organized primarily around a social circle of friends and family who believe and enjoy these practices. There is no intention to carry out collective social actions; on the contrary, in some cases, they perceive that associating with and joining regional or national networks would mean losing autonomy and local wealth. They consider that these experiences of consumption and marketing of organic foods must each preserve

their own dynamics of growth and development because it is about encouraging local development.

DISCUSSION

In this study on organic product consumers of the 12 AFNs in Medellín, it was found that the main reason for consumption is personal wellbeing and, specifically, health, followed by care for the environment and social welfare because it contributes to improving the quality of life of poor producers (farmers and indigenous) while promoting local development. It was also found that the consumption of these foods in these networks is, in some cases, a form of resistance against the food industry, agroindustry and supermarkets.

However, the interviewees do not intend to convert these practices into a form of social and political action that organizes new food and nutritional systems. It is a transformation of several spheres of one's private life, without the intention of projecting to the collective sphere.

This characteristic, which is not committed to collective action, is similar to that found in other Latin American countries where organic product consumers show indifference toward fair trade practices and solidarity economies and toward the commitment of establishing lasting bonds of trust. They even show distrust of social movements such as fair trade (41). In contrast, a study conducted in the United Kingdom found that many consumers promote organic food distribution channels as alternatives to supermarkets (42).

The combination of ethical-social reasons and reasons related to individual benefits for the consumption of organic foods is a characteristic found in several studies carried out in different countries (26,43,44). Some authors suggest that the simultaneity of motivations manifests ambiguity in the values of consumers because, on the one hand, they aim to contribute to sustainability and protection of the environment but, on the other hand, consumerist and egocentric motivations remain that challenge the potential social benefits. That is, consumption is also for their own benefit, or pleasure, rather than motivated by reasons of goodwill or concern for the environment (43,45).

From our point of view, as some authors have stated, the concepts related to the consumption of these products, such as "green consumption", "critical consumption" and "ethical consumption" have evolved gradually and, in a general way, stimulate consumers to consider their daily consumption practices from a moral perspective. This incorporation of moral philosophy acknowledges that in consumption, personal choices encompass complex and conflicting aspects in terms of values, motivation and decision-making of individuals (45,46). That is, it would be necessary to consider conflicting values inspired in these consumers so as not to dismiss their transforming potential.

From this perspective, not only to dismiss the transformative potential of consumption but also, in particular, to explore the possibility of developing alternative food systems that transform production, distribution and consumption, we think that local gov-

ernments can play an important role in incorporating alternatives into development plans similar to those analyzed in this study. Public policies of a local nature, such as institutional purchases in which food is purchased for programs such as school restaurants or early childhood programs, as well as for public institutions, such as prisons, hospitals, community kitchens and so on, can be the mechanism to scale these processes and take advantage of the initiative of civil society and consumers in particular.

Finally, we raised the need for future research of a qualitative nature on the perceptions of these foods among the low-income population with lower levels of education and of a quantitative nature in order to establish trends in the number and profile of consumers.

CONCLUSION

The role of the government and, particularly, of local governments through public programs is a strategy to take advantage of the transformative potential of alternative food trends in the production, distribution and consumption of food.

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Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Nutritional assessment and phytoestrogen exposure in a diet of students of the University of Costa Rica

Valoración nutricional y exposición a fitoestrógenos en la dieta de estudiantes de la Universidad de Costa Rica

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Abstract

Introduction: this study presents the results regarding diet and an analysis of natural estrogens (phytoestrogens) intake and how they affect other important aspects, which can modulate biological health functions among university students.

Objectives: assessing nutritional habits and estimating the intake of phytoestrogens in the population under study.

Materials and methods: Costa Rican female (n: 211, 18.83 ± 2.06 years) and male (n: 199, 19.64 ± 3.05 years) university population of the University of Costa Rica applied anthropometric tests using DEXA, the Food Frequency Questionnaire (FFQ) and the 24-hour Reminder (R-24).

Results: the most serious nutritional bad habits were high ingestion of sodium, lipids and animal origin proteins in men and women and a deficit of fiber and folic acid in women. The total intake of phytoestrogens referred to: daidzein 0.23 ± 0.40 mg/day and 7.01 ± 11.94 mg/month in women and 0.17 ± 0.13 mg/day and 5.14 ± 3.96 mg/month in men; mainly consumed in the form of lignans 0.24 ± 0.12 mg/day (women) and 0.23 ± 0.14 mg/day (men). The intake of isoflavones was 0.09 ± 0.38 mg/day (women) and 0.04 ± 0.08 mg/day (men).

Conclusions: the study population presented high fat percentage although the consumption of vegetables, cereals, whole grains and fruits tends slightly to be a Mediterranean diet; their food pattern was much closer to the Western diet.

Key words:

Phytoestrogens.
Diet. Health.
Food Frequency
Questionnaire. 24-
hour recall.

Resumen

Introducción: este estudio presenta resultados respecto a dieta y un análisis más en profundidad de la exposición a estrógenos naturales (fitoestrógenos) en la ingesta, y como este tipo de compuestos influye y se relaciona con otros aspectos importantes que pueden modular funciones biológicas relacionadas con la salud en estudiantes universitarios.

Objetivos: valorar hábitos nutricionales y estimar la ingesta de fitoestrógenos de la población en estudio.

Material y métodos: población costarricense universitaria femenina (n: 211, edades 18,83 ± 2,06 años) y masculina (n: 199, edades 19,64 ± 3,05 años) de la Universidad de Costa Rica y se han aplicado pruebas antropométricas mediante el DEXA y cuestionarios de Frecuencia de Consumo de Alimentos (FFQ) y Recuerdos de 24 Horas (R-24).

Resultados: los errores nutricionales más graves fueron: la elevada ingesta de sodio, lípidos y proteínas de origen animal en hombres y mujeres, y el déficit importante de fibra y ácido fólico en las mujeres. La ingesta total de fitoestrógenos referidos a la daidzeína fue de 0.23 ± 0.40 mg/día y 7,01 ± 11,94 mg/mes en mujeres y de 0,17 ± 0,13 mg/día y de 5,14 ± 3,96 mg/mes en varones; principalmente consumida en forma de lignanos 0,24 ± 0,12 mg/día (mujeres) y 0,23 ± 0,14 mg/día (hombres), mientras la ingesta de isoflavonas fue de 0,09 ± 0,38 mg/día (mujeres) y de 0,04 ± 0,08 mg/día (hombres).

Conclusiones: la población de estudio presentó porcentajes de grasa elevados nutricionalmente hablando, aunque el consumo de vegetales, cereales, granos enteros y frutas tiende un poco a la dieta mediterránea, su patrón alimentario se acerca mucho más a la dieta occidental.

Palabras clave:

Fitoestrógenos.
Dieta. Salud.
Cuestionario de
Frecuencia
de Consumo
de alimentos.
Recordatorio de 24
horas.

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INTRODUCTION

For decades, and even presently, the prevention of chronic diseases has revealed a global importance. Hundreds of studies have tried to discover the ways in which various nutrients can affect health, to know in more detail how nutrients move inside the cell in the molecular level, how they interact between various nutrients, and how they influence (1).

Although today there is a large number of scientific studies related to human nutrition, food composition and intake of various nutrients, phytoestrogens have deserved special attention among researchers for several years. Both the scientific community and the food industry have been concerned, in recent years, by the possible dual role of these compounds, and some epidemiological studies have published important data (2-6).

Phytoestrogens are natural compounds presented in a great variety of vegetable foods. These compounds are found abundantly in soybeans, cereals, legumes, vegetables and fruits. The phytoestrogens are defined as any plant, substance or metabolite that induces biological responses in vertebrates and can mimic or modulate the estrogen endogenous actions, usually by joining the estrogen receptors (7).

In vegetables, the phytoestrogens are evident in their original state (inactive glycosylated) as precursors. By means of the enzymatic action of the intestinal bacteria, once these compounds are ingested, they lose the glucose molecule (transforming themselves into their active forms) and absorbed by the enterohepatic circulation of biliary acids being able to be excreted again by the bile. Its absorption by the intestinal mucosa is completely conditioned by the intestinal flora bacteria and; therefore, the use of antibiotics or gastrointestinal diseases will affect the metabolism of these compounds. A high fiber intake can also hinder their absorption (8).

With regard to the intake of phytoestrogens that provides the diet of different populations, Spain, Germany, England and the United States are countries where the intake of phytoestrogens is lower (< 1 mg/d), while Canada and Scotland present higher intakes < 1.34 mg/d). Oriental countries as Japan and Korea have an even higher intake (> 20 mg/d) (9). Only one single study was found (Mexico) that evaluates the intake of this class of compounds in Latin American populations; however, the sample used was very small ($n: 50$) for validating the fact of phytoestrogen intake (10). In Costa Rica, there are so far no related studies that have been published on this topic.

The exposure of these compounds in greater concentrations than acceptable levels (for example, changes in diet) could be associated with a certain level of risk (11). In addition, some alterations in the duration of the menstrual cycle are linked to high soy consumption (12). Additionally, the demographic level has a high incidence of hormone-dependent cancers (breast and prostate) as has been demonstrated. Thus, typical diseases in other Western societies could be related to the decline, over the past 30 to 40 years, of fruit and vegetable consumption.

Phytoestrogen consumption could modify the production of hormones and their metabolism, or their action at the cellular level,

as well as influencing other functions such as protein synthesis, proliferation of malignant cells and/or angiogenesis. Therefore, it is important to understand the effects of these substances, particularly if their exposure is excessive, because this can promote hyperplasia or neoplasia in breast tissue. A recent study shows the importance of this effect (13).

In contrast, phytoestrogens, diphenols, lignans and isoflavones may have a role as protectors from cancer. Indeed, some epidemiological studies do tend to support this hypothesis in breast cancer, which correlates higher amounts of lignans and isoflavonoids excreted in urine with lower incidence of breast cancer (13).

Other authors have also described antiangiogenic activity and an ability to inhibit cellular differentiation, in addition to describing other properties, such as the antioxidant action (14). In contrast, different *in vitro* tests have shown that some phytoestrogens have an agonist estrogenic activity in low concentrations, stimulating the proliferation of mammary cells and the expression of genes that are under the control of estrogen response elements. However, at higher doses, they have the ability to antagonize the effect of natural hormones (15).

Based on the previous arguments and considering the fact that in Costa Rica no studies have been conducted related to nutritional assessment and phytoestrogen intake, this research seeks to rate nutritional habits and evaluate exposure to phytoestrogens by diet, in students (men and women) of the University of Costa Rica.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

SUBJECTS

A sample of university students (women $n: 211$; men $n: 199$) was recruited at the Human Movement Science Research Center (CIMOHU) of the University of Costa Rica on two occasions: a first session to perform the anthropometric measurements and a second one to complete the questionnaires. Before starting the research, the subjects were informed about the research design.

There were no selection criteria on health or demographic characteristics. The participants were requested to give information on medical history. The Ethical Committee of the University of Costa Rica, meeting the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki (52nd General Assembly; Edinburgh, Scotland, October 2000), approved the study, and a written informed consent, personal identification and personal data was obtained from all subjects. At the end of the study, the participants received the nutritional results via email.

Volunteers were accepted if they had a good health history, were 18 years or older, and signed an informed consent form in accordance with the ethical standards defined by the University of Costa Rica.

MEASUREMENT PROCEDURES

After the recruitment, the student participants were summoned to a scheduled session at CIMOHU. They were asked to wear sports apparel or normal indoor clothing (shorts, elastic fabrics,

and/or T-shirts). They were also told not to wear any jewelry or metal objects to complete the anthropometric tests (weight, height, waist and hip circumference, and fat percentage). Nutritional and physical activity surveys were obtained in a second meeting. The body composition studies were carried out in one morning, after overnight fasting and without previous exercise, alcohol or stimulant beverages. Nutritional and physical activity surveys (FFQ and 24-hour recall) were asked in a second meeting.

INSTRUMENTS AND QUESTIONNAIRES MEASURING

Anthropometric measures such as weight (kg), size (m), waist and hip circumference (cm), and fat percentage were taken at the CIMOHU, using the equipment listed below:

- Height: stadiometer (Novel Products Inc., Rockton, IL, USA) accuracy ± 0.5 cm.
- Body weight: (Tanita®, model BF-350, Arlington Heights, IL, USA) accuracy ± 0.1 kg.
- Fat percentage: this was obtained using a DEXA scan of full body (Lunar Prodigy Advance, General Electric, Madison, WI, USA). A certified equipment technician in accordance with the CIMOHU's standard protocol applied and analyzed every test. Manufacturer protocols and calibrations were accomplished out daily to ensure the quality of the equipment and measurements.

Waist and hip circumference measurement: a Gulick self-locking tape measure was used, based on the ACSM recommendations (16,17).

QUESTIONNAIRES

The FFQ has been widely used and validated and was adapted to include items consumed by this population group (9,18,19,47,64) by a semi-quantitative estimation of intake of macronutrients and the energy level of the population, applying the same questionnaire at the beginning and at the end of the study. Spearman's correlation rank was less than $p < 0.05$ for energy from protein ($\rho = 0.67$), lipids ($\rho = 0.76$) and carbohydrates ($\rho = 0.67$) in all the correlations.

For the FFQ, similar questionnaires were used as have previously been used (9,18,19); adapted to a Costa Rican diet and including 144 foods. Some foods were included because of changes in feeding patterns (products low in fat, for example) and others were selected based on published data (20,21) and the database (PHYTOHEALTH Thematic Network) due to their richness in phytoestrogens. Specific food consumption or not, frequency of consumption (day/week/month) and amounts in homemade measurements were collected. To calculate food ration averages, raw weight data was used.

The reported information in the R-24 recall and the FFQ were analyzed with a DNA sequencing software (food diet and nutrition) Academic Version 3.3.0., created by Ph.D. Luis García Diz and in

collaboration with PhD Mataix Verdú J, Sierra Cinos JL, Murcia Tomás MA and Martínez M, in 2012. Based on this analysis, the consumption of macronutrients SFA and cholesterol, minerals, and vitamins were obtained. All values were compared to the international intake recommendations i.e., dietary reference intakes (22).

The total energy intake consumed calculated by means of FFQ and R-24 was compared to the total energy expenditure calculated for the sample according to their age, weight and height using these formulas:

$$\text{GET (women)} = 354 - (6.91 * \text{age [years]}) \\ \pm 1.2 * (9.36 * \text{weight [kg]}) \pm (726 * \text{size [m]})$$

$$\text{GET (men)} = 662 - (9.53 * \text{age [years]}) \\ \pm 1.2 * (15.91 * \text{weight [kg]}) \pm (539.6 * \text{size [m]})$$

To extract values to calculate the amount of phytoestrogens contained in many foods (and taking into account the current information available in the literature) food was classified in nine categories according to their phytoestrogens content, based on concentrations of: a) isoflavones: daizein, formononetin, genistein, biochanin A; b) coumestans: coumestrol, matairesinol, secoisolariciresinol; and c) lignans: enterolacton and enterodiol. When in academic literature different values were found for the same food, the highest value was chosen. Phytoestrogen estimate intake per day was calculated by multiplying the amount of food, corresponding to the desired compound values, expressed as mg/day (20,21). To weight the total daily consumption of phytoestrogens by subject, calculations were done to standardize the values referring to daidzein as a model substance.

DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical analysis was performed with the SPSS 21.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) program. For the quantitative variables, descriptive techniques were used such as averages, standard deviations and a normality distribution test; for categorical variables, the tests used were frequencies expressed in percentages and the Chi-square test. For the inferential study, parametric and non-parametric contrasts were used: Student's t test, ANOVA test, contingency tables, and Spearman's correlation coefficients. The statistical significance level for every test was $p \leq 0.05$.

RESULTS

ANTHROPOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS

Table I presents young adults with anthropometric characteristics that differ significantly ($p \leq 0.001$) according to sex. It is highlighted that, in general, they have suitable anthropometric characteristics except for the high fat percentage, a contrasting value with the average of the BMI and the relation between the waist-hip values of subjects.

Table I. University students' anthropometric characteristics

Variables	Average $\pm$ SD		p
	♀	♂	
Age (years)	18.83 $\pm$ 2.06	19.64 $\pm$ 3.05	0.002 [†]
Height (cm)	160.98 $\pm$ 6.18	173.65 $\pm$ 6.84	0.0011 [‡]
Weight (kg)	58.32 $\pm$ 10.84	71.52 $\pm$ 12.74	0.0011 [‡]
BMI (kg/m ²)	22.46 $\pm$ 3.62	23.53 $\pm$ 3.90	0.018*
Percentage of fat (%)	36.53 $\pm$ 7.35	23.00 $\pm$ 9.00	0.0011 [‡]
Waist (cm)	71.75 $\pm$ 8.26	81.81 $\pm$ 10.36	0.0011 [‡]
Hip (cm)	98.08 $\pm$ 7.63	98.92 $\pm$ 7.66	0.350
WHR	0.74 $\pm$ 0.04	0.82 $\pm$ 0.05	0.0011 [‡]
BMD (g/cm ²)	1.09 $\pm$ 0.08	1.16 $\pm$ 0.08	0.0011 [‡]

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Results of the analyzed sample belong to University of Costa Rica. WHR: waist to hip ratio, BMD: bone mineral density, ♀: university women; ♂: university men; $\pm$ SD: standard deviation; BMI: body mass index.

Comparative analysis using Student's t test. Significance according to * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, [†] $p \leq 0.001$, [‡] $p \leq 0.0011$.

NUTRITIONAL ASSESSMENT OF THE POPULATION UNDER STUDY

Table II shows, through the Student's t analyses, the most important weekly food consumptions in the diet of the participants (women and men) with a reference value based on the required consumption; in this case, of weekly recommendations for intake in accordance with the Food Guides for the Spanish population (23) and the Food Guides for the Costa Rican population (24). A comparison of the weekly frequency consumption among men and women is also presented.

Focusing on a comparison with the weekly requirement, women presented no significant differences in the intake of floury vegetables, pasta, eggs, legumes, fish, and fruit with respect to the weekly-required intake. However, they consume significantly ($p \leq 0.01$) fewer dairy products and cereals, and they drink little coffee. In contrast, they consumed significantly ($p \leq 0.01$) higher rations of white bread, red and white meat, vegetables and refined sugar. Men show significant differences in all the results ($p \leq 0.05$), including a lower consumption of dairy products, cereals, fish and fruit, while drinking a little coffee. In contrast, men had a higher consumption of white bread, vegetables, pasta, eggs, and red and white meat.

Based on a comparative analysis by sex, men had significantly higher intake ($p \leq 0.05$) of almost all foods compared to women while based on the 24-hour recall, the analysis of Student's t was used to compare the average to DRIs (22) reference value. Classified nutrient results are detailed in tables II-VI.

Based on these results (Table III), women had a significant lipid and protein intake ($p \leq 0.001$) in contrast to a low fiber intake ($p = 0.031$) while men only had an adequate fiber intake. The protein, carbohydrate and lipid intake was significantly ($p \leq 0.05$) lower than the recommended intake value. Moreover, men obtained a low total energy consumption as they consumed approximately 80% of the required energy to meet their needs.

Based on the outcomes associated with the intake of fatty acids and cholesterol in the participant population's diet (Table IV), no

significant difference ($p > 0.05$) in the intake of saturated fats between men and women was revealed, but we did find more saturated fat intake in women than the recommended value ($p \leq 0.001$). Mono-unsaturated fat intake and cholesterol, for both men and women, was less than the recommended value ($p \leq 0.001$). In addition, higher cholesterol intake in women compared to men ($p = 0.006$) was found. In relation to the intake of poly-unsaturated fats, in both men and women were similarly higher ($p \leq 0.05$) than the recommended values.

According to these results (Table V), women had a significantly higher consumption ($p = 0.001$) of iron, phosphorus, sodium, and selenium, and a significantly lower consumption ($p < 0.01$) of calcium, iodine, magnesium, and potassium based on daily intake recommendations. Only zinc intake coincided with the recommendations. On the other hand, men have higher intakes of iron, phosphorus, sodium, and selenium, and very low intakes of calcium, iodine, magnesium, zinc and potassium based on daily intake recommendations ($p < 0.001$).

As for the intake of vitamins in the study population (Table VI), women had a significantly elevated consumption ($p = 0.001$) of A, C and B-complex vitamins and a significantly low consumption ($p < 0.01$) of vitamin D and folic acid based on the daily intake recommendations. Only the intake of vitamin E and thiamin agreed with the recommendations. In the case of men, statistically significant differences were found ($p < 0.01$) for all outcomes. Thus, elevated intakes of vitamins A, C, E, and B-complex were found, as well as very low vitamin D, thiamine and folic acid levels, based on daily intake recommendations.

As already mentioned, the quantification of phytoestrogens per day was calculated by multiplying the amount of food by the corresponding values to the desired compound. In addition, to weigh the daily consumption, calculations were conducted by multiplying the molecular weight to standardize the values and comparing those results to daidzein as a pattern substance. Table VII shows the average values of phytoestrogen-intake by day.

Table II. Comparison of the participants weekly frequency intake based on the required intake recommended by sex

Weekly frequency intake				p		
Food	Required intake	Average $\pm$ SD		Requirement		Gender
		♀	♂	♀	♂	
Dairy products	14	12.04 $\pm$ 7.54	12.32 $\pm$ 7.15	0.001 [†]	0.002 [†]	0.724
Bread	7	9.99 $\pm$ 7.69	11.55 $\pm$ 6.87	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.053 [†]
Cereals	7	3.62 $\pm$ 4.49	3.73 $\pm$ 4.08	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.814
Potatoes, banana, yucca	8	7.42 $\pm$ 5.36	10.02 $\pm$ 8.15	0.179	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]
Rice	18	11.54 $\pm$ 8.07	14.31 $\pm$ 8.95	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.003 [†]
Pasta	2	1.99 $\pm$ 2.06	2.60 $\pm$ 2.81	0.969	0.005 [†]	0.027*
Eggs	4	3.95 $\pm$ 3.11	5.43 $\pm$ 4.34	0.869	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]
Legumes	7	7.65 $\pm$ 6.34	10.02 $\pm$ 8.39	0.193	0.001 [†]	0.004 [†]
Meat (red)	3	3.65 $\pm$ 2.48	4.35 $\pm$ 3.18	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.028*
Chicken, turkey, Pork	4	4.62 $\pm$ 3.36	5.28 $\pm$ 3.77	0.021*	0.001 [†]	0.096
Fish	4	3.57 $\pm$ 3.04	3.42 $\pm$ 3.16	0.080	0.018*	0.666
Fruits	21	20.01 $\pm$ 12.07	19.15 $\pm$ 12.19	0.307	0.047*	0.522
Vegetables	14	29.63 $\pm$ 16.05	25.16 $\pm$ 16.38	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.013*
Sugar	7	10.07 $\pm$ 8.20	10.63 $\pm$ 8.92	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.554
Coffee	14	3.06 $\pm$ 4.72	4.44 $\pm$ 6.55	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.031*

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Comparative analysis using Student's t test. Results of the analyzed sample belongs to University of Costa Rica. ♀: university women; ♂: university men; $\pm$ SD: standard deviation. Significance according to *p $\leq$ 0.05, **p $\leq$ 0.01, †p $\leq$ 0.001.

Table III. Macronutrient energy intake from R-24 and intake percentages of university students under study according to DRIs

	Intake average $\pm$ SD (%)	DRI	Required %	% Intake based on requirements	t	p
Women participants (♀)						
Energy (kcal)	2,056.69 $\pm$ 444.74	2,040. 53 [§]		101.0	0.44	0.655
Protein (g)	80.96 $\pm$ 25.44 (15.87)		15	105.8	2.15	0.033*
Carbohydrates (g)	313.93 $\pm$ 229.29 (61.59)		55	111.98	1.79	0.075
Lipids (g)	74.63 $\pm$ 25.76 (32.92)		30	109.73	3.16	0.002 [†]
Fiber (g)	23.38 $\pm$ 9.13	25		93.52	-2.17	0.031*
Men participants (♂)						
Energy (kcal)	2,219.45 $\pm$ 467.96	2773. 79 [§]		80.01	-15.26	0.001 [†]
Protein (g)	92.40 $\pm$ 44.35 (13.32)		15	88.8	-3.37	0.001 [†]
Carbohydrates (g)	336.62 $\pm$ 246.37 (48.54)		55	88.25	-2.34	0.020*
Lipids (g)	77.91 $\pm$ 31.97 (25.28)		30	84.26	-5.86	0.001 [†]
Fiber (g)	27.06 $\pm$ 46.36	25		108.24	0.57	0.567

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Results of the analyzed sample belongs to University of Costa Rica. ♀: university women; ♂: university men, $\pm$ SD: standard deviation. Significance according to *p $\leq$ 0.05, **p $\leq$ 0.01, †p $\leq$ 0.001. [§]Calculated for the range based on age and weight for the study population.

A significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) in the total phytoestrogen, lignan and isoflavone intake was found. In such cases, women showed greater intakes. With respect to the aforementioned daily and monthly daidzein intake, no differences were found ($p = 0.054$) in men or women. In addition, it was observed that in both groups the lignans, enterodiol and enterolactom were the most representative phytoestrogens in the sample diet of the study, while both coumestrol and biochanin A presented the lowest intake values.

As part of the inferential analysis, the Spearman's correlation coefficient (ρ) was applied for the variables of daidzein, genistein, biochanin A, formononetin; coumestrol, matairesinol, secoiso, lariciresinol; enterolactom and enterodiol for each food group (Table VIII). The correlation matrix reveals the relationship between each phytoestrogen (mg/d) studied and the food intake, classified by group (g/d). It is highlighted that all correlations were significant and positive ($p < 0.001$, $p < 0.05$). Cereals, legumes, fruits, vegetables, and sweets, for example, correlated significantly ($p < 0.001$, $p < 0.05$) with nine types of phytoestrogens. As for soybeans, the unique phytoestrogen, which did not have a significant correlation, was biochanin A. Drinks, although presenting weak relations to six of the phytoestrogen analyzed, did not relate significantly with genistein, biochanin A and coumenstrol.

DISCUSSION

Based on the results (Table I), the sample showed similar anthropometric features to sample used in Spanish (25), and other foreign studies (6,26-28). This allows the deduction that the phytoestrogen nutrient intake can, therefore, be comparable.

The valued food intake using the FFQ (Table II indicates that women follow the recommendations in consuming legumes, fish, fruit, pasta, and eggs. Nonetheless, they consume an excess ($p \leq 0.05$) of white and red meats, sugar and vegetables. They also show a deficit ($p \leq 0.05$) intake of dairy products, bread, rice, and cereals for breakfast while men have a nutritional profile statistically different ($p \leq 0.05$, $p \leq 0.001$) in all food groups. For instance, they eat foods such as carbohydrates, eggs, legumes, red and white meats, vegetables and sugar, while having lower daily intakes of fish and fruits. These results could also explain the argument mentioned above that even when many of the participants under study do not follow a strict diet, they probably limit the intake of bread, potatoes and carbohydrates. Due to this idea of being fit, they replace them with less caloric foods such as vegetables, fruits and fish (29-32) that means, the Mediterranean diet (33,34).

On the other hand, men reveal a different statistical nutritional profile in all food groups ($p \leq 0.05$, $p \leq 0.001$) consuming carbohydrates, eggs, legumes, red and white meat, vegetables and sugar in higher proportions and less dairy, fish and fruits. However, in both women and men a lack of dairy and the abuse of consuming meat and sugar can be dangerous for health (35-38).

As a complement, the macronutrient intake and energy from the R-24 was analyzed showing that the media energy intake in men was 2,219.45 kcal/day. That reveals an approximate deficit

Table IV. Fatty acids and cholesterol intake based on R-24 and percentage intake according to the nutritional goals of the university population

	Consumption of fatty acids and cholesterol				DRIs (%)	% Intake based on DRIs		p		
	Intake average ± SD (%)		Kcal			♀	♂	Requirement		
	♀	♂	♀	♂				♀	♂	
AGS (g)	21.64 ± 9.22 (9.54)	23.45 ± 9.36 (7.61)	194.77 ± 83.04	211.13 ± 84.30	8	119.2	95.1	0.001 [†]	0.102	0.083
AGM (g)	2.010 ± 9.05 (8.87)	21.67 ± 15.96 (7.03)	180.93 ± 81.49	195.07 ± 143.66	15	59.1	46.8	0.001 [†]	0.001 [†]	0.483
AGP (g)	15.84 ± 6.89 (6.99)	18.93 ± 31.10 (6.14)	142.61 ± 62.04	170.40 ± 279.90	5	139.8	122.8	0.001 [†]	0.146	0.461
Cholesterol (mg)	215.85 ± 116.36	260.03 ± 161.47			< 300 (mg/d)	71.9	86.6	0.001 [†]	0.002 [†]	0.049*

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Results of the analyzed sample belong to University of Costa Rica. ♀: university women; ♂: university men; $\pm$ SD: standard deviation. Comparative analysis by Student's t test. Significance according to [†] $p \leq 0.05$, ^{**} $p \leq 0.01$, ^{***} $p \leq 0.001$.

Table V. Minerals intake comparison in the university participants to recommended intake percentages according to DRIs

	Intake average $\pm$ SD		DRI		% Intake based on the DRI		p	
	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂
Iron (mg/d)	27.05 $\pm$ 43.08	26.44 $\pm$ 38.41	18	8	150.27	330.5	0.011*	0.001†
Magnesium (mg/d)	288.73 $\pm$ 103.78	299.28 $\pm$ 96.17	310	400	93.13	74.82	0.013*	0.001†
Zinc (mg/d)	8.02 $\pm$ 3.55	8.63 $\pm$ 3.51	8	11	100.25	78.45	0.944	0.001†
Calcium (mg/d)	643.13 $\pm$ 273.42	695.66 $\pm$ 307.55	1,000	1000	64.31	69.56	0.001†	0.001†
Iodine (ug/d)	58.97 $\pm$ 38.86	62.80 $\pm$ 55.06	150	150	39.31	41.86	0.001†	0.001†
Phosphorus (mg/d)	1,150.76 $\pm$ 383.62	1,246.03 $\pm$ 374.19	700	700	164.39	178.00	0.001†	0.001†
Potassium (mg/d)	3,251.21 $\pm$ 1,131.78	3,220.95 $\pm$ 1,064.84	4,700	4700	69.17	68.53	0.001†	0.001†
Sodium (mg/d)	2,624.64 $\pm$ 1,015.75	2,919.95 $\pm$ 961.97	1,500	1500	174.9	194.6	0.001†	0.001†
Selenium (ug/d)	76.81 $\pm$ 35.50	85.12 $\pm$ 38.67	45	45	170.68	189.15	0.001†	0.001†

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Results of the analyzed sample belong to University of Costa Rica. ♀: university women; ♂: university men; $\pm$ SD: standard deviation.

Comparative analysis using Student's *t* test as requested. Significance according to **p* $\leq$ 0.05, ***p* $\leq$ 0.01, †*p* $\leq$ 0.001.

Table VI. Comparison of vitamin intake in the university study population to recommended intake percentages according to DRIs

	Intake average $\pm$ SD		DRI		% Intake based on DRI		p	
	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂	♀	♂
Vitamin A (ug/d)	994.59 $\pm$ 651.14	994.66 $\pm$ 611.79	700	900	142.08	110.51	0.001†	0.048*
Ascorbic acid (mg/d)	224.44 $\pm$ 126.58	220.57 $\pm$ 137.90	75	90	299.25	245.07	0.001†	0.001†
Vitamin D (ug/d)	5.58 $\pm$ 11.30	5.00 $\pm$ 10.28	15	15	37.2	33.33	0.001†	0.001†
Vitamin E (mg)	15.01 $\pm$ 6.19	16.10 $\pm$ 6.97	15	15	100.06	107.33	0.974	0.043 *
Thiamin (mg/d)	1.77 $\pm$ 4.64	1.50 $\pm$ 0.66	1.1	1.2	160.90	125.00	0.075	0.001†
Riboflavin (mg/d)	1.55 $\pm$ 0.71	1.72 $\pm$ 0.89	1.1	1.3	140.90	132.30	0.001†	0.001†
Niacin (mg/d)	28.99 $\pm$ 9.85	32.21 $\pm$ 17.87	14	16	207.07	201.31	0.001†	0.001†
Pyridoxine (mg/d)	2.29 $\pm$ 0.81	2.44 $\pm$ 0.84	1.3	1.3	176.15	187.69	0.001†	0.001†
Cyanocobalamin (ug/d)	5.06 $\pm$ 4.23	5.77 $\pm$ 4.12	2.4	2.4	210.83	240.41	0.001†	0.001†

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Results of the analyzed sample belongs to University of Costa Rica. ♀: university women; ♂: university men; $\pm$ SD: standard deviation. Comparative analysis using Student's *t* test as requested. Significance according to **p* $\leq$ 0.05, ***p* $\leq$ 0.01, †*p* $\leq$ 0.001.

of 20% of the DRIs, based on the age and the weight range, while women usually had the recommended energy intakes (2,056.69 kcal/day), taking into account that other authors have concluded that populations with low-calorie diets are associated with healthy lifestyles (32). In any case, the possible energy intake undervaluation (or overvaluation) may suggest two possible situations. First, there is a likely concern about body image; stereotypes enforced by relatives, and television, among others, lead into eating disorders, putting at risk the individual's health (39). Secondly, the method depends on the data provided by the individual, which are most susceptible to mistakes since they tend to approximate their intake levels to those they believe are normal, especially if they consider their level to be excessive (40).

In women, *protein* intake significantly exceeded 80.96 g/d, the value representing 105.8% of daily recommendations, while in men the intake only showed an 88.8% of the recommendations, with an intake of 92.40 g/d. According to some authors, the intake of some nutrients such as calcium, iron, zinc, vitamin A and riboflavin is related to the diet's protein quality (41). Therefore, even when the nutritional objectives (42) are intended to involve a decreased in terms of proteins, many studies in different populations revealed that the current trend in diet includes generous amounts of proteins.

The trend by gender considering the carbohydrate daily total was similar. Women had intakes of 313.93 g/d (111.98% of the recommended) while men ate 336.62 g/d under the obtained

Table VII. Phytoestrogen daily intake of the university participants

	Media and (SD)		p
	♀	♂	
Daidzein	0.03 ± 0.14	0.01 ± 0.03	0.058
Genistein	0.05 ± 0.24	0.02 ± 0.04	0.057
Formononetin	0.002 ± 0.003	0.002 ± 0.002	0.440
Biochanin A	0.0012 ± 0.0011	0.0012 ± 0.0012	0.156
Coumestrol	0.0012 ± 0.0011	0.0012 ± 0.0012	0.828
Matairesinol	0.009 ± 0.008	0.008 ± 0.007	0.569
Secoisolariciresinol	0.05 ± 0.04	0.05 ± 0.03	0.281
Enterolacton	0.10 ± 0.05	0.10 ± 0.06	0.442
Enterodiol	0.06 ± 0.03	0.06 ± 0.04	0.773
*Total phytoestrogens (mg/day)	0.23 ± 0.40	0.17 ± 0.13	0.054
*Total phytoestrogens (mg/month)	7.01 ± 11.94	5.14 ± 3.96	0.054
*Total isoflavones	0.09 ± 0.38	0.04 ± 0.08	0.057
†Total lignans and precursors	0.24 ± 0.12	0.23 ± 0.14	0.442

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Results of the analyzed sample belong to University of Costa Rica. *Data referred to the daidzein as substance pattern. †Data referred to the enterolacton as substance pattern. ♀: university women; ♂: university men; ± SD: standard deviation. Comparative analysis by using Student's t test by sex.

values in other studies (43,44), representing 88.25% of the ideal consumption of this macronutrient according to the nutritional objectives already mentioned. These data corroborate the low intake trend of these foods from the 40s until today (45,46).

For this reason, one may think that people's psychological perception may interfere with different food beliefs, even when those beliefs may negatively alter the intake of important macronutrients (47,48). However, valid arguments highlight the benefits in a rich carbohydrate diet over anthropometric variables related to weight loss and health (49,50).

The fiber estimation trend, on the contrary, seemed to be in reverse. Results showed that women under study were at levels of 2,338 g, representing 93.52% of DRIs, while men reached an intake percentage of 108.24% (27.06 g/d). This data, low in the case of women, followed the same population behavior of other samples evaluated in Spain and in other countries (51-55).

It is important that fiber intake was increased. Insufficient fiber intake is associated with an increased risk of suffering short-term illnesses such as constipation and diverticulosis (56), and in the long term, it seems to be linked to incidence and worsening of diabetes, cardiovascular disease and cancer (57-59). In fact, it has been shown how beneficial and protective fiber can be against colon and rectum cancer (60). Unfortunately, the intake of food

Table VIII. Spearman's correlation (r_{sp}) between phytoestrogen (mg/d) and the participants' food group intake (g/d) per day

	Daidzein	Genistein	Formonon	Biochanin A	Coumest	Matairesinol	Secoiso	Enterolac	Enterodiol
Cereals	r_{sp} 0.247 [†] Sig.	0.231 [†] 0.001	(0.362) [†] 0.001	0.189 [†] 0.001	-0.179 [†] 0.001	0.268 [†] 0.001	0.224 [†] 0.001	0.199 [†] 0.001	0.284 [†] 0.001
Legumes	r_{sp} 0.313 [†] Sig.	0.266 [†] 0.001	0.545 [†] 0.001	0.323 [†] 0.001	0.402 [†] 0.001	0.195 [†] 0.001	0.229 [†] 0.001	0.326 [†] 0.001	0.323 [†] 0.001
Fruits	r_{sp} 0.462 [†] Sig.	0.439 [†] 0.001	0.452 [†] 0.001	0.324 [†] 0.001	0.440 [†] 0.001	0.434 [†] 0.001	0.632 [†] 0.001	0.584 [†] 0.001	0.577 [†] 0.001
Vegetables	r_{sp} 0.550 [†] Sig.	0.544 [†] 0.001	0.346 [†] 0.001	0.338 [†] 0.001	0.546 [†] 0.001	0.466 [†] 0.001	0.549 [†] 0.001	0.813 [†] 0.001	0.842 [†] 0.001
Soy	r_{sp} 0.287 [†] Sig.	0.324 [†] 0.001	0.138 [*] 0.012	0.092 0.097	0.155 [†] 0.005	0.184 [†] 0.001	0.168 [†] 0.002	0.121 [*] 0.029	0.154 [†] 0.005
Sweets	r_{sp} 0.218 [†] Sig.	0.202 [†] 0.001	0.281 [†] 0.001	0.237 [†] 0.001	0.126 [*] 0.023	0.328 [†] 0.001	0.231 [†] 0.001	0.183 [†] 0.001	0.199 [†] 0.001
Beverages	r_{sp} 0.132 [*] Sig.	0.071 0.203	0.177 [†] 0.001	0.082 0.136	0.082 0.137	0.142 [*] 0.010	0.246 [†] 0.001	0.233 [†] 0.001	0.260 [†] 0.001

Source: produced by Hernández-Elizondo J. Results of the analyzed sample belong to the University of Costa Rica. ± SD: standard deviation; r_{sp} : Spearman's correlation. Significance according to * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, † $p \leq 0.001$.

rich in fiber, such as beans and nuts, sometimes is reduced in favor of fast foods, especially in young people, which affects the diet quality. In spite of this, many studies, specifically made for women, have verified that motivated individuals can have great changes in eating habits to prevent future diseases (61,62). In this sense, it has been verified that when public health offices execute policies and projects trying to improve nutritional habits, the quality of the diet improves significantly (54).

The intake of *fatty acids and cholesterol* valued according to R-24 indicates that, in the case of men, the MUFA and the PUFA are the only ones that fit statistically ($p = 0.102$ and $p = 0.146$, respectively) within the dietary goals, while the intake of MUFA for both men and women is higher than recommended and of cholesterol, lower than recommended. In the case of women, the PUFA ingestion represents 119.2%, whereas the MUFA reaches 139.8%, in agreement with other studies (44) and simultaneously resisting other Spanish samples (63).

Concerning *mineral* intake, statistically significant differences were found between the real intake and DRI recommendations. Under 100% were calcium, magnesium, potassium, zinc and iodine in women, whereas phosphorus, selenium, iron and sodium intakes surpassed 100% of the recommended. On the other hand, zinc intake comes near expected intake daily recommendation. High phosphorus intake is due to the large consumption of different foods such as carbonated drinks. Coke and sugary drinks today are replacing other types of beverages such as water or milk (64). This data is similar with the one found in children, which differs with the one presented in adolescents' intakes (64). In early ages, the family seems to be in charge of meals. This fact suggests that a deficiency of nutrients in adult diets would be related to childhood diet. However, families tend to lose the control of the diet as they grow older.

For *vitamins* consumption, the average values of vitamin C, thiamine, riboflavin, niacin, pyridoxine, and vitamin A were over 100% of the DRIs in both groups, which means that in all cases they did not agree with the values found in a study made in Cataluña (65) with intakes below recommendations in niacin, vitamin A, vitamin D, and folic acid. For riboflavin, and vitamin A the consumption is superior to the ones found for other scientists. In regard to acid folic intake, both men's and women's intakes were 86.37% and 84.61%, respectively.

This fact could be worrisome because for most the possibility of being pregnant is latent and the adequate ingestion of this nutrient is essential to prevent fetus congenital malformations. Folates are mainly found in fruits, legumes and green vegetables whereas vitamin E fundamentally is consumed from oil and vegetable. If vitamin E is not consumed in suitable rations, a lack of vitamins will occur. The results show low values of *phytoestrogen ingestion* 0.23 ± 0.40 mg/d and 7.01 ± 11.94 mg/m for women and 0.17 ± 0.13 mg/d and 5.14 ± 3.96 mg/m in men, mostly consumed in the form of lignans; 0.24 ± 0.12 mg/d (women) and 0.23 ± 0.14 mg/d (men), while the ingestion of isoflavones 0.09 ± 0.38 mg/d and of 0.04 ± 0.08 mg/d for women and men, respectively. The total consumption of isoflavones was 0.23 mg/d, of lignan 1.07 mg/d and, according to our analysis, coumestrol intake was

0.001 mg/d. These conclusions are consistent with the earlier published data on phytoestrogens intake in Western populations (2,3,5). This data differs significantly when we compare daily intakes with Oriental diets (11). In addition, when performing a comparative analysis by sex of the estimation of phytoestrogen intake, any of the analyses supported significant statistical differences ($p > 0.05$) between men and women, which are consistent with the current research.

Based on these results, some important aspects of our data should be considered. We used a semi-quantitative standardized FFQ as a measurement instrument, designed to quantify the monthly dietary intake of food groups in terms of frequency and food portions. This has an advantage because its validity has been widely proven, and has even given reliable results when these results have been contrasted with other types of complex measurements such as the analysis of biomarkers (66). According to Boker et al. (20), the analysis of blood, urine and plasma usually represents only a short period intake (usually up to 48 hours) and its results depend on the bio-availability and the influence of phytoestrogens, while the digestion of them is affected by innumerable reasons (intestinal microflora, use of antibiotics, gender, etc.).

However, the results may be underestimated because it has not taken into account the overlapping sources of soy, which for a long time has been used in food production systems, e.g., beverages and fermented food products, cereal mixtures or pastry shop, processed meats, or stock cube soup. In addition, according to Boker et al. (20), the lack of data confirms that the presence and the content of lignans in food products might lead to inaccuracies, especially when evaluating the ingestion of phytoestrogens in Western populations because they consume more frequently lignans than Oriental populations.

We have to be careful regarding the consumption of diets rich in phytoestrogens in higher concentrations since the consequences of an exaggerated consumption remains unknown. Among the population groups that can be affected, children who drink soy milk (as a substitute for maternal or cow milk) are more susceptible, since the concentration of isoflavones in the blood is 1,000 times higher than that found in children's blood when nursed by mothers who consume diets rich in soybean (67,69). Studies made with wildlife and other animals show that the fetal or perinatal exposure to endocrine disruptors, such as phytoestrogens, originate an altered sexual differentiation and urogenital malformations, which lead to reproductive disorders in adult life (70); besides, a recent meta-analysis evidences that phytoestrogen intake via food might, at least in part, be responsible for sperm concentration trends (71). Therefore, it is crucial to mention that exposure to phytoestrogens in one's diet should not be high, especially in development and reproduction stages, as in the sample studied.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the studied population has a normal BMI, but with high fat percentages for their age. The nutritional profile differs

significantly from the weekly recommendations (practically in all the food groups) according to the nutritional guides in Costa Rica and Spain.

In general terms, men consumed smaller percentages of CHO and lipids while women exceeded caloric intake, according to expenditure, exceeding the intake percentage recommended in all the macronutrients. In relation to the consumption of fatty acids and cholesterol, women exceed by more than 100% the recommended intake of SFA and PUFA while they have intakes under 70% of the recommendation regarding MUFA and cholesterol. On the other hand, men only consume PUFA above the 100% recommended.

In the particular case of the sample included in this study, it does not seem that the intake of phytoestrogens can be defined as harmful. These results are consistent with similar intakes in other Occidental countries.

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Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Adherencia al patrón de dieta mediterránea y autoconcepto en adolescentes

Adherence to the Mediterranean diet pattern and self-concept in adolescents

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Resumen

Introducción: la adolescencia se caracteriza por ser una fase decisiva que consolida tanto el desarrollo de la personalidad, atendiendo a diversos factores psicosociales que influyen, como la adquisición de hábitos que se establecerán en la adultez.

Objetivos: relacionar la adherencia a la dieta mediterránea (DM) en adolescentes con las dimensiones del autoconcepto.

Métodos: estudio observacional transversal descriptivo de nivel de adherencia a la DM a través del test de MEDAS-14 y percepción de las dimensiones académica, social, emocional, familiar y física del autoconcepto, evaluado a través del test AF-5 en 600 adolescentes del sur de España.

Resultados: la adherencia a la DM se relacionó positivamente con el nivel académico, la edad y el autoconcepto académico ($r = 0,19$ a $0,33$; $p < 0,01$), siendo predicha por un 13% de la varianza explicada por el autoconcepto académico y un 13,8%, por el autoconcepto académico y social ($p < 0,01$). Además, el 58,3% de los adolescentes presentaron una adherencia a la DM alta y el 13,3% y el 28,3%, una adherencia a la DM baja y media, respectivamente. La media fue de 8,8 puntos, que corresponde a una valoración media.

Conclusiones: los principales hallazgos de este estudio muestran que la adherencia a la DM se relaciona con el autoconcepto académico y social, la edad y el nivel académico, que reflejan una clara concienciación alimentaria conforme se evidencian dichas variables. Además, la población adolescente tiene una adherencia a la DM media, que corresponde a un patrón dietético estricto aunque no saludable.

Palabras clave:

Dieta mediterránea.
Autoconcepto.
Percepción.
Adolescencia. Edad.
Género.

Abstract

Introduction: adolescence is characterized by being a decisive phase that consolidates both the personality development (attending to various psychosocial factors that influence), and the achievement of habits that will be established in adulthood.

Objectives: to relate the adherence to the Mediterranean diet (MD) in adolescents with the self-concept dimensions.

Methods: cross-sectional observational study of the adherence to MD level through the MEDAS-14 test and perception of the academic, social, emotional, family and physical dimensions of the self-concept, evaluated through the AF-5 test in 600 adolescents from the south of Spain.

Results: the adherence to MD was positively related to the academic level, age and academic self-concept ($r = 0.19$ to 0.33 , $p < 0.01$), being predicted by 13% of the variance explained by the academic self-concept, and 13.8%, for the academic and social self-concept ($p < 0.01$). In addition, 58.3% of adolescents presented high adherence to MD and 13.3% and 28.3%, low and medium adherence to MD, respectively, with a mean of 8.8 points, corresponding to an average assessment.

Conclusions: the main findings of this study show that adherence to MD is related to academic and social self-concept, age and academic level, which reflects clear food awareness as these variables are evidenced. In addition, adolescents have an average adherence to MD, corresponding to a strict dietary pattern, although not healthy.

Key words:

Mediterranean
diet. Self-concept.
Perception.
Adolescence. Age.
Gender.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

El paso de la etapa de la adolescencia a la edad adulta se define como una transición evolutiva que experimenta diversos cambios morfológicos, físicos y psicosociales en la cual cobra especial importancia la creación y consolidación de hábitos saludables (1). El desarrollo físico de los adolescentes está afectado directamente por la identidad que estos construyan para su futura vida adulta, cuya etapa estará abordada por aspectos psicológicos como depresiones, estrés y violencia, entre otros (2), fruto del comienzo en actividades profesionales, conciliación familiar, etc.

La búsqueda de una identidad consolidada y firme se logra mediante labores progresivas que se realizan durante el periodo de la adolescencia (3). De este modo, el docente se convierte en una figura destacable en el transcurso y el logro de las tareas evolutivas desde la pubertad, pasando por la adolescencia (3), con el objetivo de conseguir una identidad, afianzamiento personal y hábitos que asentarán en la edad adulta (4) y que tienen como consecuencia inmediata su repercusión en el autoconcepto. Este autoconcepto se define como el constructo, la imagen o la percepción que tiene un individuo sobre sí mismo (5) y que influye en la configuración de la personalidad (6) debido a las experiencias multidimensionales de la persona. El correcto funcionamiento de tipo comportamental, afectivo, cognitivo y social conlleva una valoración positiva de la percepción y, por lo tanto, implicaría un adecuado autoconcepto (7). Por estas razones, se hace necesaria la evaluación del autoconcepto en estas edades, ya que se presenta la hipótesis de que estas percepciones de la persona disminuyen a medida que comienza la adultez.

Las relaciones de las dimensiones que conforman el autoconcepto (p. ej., académica, social, emocional, familiar y física) con las conductas saludables de los adolescentes provocan comportamientos de automejora (6), como realizar práctica de actividad física y mantener una adecuada y equilibrada alimentación, entre otros comportamientos (8,9), en busca de la calidad de vida. Esta etapa se presenta como un momento especialmente vulnerable a la hora de conformar estos hábitos alimentarios, que se conservarán en la edad adulta y marcarán en gran medida el estado general de salud a lo largo de los años (8). En este sentido, existe una escasa literatura científica que aborde estudios que abarquen las dimensiones del autoconcepto y su relación con hábitos alimentarios (6,10).

Actualmente, los hábitos alimentarios perjudiciales se han ido imponiendo con la sucesión de generaciones, fruto del avance en el procesamiento de alimentos y, también, debido al fácil acceso a alimentos no saludables en las poblaciones desarrolladas (11,12). Esto ha originado una tendencia hacia la sobrenutrición y al preocupante aumento de las tasas de obesidad entre la población adolescente, con la consecuente predisposición a padecer enfermedades cardiovasculares y/o metabólicas en la edad adulta (13).

Concretamente, se considera que la dieta mediterránea (DM) es uno de los modelos de dieta más saludables (14), destacada por su relación con la salud y la calidad de vida de las personas (15-17), ya que aporta una alimentación equilibrada en cuanto a calorías y cantidades nutricionales (18).

Específicamente, esta DM se compone de una ingesta elevada de aceite de oliva, verduras, frutas, cereales y frutos secos, así como de una ingesta moderada de pescado, productos lácteos y huevos, unido a una escasa ingesta de carne roja y dulces (19). Este modelo de dieta ofrece una alta calidad en la ingesta de nutrientes (20), favoreciendo un adecuado desarrollo madurativo en la transición de la adolescencia a la edad adulta (21).

OBJETIVO

Debido a la importancia que tiene actualmente llevar a cabo un patrón alimentario como la DM, para así conseguir una vida saludable y un nivel adecuado de autoconcepto en los jóvenes que finalizan su etapa de adolescencia, el objetivo principal de este estudio es relacionar la adherencia a la DM en jóvenes adolescentes con las dimensiones del autoconcepto.

MÉTODO

DISEÑO Y PARTICIPANTES

Se trata de un estudio de tipo descriptivo, observacional y de corte transversal, con la participación voluntaria de 600 participantes (435 hombres y 165 mujeres) de edades comprendidas entre 18 y 26 años ($M = 25.53$; $DT = 1.12$). Inicialmente, la muestra estaba compuesta por 603 participantes, aunque se eliminaron tres casos debido a la cumplimentación incorrecta de algunos de los cuestionarios o variables de agrupación. Este estudio conformó una selección de la muestra de forma aleatoria en el sur de España, en las ciudades de Sevilla, Granada y Málaga. Se realizaron invitaciones a través de internet para realizar los cuestionarios de esta investigación. Los criterios de inclusión del estudio fueron que tuvieran los participantes entre 18 y 26 años y hubiesen podido realizar sus estudios en España para que las categorizaciones por nivel académico fuesen homogéneas. Los criterios de exclusión fueron la cumplimentación errónea o incompleta de los cuestionarios y la ausencia de datos en las variables de agrupación como género o nivel académico.

INSTRUMENTOS

En primer lugar, se suministró un cuestionario *ad hoc* con preguntas relativas a las características físicas y sociodemográficas (peso, altura, edad, preguntas sobre la práctica de actividad física, número de veces y tipo de actividad, consumo de tabaco, nivel de estudios y género). En segundo lugar, se llevó a cabo el cuestionario Autoconcepto Forma-5 (AF-5) elaborado por García y Musitu (22) y estructurado en 30 ítems valorados con una escala de 1 a 99. Se establece una sumatoria de los ítems para la determinación del autoconcepto general, mientras que para las dimensiones del mismo se realiza una sumatoria de los siguientes ítems: autoconcepto académico (AA), ítems 1, 6, 11, 16, 21 y 26; autoconcepto social (AS), ítems 2, 7, 12, 17, 22 y 27; autoconcepto emocional (AE), ítems

3, 8, 13, 18, 23 y 28; autoconcepto familiar (AFa), ítems 4, 9, 14, 19, 24 y 29; y autoconcepto físico (AF), ítems 5, 10, 15, 20, 25 y 30. La fiabilidad establecida en su versión original es de $\alpha = 0,81$, similar a la determinada en este estudio con un $\alpha = 0,76$, con una fiabilidad por dimensiones de AA: $\alpha = 0,859$; AS: $\alpha = 0,723$; AE: $\alpha = 0,776$; AFa: $\alpha = 0,678$; y AF: $\alpha = 0,763$. En tercer lugar, se evaluó la adherencia a la DM a través de la versión española del cuestionario de adherencia a la DM (MEDAS-14) (23). Este cuestionario consta de 12 preguntas sobre la frecuencia de consumo de alimentos y dos preguntas sobre hábitos de ingesta de alimentos considerados característicos de la DM española. Cada pregunta fue puntuada con 0 o 1 y se otorgó un punto por consumir: cuatro o más cucharadas de aceite de oliva/día; dos o más raciones de verduras/día; tres o más piezas de fruta/día; menos de una ración de carne roja o salchicha/día; menos de una porción de grasa animal/día; menos de una bebida azucarada/día; siete o más vasos de vino tinto/semana; tres o más raciones de legumbres/semana; tres o más raciones de pescado/semana; menos de dos pasteles o repostería comercial/semana; tres o más porciones de nueces/semana; dos o más veces/semana de un plato con una salsa tradicional de tomates, ajo y cebollas; preferencia del consumo de carne de pollo, pavo o conejo en lugar de ternera, cerdo, hamburguesas o salchichas; y el uso del aceite de oliva como principal grasa para cocinar (24). La puntuación total oscila entre 0 y 14 puntos y permite diferenciar tres niveles de adherencia a la DM: bajo (0-6), medio (7-8) y alto (≥ 9), que corresponde a modesta, estricta y saludable diseño dietético, respectivamente (25).

PROCEDIMIENTO

Fue requerida una descripción sobre los objetivos y pruebas a llevar a cabo a los participantes antes de la aceptación del consentimiento informado. Se incidió en el respeto al derecho de confidencialidad y el anonimato de los participantes para la realización del estudio, que abarca fines estrictamente científicos. Este estudio cuenta con la aprobación del Comité de Ética de la Universidad de Granada y se siguieron las indicaciones establecidas en la Declaración de Helsinki (2013). Los cuestionarios fueron autoadministrados de forma consecutiva en el mismo día y se llevaron a cabo durante 5-10 minutos. Al final de los mismos, tenían la posibilidad de incorporar su correo electrónico para el envío de los informes del nivel de adherencia a la DM individualizado.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Los datos se analizaron mediante el programa estadístico SPSS 22.0 (IBM SPSS Statistic, Chicago, Estados Unidos) y Microsoft Office Excel (Microsoft Corp., Redmond, Washington, Estados Unidos). Para la comprobación de la normalidad de las variables se llevó a cabo el test de Kolmogorov-Smirnov. Seguidamente, se realizaron t de Student y análisis de la varianza (ANOVA) con las variables independientes del género y nivel de adherencia a la DM, respectivamente. Para evaluar la diferencia entre las

distintas comparaciones entre grupos se utilizó el ajuste *post hoc* de Bonferroni. Además, se calculó el tamaño del efecto (d), que cuantifica el tamaño de la diferencia que existe entre ambos grupos (26). El test de Chi-cuadrado (χ^2) fue usado para estimar asociaciones entre el género, la adherencia a la DM, la práctica de actividad física y el nivel educativo. Finalmente, se comprobó la relación de las dimensiones del autoconcepto con el nivel de adherencia a la DM, la edad y el nivel académico a través del coeficiente de correlación de Pearson y se hallaron consecutivamente las variables independientes que predicen la adherencia a la DM a través de un análisis de regresión lineal de pasos sucesivos (Stepwise). El nivel de significación establecido fue de $p < 0,05$.

RESULTADOS

La tabla I muestra las características físicas, la adherencia a la DM y el nivel académico de los adolescentes. Los datos revelan que las diferencias según el género fueron significativas en la mayoría de los parámetros de características físicas y consumo de tabaco, destacando asociaciones entre los niveles de adherencia a la DM y los niveles académicos con el género. El 58,3% de los adolescentes encuestados presentaron una adherencia a la DM alta y el 13,3% y el 28,3% de los participantes presentaron una adherencia a la DM baja y media, respectivamente ($p = 0,004$). Las relaciones entre la adherencia a la DM y el nivel académico con el género fueron significativas ($\chi^2 [2, n = 600] = 11,238, p = 0,004$; $\chi^2 [3, n = 600] = 32,201, p < 0,001$, respectivamente). De los 600 jóvenes evaluados, 250 tienen una adherencia baja o media a la DM. Considerando los datos de hombres y mujeres, una baja adherencia a la DM se dio en un 13,3% de las veces. Considerando los datos correspondientes a las mujeres, un 13,3% de los 165 casos es igual a 21,9, que serían las frecuencias esperadas para este nivel de adherencia a la DM. Sin embargo, los resultados del presente estudio mostraron que tener una adherencia a la DM baja cuando se trata del género femenino ocurrió en diez ocasiones. En general, los adolescentes presentan un nivel de adherencia a la DM de 8,8 puntos de media.

En la tabla II se muestran las frecuencias y porcentajes de la práctica de actividad física y el nivel académico de la población adolescente según el nivel de adherencia a la DM que presentan. En general, más del 95% de los participantes realizaban práctica de actividad física en su tiempo de ocio y un 14,1% del total de los participantes mostraron una adherencia baja y un 30,6%, una adherencia media. Las relaciones entre la práctica de actividad física y el nivel académico con el nivel de adherencia fueron significativas ($\chi^2 [2, n = 600] = 6,433, p = 0,040$; $\chi^2 [6, n = 600] = 70,380, p < 0,001$, respectivamente). De los 600 jóvenes evaluados, 250 tuvieron una adherencia baja o media a la DM. Considerando los datos de todos los niveles académicos juntos, tener una adherencia a la DM baja ocurrió en un 13,3% de las veces. Considerando los datos de los alumnos de grado, un 13,3% de los 285 jóvenes es igual a 37,9, que serían las frecuencias esperadas para este nivel de adherencia a la DM. Sin

Tabla I. Características físicas, adherencia a la DM y nivel académico de los adolescentes*

	Mujer (n = 165)	Hombre (n = 435)	Total (n = 600)	χ^2 T	p
Edad	22,7 ± 3,3	21,7 ± 4,9	22,1 ± 4,1	-0,936 [†]	0,534
Peso	63,1 ± 9,5	76,2 ± 9,6	72,8 ± 11,2	14,702 [†]	0,000
Altura	1,66 ± 0,1	1,78 ± 0,1	1,75 ± 0,1	19,434 [†]	0,000
IMC	22,8 ± 2,7	24,1 ± 2,8	23,8 ± 2,9	4,788 [†]	0,000
Consumo de tabaco	20 (12,1%)	50 (11,5%)	70 (12,6)		
MEDAS	8,97 ± 1,8	8,79 ± 2,2	8,84 ± 2,1	-1,023 [†]	0,303
Adherencia baja (0-6)	10 (6,1)	70 (16,1)	80 (13,3)	11,238 [‡]	0,004
Adherencia media (7-8)	55 (33,3)	115 (26,4)	170 (28,3)		
Adherencia alta (> 9)	100 (60,6)	250 (57,5)	350 (58,3)		
Nivel académico					
Obligatorio	5 (3,0)	15 (3,4)	20 (3,3)	32,201 [‡]	0,000
Bachillerato	25 (15,2)	165 (37,9)	190 (31,7)		
Grado	105 (63,6)	180 (41,4)	285 (47,5)		
Posgrado	30 (18,2)	75 (17,2)	105 (17,5)		

DM: dieta mediterránea; IMC: índice de masa corporal. *Valores expresados como medias ± desviación estándar y número de participantes (porcentaje de la muestra total). [†]Test t de Student y [‡]Chi-cuadrado. El valor de p corresponde a diferencias entre el género.

Tabla II. Práctica de actividad física, nivel académico según nivel de adherencia a la DM de los adolescentes*

	Adherencia a la DM baja (n = 80)	Adherencia a la DM media (n = 170)	Adherencia a la DM alta (n = 350)	χ^2	p
Práctica de AF					
No	0 (0,0)	10 (50)	10 (50)	6,433	0,040
Sí	80 (13,8)	160 (27,6)	340 (58,6)		
Nivel académico					
Obligatorio	5 (25)	10 (50)	5 (25)	70,380	0,000
Bachillerato	15 (7,9)	90 (47,4)	85 (44,7)		
Grado	45 (15,8)	60 (21,1)	180 (63,2)		
Posgrado	15 (14,3)	10 (9,5)	80 (76,2)		

AF: Actividad física. *Valores expresados con el número de participantes (porcentaje de la muestra total según práctica de AF y nivel académico). El valor de p corresponde a diferencias según el nivel de adherencia.

embargo, los resultados del presente estudio mostraron que tener una adherencia a la DM baja cuando los jóvenes tienen un nivel académico de grado ocurrió en 45 ocasiones. En general, en los adolescentes evaluados, la probabilidad de tener una adherencia a la DM baja fue mayor que la media, excepto en aquellos que tienen bachillerato como nivel académico.

Posteriormente, se realizó el test de ANOVA de un factor de las dimensiones del autoconcepto con el nivel de adherencia a la DM (Tabla III). Se han encontrado diversas diferencias significativas en las dimensiones del autoconcepto, obteniendo mayores puntuaciones en el académico los adolescentes con alta adherencia a la DM; en el social, los que poseen adherencia a la DM baja; y en el emocional, los que poseen una adherencia a la DM media ($p < 0,05$).

Finalmente, se han hallado distintas correlaciones entre la

adherencia a la DM, la edad, el nivel académico y las dimensiones del autoconcepto (Tabla IV). La adherencia a la DM, la edad y el nivel académico se correlacionan positivamente con el autoconcepto académico ($r = 0,33, 0,44, 0,26$; $p < 0,01$, respectivamente). Además, esta adherencia a la DM se correlaciona inversamente de forma moderada con el autoconcepto emocional y familiar ($r = -0,12$; $p < 0,01$) y positivamente con la edad y el nivel académico ($r = 0,27, 0,19$; $p < 0,01$, respectivamente). La adherencia a la DM es predicha con el 13% por el autoconcepto académico (modelo 1; *Standard Error of Estimation* [SEE] = 1,924; $p = 0,000$), con el 13,5% por el autoconcepto académico y la edad del adolescente (modelo 2; SEE = 1,916; $p = 0,019$) y con el 13,8% por el autoconcepto académico y social (modelo 3; SEE = 1,913; $p = 0,007$).

Tabla III. ANOVA de las dimensiones del autoconcepto en función de la ADM

ADM		n	M	Post hoc Bonferroni Inf	95% IC		F _(3,590)	p	d Cohen
					Sup				
A. académico	Baja	80	70,68 ± 14,2	**†	67,41	73,94	27,565	0,000	1,02
	Media	170	76,02 ± 10,8	*†	74,30	77,73			
	Alta	350	80,65 ± 10,6	††	79,50	81,81			
A. social	Baja	80	64,83 ± 7,36	‡	63,14	66,53	4,072	0,018	0,40
	Media	170	62,80 ± 6,54		61,76	63,84			
	Alta	350	61,49 ± 11,0	‡	60,30	62,69			
A. emocional	Baja	80	29,81 ± 14,6	*	26,45	33,17	10,288	0,000	0,83
	Media	170	40,03 ± 19,6	*†	36,92	43,15			
	Alta	350	33,49 ± 17,9	†	31,54	35,44			
A. familiar	Baja	80	64,77 ± 10,8		62,27	67,26	1,085	0,339	0,17
	Media	170	65,17 ± 5,92		64,23	66,11			
	Alta	350	64,06 ± 8,08		63,17	64,94			
A. físico	Baja	80	73,17 ± 16,3		69,41	76,92	0,634	0,531	0,18
	Media	170	72,24 ± 13,7		70,07	74,41			
	Alta	350	73,80 ± 13,9		72,28	75,31			
Autoconcepto G.	Baja	80	60,65 ± 6,31		59,20	62,10	1,986	0,138	0,22
	Media	170	62,29 ± 6,85		61,20	63,38			
	Alta	350	62,27 ± 6,46		61,56	62,97			

A: autoconcepto; ADM: adherencia a la dieta mediterránea. *Diferencia de baja ADM con media ADM. †Diferencia de media ADM con alta ADM. ‡Diferencia de alta ADM con baja ADM.

Tabla IV. Coeficiente de correlación r de Pearson entre la adherencia a la DM, edad, nivel académico y dimensiones del autoconcepto

	ADM total	ADM hombres	ADM mujeres	Edad	Nivel académico
A. académico	0,333 [†]	0,298 [†]	0,395 [†]	0,440 [†]	0,258 [†]
A. social	-0,020	-0,034	-0,021	-0,073	-0,024
A. emocional	-0,116*	-0,048	-0,279 [†]	-0,182 [†]	-0,109*
A. familiar	-0,118*	-0,097	-0,197*	-0,108 [†]	-0,233 [†]
A. físico	0,059	-0,022	0,311 [†]	-0,157*	-0,222 [†]
Autoconcepto G.	0,095	0,091	0,051	-0,150*	-0,128*
ADM				0,273 [†]	0,194 [†]

* $p < 0,05$; † $p < 0,01$. A: autoconcepto; ADM: adherencia a la dieta mediterránea; G: general.

DISCUSIÓN

El objetivo de este estudio fue relacionar la adherencia a la DM en adolescentes con las dimensiones del autoconcepto. Los resultados mostraron que los adolescentes con distinto nivel de adherencia a la DM poseen un autoconcepto diferenciado. En este sentido, nuestros datos revelaron que los adolescentes con una adherencia alta a la DM ostentan valores superiores tanto de autoconcepto académico como de nivel académico. Esto podría ser debido a que un mayor nivel académico de los adolescentes permite tener una mayor concienciación y responsabilidad por mantener estilos de vida saludables, porque conocen los beneficios

y/o perjuicios de una adherencia a la DM alta y/o baja, entre otros estilos, respectivamente (27). Por tanto, un mayor conocimiento podría implicar diferencias en la ingesta de distintos alimentos que benefician a su vez su rendimiento académico (28), lo cual se plantea como una posible limitación del estudio. En resumen, los adolescentes que se perciben de manera positiva a sí mismos tienen comportamientos saludables positivos (29), con lo que se establece una relación entre autoconcepto y conducta. Durante los últimos años, varios estudios han analizado la importancia del autoconcepto en relación al bienestar del ser humano (6), hallándose en este estudio diferencias de niveles de autoconcepto en adolescentes con distinto nivel de adherencia a la DM.

Durante esta etapa de transición a la edad adulta, los jóvenes sufren importantes cambios académicos, sociales y emocionales (30) que provocan un desequilibrio en los comportamientos relacionados con hábitos saludables. De este modo, en nuestro estudio, los jóvenes con un menor autoconcepto emocional y un mayor autoconcepto social presentaron una adherencia a la DM baja. Los agentes socializadores influyen en las decisiones de la persona sobre los alimentos que consume en función de sus preferencias e influencias de amigos, familiares, cultura, medios de comunicación, etc. (31). Desde una dimensión social, adolescentes universitarios que consumen alimentos referidos a comidas rápidas y carnes lo relacionan con oportunidades de interacción social (32) que, a su vez, se encuentran influidas por la publicidad y la televisión (12).

De este modo, los adolescentes que presentaron una adherencia a la DM baja y media correspondieron a un 13,3% y un 28,3% del total, respectivamente, valores inferiores con respecto a otras poblaciones similares con un 21% del total correspondiente a una adherencia a la DM baja (33). Los resultados indicaron que la mayoría de los jóvenes mantienen una adherencia a la DM estricta y saludable. Esta DM se caracteriza por tratarse de un patrón alimentario transmitido entre generaciones. En el presente estudio existe un 58% de los adolescentes que no han sido influidos por dietas con prevalencia de ingesta de carnes y escaso pescado (24), característicos en dietas occidentales. Este 58% de los participantes evaluados son superiores a otros estudios, los cuales alcanzan hasta un 44,6% de los participantes totales los que presentan una adherencia a la DM alta (34).

Los adolescentes mantienen una etapa crítica en la adquisición y configuración de hábitos alimentarios y estilos de vida saludables, que serán perdurables en la vida adulta (35), controlando su propia dieta (36). Los hábitos alimentarios observados en los jóvenes adolescentes justifican la implementación de programas de intervención educativa y estrategias sostenibles de salud que fomenten, en estas poblaciones vulnerables, criterios nutricionales saludables (37) en aras de mejorar la adherencia a la DM y, por ende, la percepción de los adolescentes sobre sí mismos.

Entre las limitaciones de este estudio, observamos, por un lado, la posibilidad de incorporar información sobre el nivel socioeconómico de las zonas ubicadas de las instituciones educativas donde los participantes han obtenido el nivel académico indicado y, por otro lado, el conocimiento del grado de adherencia a la DM que poseen los familiares directos podrían condicionar en cierta medida la adherencia del participante. Estas indicaciones podrían ser tenidas en cuenta con el objetivo de investigar las causas que intervienen en los adolescentes que practican una adherencia a la DM baja y media para, así, poder implantar medidas correctoras que favorezcan una alimentación saludable.

CONCLUSIONES

Los principales hallazgos de este estudio muestran que la población adolescente tiene una adherencia a la DM media, que corresponde a un patrón dietético estricto aunque no saludable

(25). Además, la adherencia a la DM se relaciona con la edad, el nivel académico y el autoconcepto académico y social, lo cual refleja una clara concienciación alimentaria conforme se evidencian dichas variables.

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Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Consumo de alcohol y perfil lipídico en participantes del Estudio Longitudinal de Salud del Adulto (ELSA-Brasil)

Alcohol consumption and lipid profile in participants of the Longitudinal Study of Adult Health (ELSA-BRASIL)

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Resumen

Introducción: las dislipidemias son definidas comúnmente por niveles bajos de HDL-c y altos niveles de triglicéridos y LDL-c. Son varios los factores relacionados con esta patogénesis y uno de ellos es el consumo de alcohol, presentado divergencias entre la cantidad y el tipo de bebida alcohólica que debe consumirse para encontrar efectos de asociación con los parámetros lipídicos.

Objetivo: investigar la relación entre el consumo de alcohol y el tipo de bebida alcohólica y los parámetros lipídicos HDL-c y triglicéridos en participantes del Estudio Longitudinal de Salud del Adulto (ELSA-Brasil).

Métodos: estudio observacional, transversal, desarrollado a partir de los datos de la línea de base del ELSA-Brasil (2008-2010). El consumo de bebidas alcohólicas fue estimado en dosis/semana y categorizado por terciles (1-7, 7-14 y > 14 dosis/semana) y por tipo de bebida alcohólica (cerveza, vino y destilados). Los parámetros lipídicos fueron utilizados como datos continuos. Se realizaron modelos de regresión lineal para cada tipo de bebida alcohólica. El nivel de confianza fue del 5%.

Resultados: el HDL-c y los triglicéridos aumentaron con el incremento del número de dosis/semana de cerveza. El consumo de vino de 1-7 y 7-14 dosis/semana elevó el HDL-c. Por el contrario, los triglicéridos tienden a disminuir cuando el consumo es de 1-7 dosis/semana. El consumo de destilados de > 14 dosis/semana aumentó las concentraciones de HDL-c.

Conclusión: el HDL-c aumentó sus niveles plasmáticos con el consumo de todos los tipos de bebidas alcohólicas. Por el contrario, los triglicéridos disminuyen con el consumo de vino.

Palabras clave:

Parámetros lipídicos.
Bebidas alcohólicas.

Abstract

Introduction: dyslipidemias are commonly defined by low levels of HDL-c and high levels of triglycerides and LDL-c as an alteration in the functioning of lipoproteins. Several factors are related to this pathogenesis, and one of them is the consumption of alcohol, presenting divergences between the amount and the type of alcoholic drink that must be consumed to find effects of association with the lipid parameters.

Objective: to investigate the relationship between alcohol consumption and the type of alcoholic beverage with HDL-c and triglycerides in participants of the Longitudinal Study of Adult Health (ELSA-Brasil).

Methods: observational, cross-sectional study, developed from baseline data from the ELSA-Brasil (2008-2010). The consumption of alcoholic beverages was estimated in doses/week and categorized in tertiles (1-7, 7-14 and > 14 doses/week) and by type of alcoholic beverage (beer, wine and distillates). Lipid parameters were used as continuous data. Linear regression models were performed for each type of alcoholic beverage. The confidence level was 5%.

Results: HDL-c and triglycerides increased with the increase in the number of doses/week of beer. The consumption of wine between 1-7 and 7-14 doses/week raises HDL-c. Conversely, triglycerides tend to decrease when consumption is 1-7 doses/week. Consumption of distillates > 14 doses/week increase HDL-c.

Conclusion: HDL-c increased plasma levels directly with the consumption of all types of alcoholic beverages. Conversely, triglycerides decrease with wine consumption.

Key words:

Lipid parameters.
Lipids. Alcoholic drinks.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Las dislipidemias son definidas comúnmente por niveles bajos de HDL-c y altos niveles de triglicéridos y LDL-c (1). Son uno de los principales factores para desarrollar enfermedades cardiovasculares (ECV) y se les atribuye el 30% de las muertes globales (2). Las causas asociadas al desarrollo de ECV son multifactoriales y entre ellas podemos destacar: edad (3), escolaridad e ingresos mensuales (4), dieta (5), actividad física (6), tabaquismo (7), complexión corporal (8) y consumo de alcohol (9).

El consumo de alcohol ha sido ampliamente relacionado con la salud cardiovascular. Hay evidencias de que el consumo moderado de alcohol disminuye la incidencia de ECV y muertes por todas las causas. Ese efecto es explicado por el incremento de las concentraciones de HDL-c y fracciones HDL1 HDL2 Y HDL3 (10,47) y la disminución de la concentración plasmática de triglicéridos (11).

Al observar el efecto positivo del alcohol sobre el HDL-c, niveles séricos superiores al percentil 90 han sido relacionados con mayor presencia de enfermedad cardiovascular. Esos hechos son explicados por la inhibición de enzimas claves en el transporte reverso del colesterol, que consecuentemente aumentan la placa aterogénica (40).

Los mecanismos puntuales envueltos en la asociación de consumo y perfil lipídico no están completamente bien establecidos, ni con la cantidad de consumo ni con el tipo de bebida alcohólica (cerveza, vino y destilados). De esta manera, el objetivo del presente estudio es evaluar la relación entre el consumo de alcohol y los parámetros lipídicos (HDL-c, triglicéridos), tomando como referencia para el análisis la línea de base del estudio longitudinal de salud del adulto (ELSA-Brasil).

MATERIALES Y MÉTODOS

Es un estudio observacional, transversal y analítico desarrollado a partir de la línea de base del Estudio Longitudinal de Salud del Adulto (ELSA - Brasil).

La línea de base del ELSA-Brasil transcurrió entre 2008 y 2010 y consistió en la recopilación de datos mediante entrevistas, exámenes y análisis de laboratorio. ELSA-Brasil es una cohorte de 15.105 adultos, hombres y mujeres, con edades comprendidas entre 35 y 74 años, trabajadores activos y retirados de cinco instituciones federales de educación superior (Universidad Federal de Espírito Santo, Universidad Federal de Minas Gerais, Universidad Federal de Bahía, Universidad de São Paulo, Universidad Federal de Rio Grande do Sul y la Fundación Oswaldo Cruz-FIOCRUZ, de investigación). El estudio fue aprobado por el comité de ética de cada institución y todos los participantes firmaron el consentimiento informado (12).

Para el presente estudio fueron analizados los datos de la primera colecta, denominada línea de base y desarrollada entre 2008 y 2010. Se excluyeron participantes con consumo de medicamentos hipolipemiantes ($n = 1.978$), hipercolesterolemia familiar ($n = 4$), hipertrigliceridemia familiar ($n = 34$), cáncer gastrointestinal ($n = 61$), enfermedad cardiovascular ($n = 365$), consumo no plausible de cerveza ($n = 55$), consumo no plausible

de vino ($n = 29$), consumo no plausible de destilados ($n = 0$), consumo alimentario no plausible < 500 y > 6.000 kilocalorías ($n = 371$) y con cuestionarios incompletos o no respondidos ($n = 29$). Resultó una población de estudio de 12.179 participantes.

CONSUMO DE ALCOHOL

El consumo de alcohol fue reportado por medio de cuestionarios estructurados con preguntas cerradas, llevados a cabo en cada centro de investigación del ELSA-Brasil, para determinar los tipos de bebida alcohólica (cerveza, vino y destilados). También se determinaron la frecuencia y la cantidad de consumo (diaria, semanal, mensual) (13).

El volumen de alcohol fue clasificado de acuerdo con el reporte de cada participante en mililitros/día para cada bebida. Después de esto, se realizó la clasificación en dosis siguiendo la siguiente estandarización: una copa de vino rojo o vino blanco (120 ml), una dosis de cerveza en botella o lata (350 ml) o una botella de cerveza de 620 ml fue considerada dos dosis, para los destilados fue considerada una dosis de 50 ml de cachaza, vodka, aguardiente, entre otros.

Después, se dividió en grupos de consumo en dosis/semana. El primer grupo fue denominado abstemios e incluyó a los participantes que reportaron 0 ml de consumo de alcohol; los grupos segundo, tercero y cuarto incluyeron a aquellos participantes cuyo consumo fue de 1-7, 7-14 y > 14 dosis/semana, respectivamente. Para la graduación alcohólica se definió cerveza = 5%, vino = 12% y destilados = 39%.

EXÁMENES DE LABORATORIO

Se obtuvieron muestras de sangre por punción venosa, usando tubos al vacío. Las muestras fueron debidamente almacenadas y transportadas al laboratorio central del proyecto, ubicado en el hospital universitario de São Paulo. En este estudio, las variables bioquímicas a analizar fueron HLD-c con el método calorimétrico homogéneo sin precipitación y triglicéridos con el método de peroxidasa de glicerol-fosfato (colorimétrico enzimático) (14).

MEDIDAS ANTROPOMÉTRICAS

Para el presente trabajo, las variables usadas fueron peso y estatura, colectadas bajo los estándares mencionados por Loman 1998 (15). Para la clasificación del estado nutricional se calculó el índice de masa corporal (IMC) usando los puntos de corte de la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS, 2000) (16).

ACTIVIDAD FÍSICA

Fue estimada después de la aplicación del International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ), versión larga, en los dominios

de actividad física de tiempo libre (AFTL) y actividad física en el desplazamiento (AFD). El instrumento fue validado en Brasil. Los estándares de actividad física en los diferentes dominios fueron reportados en minutos/semana, resultantes de la multiplicación de la frecuencia semana por la duración de cada actividad física (17).

DATOS DIETÉTICOS

La recolección de los datos dietéticos de los participantes fue obtenida a través de un cuestionario de frecuencia alimentaria, desarrollado y validado para la población del estudio (ELSA-Brasil). Es un cuestionario semicuantitativo compuesto por 114 ítems alimentarios, que tiene como objetivo evaluar el consumo alimentario habitual en los últimos 12 meses (Molina y cols., 2013 [18]; Molina y cols., 2013 [19]).

VARIABLES SOCIOECONÓMICAS, SOCIODEMOGRÁFICAS Y DE ESTILO DE VIDA

Las variables socioeconómicas, sociodemográficas y de estilos de vida, recogidas con cuestionarios estructurados, fueron: sexo, edad, escolaridad, ingresos, etnia, tabaquismo, consumo de alcohol y actividad física en el tiempo libre (13).

TRATAMIENTO Y ANÁLISIS DE LOS DATOS

El análisis de los datos fue realizado usando el programa Statistical Package for the Social Sciences SPSS-22.0.

Los valores fueron expresados en porcentajes como medias y desviaciones estándar (DE) y comparados entre los participantes de acuerdo con el consumo de alcohol clasificado en dosis/semana, con las variables sociodemográficas, de estilo de vida y bioquímicas.

Los porcentajes y las medias de los parámetros lipídicos estudiados fueron comparados de acuerdo a variables sociodemográficas y de estilo de vida. Para las variables categóricas se realizó el análisis de Chi-cuadrado y para las medias, el test de análisis de varianza (ANOVA), seguido del post-hoc de Tukey.

El análisis fue desarrollado con modelos de regresión lineal para evaluar la relación entre el consumo de bebida alcohólica y los parámetros lipídicos, bruto y ajustado por variables sociodemográficas (sexo, edad, ingresos), y las variables de estilo de vida (IMC, tabaquismo, cambios en la alimentación en los últimos seis meses, actividad física y consumo de energía). El nivel de significancia adoptado fue del 5% para todos los análisis estadísticos.

CONSIDERACIONES ÉTICAS

El protocolo de investigación del ELSA-Brasil fue aprobado por el Comité de Ética en Investigación de las seis instituciones que integran el estudio, en los registros 669/06 (Universidad Federal

de São Paulo), 343/06 (FIOCRUZ), 041/06 (Universidad Federal de Espírito Santo), 186/06 (Universidad Federal de Minas Gerais), 194/06 (Universidad Federal de Rio Grande do Sul), 027/06 (Universidad Federal de Bahía).

RESULTADOS

Los participantes que consumen alcohol > 14 dosis/semana son hombres (78,1%), de 45 a 54 años (47,7%), con educación superior y posgrado (42,2%), separados (39,1%), blancos (43,7%), con ingresos bajos (40,6%), con exceso de peso (47,3%), exfumadores (37,1%) y con actividad física débil (78,4%) (Tabla I).

Al analizar los triglicéridos, los niveles plasmáticos más altos se encontraron en participantes de 55 a 64 años, con escolaridad primaria incompleta, indígenas con menores ingresos, con obesidad, fumadores, consumidores de alcohol y con actividad física baja en el tiempo libre (Tabla II).

Para el parámetro lipídico HDL-c, los niveles plasmáticos más altos se encontraron en participantes de 65-74 años, con escolaridad universitaria concluida o posgraduación, de etnia asiática, con ingresos económicos elevados, eutróficos, no fumadores, consumidores de alcohol y que realizan actividad física fuerte en el tiempo libre (Tabla II).

Se observó que en los participantes con consumo de cerveza de > 14 dosis por semana se presentaron niveles más altos de TG, y cuando el consumo fue de 1-7 dosis/semana se presentaron los niveles más altos de HDL-c (Tabla III).

Los mayores niveles de HDL-c se observan con el consumo de > 14 dosis/semana de vino. Por el contrario, los mayores niveles plasmáticos de triglicéridos se observan en abstemios.

Al analizar el consumo de destilados se observa que los mayores niveles de HDL-c y triglicéridos se encuentran en los participantes que consumen > 14 dosis/semana (Tabla III).

En el análisis de cada tipo de bebida alcohólica y su relación con los parámetros lipídicos, se encontró que el consumo de cerveza mayor a siete dosis/semana aumenta los triglicéridos significativamente. Cuando el consumo de vino es de 1-7 dosis/semana, los triglicéridos tienden a disminuir significativamente. No se observó relación con ninguna categoría de consumo de destilados (Fig. 1A, C y E).

Al analizar el comportamiento del HDL-c en relación con los diferentes tipos de bebidas alcohólicas, encontramos que en todas las categorías de consumo de cerveza y destilados el HDL-c tuvo una tendencia al aumento, dependiente de la cantidad consumida de cada tipo de bebida alcohólica. También se observó este incremento del HDL-c cuando el consumo de vino fue de 1-7 y de 7-14 dosis/semana (Fig. 1B, D y F).

DISCUSIÓN

De acuerdo con nuestros resultados, el consumo de bebidas alcohólicas está relacionado con los parámetros lipídicos

Tabla I. Características de la muestra, según el consumo de dosis/semana de alcohol - ELSA-Brasil (2008-2010)

Variables	Dosis/semana				Valor p
	0	1-7	7-14	> 14	
<i>Sexo</i>					
Hombres	33,5	48,2	61,4	78,1	< 0,001
<i>Edad (años)</i>					
35-44	25,2	26,7	27,1	23,5	< 0,001
45-54	39,6	41,1	43,3	47,7	
55-64	26,4	23,8	24,0	23,6	
65-74	8,7	8,3	5,6	5,2	
<i>Escolaridad</i>					
Primaria incompleta	5,7	2,8	4,5	7,6	< 0,001
Primaria completa	6,4	4,3	5,3	9,4	
Secundaria completa	34,9	28,0	36,7	40,9	
Universidad/posgraduación	52,9	64,9	53,4	42,2	
<i>Situación conyugal</i>					
Separado	31,7	33,2	35,2	39,1	< 0,001
Casado	35,8	39,6	37,0	32,9	
Viudo	19,5	12,3	12,2	8,8	
Otro	13,0	15,0	15,6	19,1	
<i>Grupo étnico</i>					
Negros	15,6	12,7	17,3	20,4	< 0,001
Pardos	29,1	24,2	27,9	33,5	
Blancos	51,4	27,9	52,9	43,7	
Asiáticos	2,8	33,5	1,2	1,6	
Indígenas	1,1	28,8	0,7	0,8	
<i>Ingresos</i>					
Bajos	34,1	24,8	33,9	40,6	< 0,001
Medios	33,0	33,1	29,8	31,3	
Altos	32,9	42,2	31,3	28,0	
<i>IMC</i>					
< 24,9	40,8	42,8	36,3	29,8	< 0,001
De 25 a 29,9	37,4	38,2	42,1	47,3	
> 30	21,8	19,0	21,5	22,9	
<i>Tabaquismo</i>					
No fumadores	90,6	88,6	80,1	72,5	< 0,001
Fumadores	9,4	11,5	19,8	27,6	
<i>Uso de alcohol</i>					
Nunca consumió	0	0	0	0	< 0,001
Exusuario	31,9	0	0	0	
Usuario actual	68,1	100	100	100	
<i>Actividad física en el tiempo libre</i>					
Baja	79,8	73,6	74,9	78,4	< 0,001
Moderada	12,8	15,5	13,1	12,5	
Fuerte	8,3	10,9	12,0	9,1	

estudiados (HDL-c y triglicéridos), manteniendo esta relación después del ajuste por variables sociodemográficas y de estilos de vida. Además, se observó que el consumo de cualquier tipo de bebida alcohólica (cerveza, vino y destilados) aumenta significativamente los niveles de HDL-c. Del mismo modo, el

consumo de cerveza y destilados aumenta los triglicéridos a nivel plasmático. Por el contrario, el consumo de vino disminuyó este parámetro (20).

El consumo de alcohol ha sido ampliamente relacionado con el proceso salud-enfermedad y se han encontrado asociaciones con

Tabla II. Caracterización de los participantes según los parámetros lipídicos - ELSA-Brasil (2008-2010)

Variables sociodemográficas	Triglicéridos (mg/dl) Media ± DE	HDL-c (mg/dl) Media ± DE
<i>Edad (años)</i>		
35-44	120,4 ± 75,5 ^l	55,3 ± 14,1 ^l
45-54	133,8 ± 81,9 ^{l,**}	56,7 ± 14,2 ^l
55-64	140,4 ± 81,3 ^{**}	58,8 ± 15,2 ^{**}
65-74	137,2 ± 80,1 ^{**}	59,3 ± 16,4 ^l
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001
<i>Escolaridad</i>		
Primaria incompleta	150,9 ± 98,3 ^l	55,7 ± 15,1 ^l
Primaria completa	146,3 ± 84,3 ^l	55,2 ± 14,6 ^l
Secundaria completa	136,9 ± 84,1 ^l	56,0 ± 14,1 ^l
Universidad/posgraduación	126,0 ± 74,5 ^{**}	58,2 ± 14,9 ^l
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001
<i>Situación conyugal*</i>		
Separado	129,8 ± 76,5	59,2 ± 14,7
Casado	127,7 ± 72,5	60,1 ± 14,4
Viudo	130,7 ± 75,8	59,9 ± 14,1
Otro	128,1 ± 78,2	59,9 ± 14,5
Valor p	0,871	0,373
<i>Grupo étnico</i>		
Negros	124,5 ± 78,7 ^l	58,8 ± 15,0 ^l
Pardos	136,2 ± 81,9 ^l	56,0 ± 14,4 ^l
Blancos	132,2 ± 79,2 ^{l,**}	57,0 ± 14,6 ^{**}
Asiáticos	135,4 ± 84,6 ^{l,l}	60,3 ± 16,1 ^l
Indígenas	145,8 ± 88,4 ^{l,††}	53,8 ± 13,1 ^{l,**}
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001
<i>Ingresos[‡]</i>		
Bajos	139,1 ± 86,7 ^l	55,0 ± 14,0 ^l
Medios	132,5 ± 80,7 ^l	56,9 ± 14,2 ^l
Altos	125,5 ± 72,7 ^{**}	59,3 ± 15,4 ^{**}
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001
<i>IMC</i>		
≤ 24,90	109,3 ± 63,0 ^l	61,1 ± 15,5 ^l
≥ 25-29,91	141,8 ± 84,0 ^l	55,1 ± 14,0 ^l
≥ 30	157,1 ± 90,5 ^{**}	53,2 ± 12,5 ^{**}
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001
<i>Tabaquismo[§]</i>		
No fumadores	28,3 ± 70,2	56,8 ± 13,3
Fumadores	148,2 ± 85,6	55,3 ± 14,7
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001
<i>Uso de alcohol</i>		
Nunca consumió	124,7 ± 74,3 ^l	56,3 ± 14,0 ^l
Exusuuario	131,6 ± 78,8 ^l	54,2 ± 13,7 ^l
Usuario actual	133,7 ± 81,6 ^l	57,8 ± 14,9 ^l
Valor p	0,871	0,373
<i>Actividad física en el tiempo libre[‡]</i>		
Baja	134,8 ± 82,2 ^l	56,7 ± 14,5 ^l
Moderada	127,8 ± 75,4 ^l	58,3 ± 15,3 ^l
Fuerte	117,2 ± 68,0 ^{**}	59,1 ± 15,1 ^l
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001

Test ANOVA; n = *12.049; †12.135; ‡11.997. §Test t. Los símbolos iguales no difieren estadísticamente.

Tabla III. Caracterización del consumo de bebidas alcohólicas, según parámetros lipídicos, ELSA-Brasil (2008-2010)

Dosis/semana	Triglicéridos (mg/dl) Media $\pm$ DE	HDL-c (mg/dl) Media $\pm$ DE
Cerveza		
No consume	124,8 $\pm$ 73,3*	57,0 $\pm$ 14,5*
1-7	123,1 $\pm$ 70,1*	58,3 $\pm$ 15,4†
7-14	142,4 $\pm$ 80,8†	56,7 $\pm$ 14,9*
> 14	171,4 $\pm$ 81,2 ^c	56,2 $\pm$ 14,7*
Valor p	< 0,001	< 0,001
Vino		
No consume	133,2 $\pm$ 81,4	56,6 $\pm$ 14,5*
1-7	128,1 $\pm$ 73,2	57,6 $\pm$ 14,1*†
7-14	131,5 $\pm$ 78,1	58,3 $\pm$ 15,2†
> 14	128,7 $\pm$ 78,4	59,8 $\pm$ 16,1†
Valor p	0,149	< 0,001
Destilados		
No consume	130,1 $\pm$ 78,2*	57,1 $\pm$ 14,6
1-7	137,2 $\pm$ 81,6*†	56,3 $\pm$ 14,9
7-14	148,8 $\pm$ 83,0†	56,3 $\pm$ 14,6
> 14	169,3 $\pm$ 88,0†	58,5 $\pm$ 16,4
Valor p	< 0,001	0,093

Test ANOVA. Los símbolos iguales no difieren estadísticamente.

enfermedades cardiovasculares (21), hipertensión (22), diabetes (23), síndrome metabólico (34) y dislipidemias (9).

La asociación más relatada dentro de la literatura se da entre el consumo de alcohol y la enfermedad cardiovascular. Los metaanálisis evidencian que el consumo moderado ejerce un efecto protector, explicado por la presencia de una curva en J, y no un efecto lineal (24). Del mismo modo, en pacientes diagnosticados con enfermedad cardiovascular se observó que el consumo de cerveza o vino fue significativamente asociado a menor incidencia de muerte por enfermedades cardiovasculares y muertes por todas las causas, sin que se hallara esta asociación para destilados (25). De esta manera, y reafirmando los anteriores hallazgos, un estudio encontró un efecto protector en participantes que consumen bebidas alcohólicas; no se halló este efecto para abstemios ni bebedores habituales. Además, se relata que los bebedores ocasionales tienen mayor riesgo de enfermedad cardiovascular (21).

La relación entre el consumo de alcohol y el perfil lipídico aún es controvertida, ya que no existe un consenso o punto de corte para estimar la cantidad o el tipo de bebida que puede traer efectos beneficiosos o perjudiciales para la salud. Por esa razón se han desarrollado estudios estratificando los tipos de bebidas alcohólicas con el fin de investigar su asociación específica con los parámetros bioquímicos (20). Tanto es así, que cuando

analizado este efecto en relación a lipoproteínas plasmáticas, se encuentra que el consumo de vino, cerveza y destilados en hombres y mujeres aumenta significativamente los niveles de HDL-c y solo en mujeres se observó que el consumo de vino aumentó los niveles de triglicéridos (33).

Se ha demostrado que el consumo moderado de cerveza aumenta significativamente los niveles plasmáticos de HDL-c y en periodos de abstinencia del consumo este parámetro lipídico disminuye significativamente (10,26). Ese fenómeno se explica por una acción conjunta entre el componente alcohólico de la cerveza y la cantidad de antioxidantes (polifenoles). Ese contenido de antioxidantes disminuye las moléculas de aducción de leucocitos y los marcadores inflamatorios relacionados con la aterosclerosis y aumenta notablemente el HDL-c y sus subpartículas (27).

Nuestros resultados confirman la relación existente entre el consumo de vino y el HDL-c y los triglicéridos, coincidiendo con lo encontrado por Tolstrup y cols. En ese estudio se afirma que el bajo consumo de vino disminuye los triglicéridos a nivel plasmático (28). Por el contrario, las concentraciones plasmáticas de HDL-c aumentan dependientes del consumo de vino (29), datos que reafirman nuestros hallazgos.

Los efectos positivos del consumo de vino con los parámetros lipídicos están atribuidos principalmente a los componentes intrínsecos de esa bebida alcohólica, como los polifenoles y el resveratrol (30), los cuales exhiben propiedades antiinflamatorias y antioxidantes. De esa forma, contribuyen a la reducción de los efectos nocivos para la salud, principalmente en el desarrollo de aterosclerosis (31). Se ha demostrado que esos efectos son mayores con vino tinto en comparación con el blanco, teniendo en cuenta que hay mayor concentración de antioxidantes en el vino tinto (32).

Además de los beneficios mencionados anteriormente, se han reportado otros efectos bioquímicos, como los producidos por el malonil aldehído en la biosíntesis de ácidos grasos. Otro efecto esta relacionado con la mejoría en la actividad de la superóxido dismutasa, coenzima que protege a las células del estrés oxidativo y bajos niveles de LDL-c (34). Así, esos efectos no pueden ser atribuidos solamente al contenido fenólico de este tipo de bebidas alcohólicas, pues también tienen otros componentes ambientales y comportamentales. Se demuestra que los participantes que consumen mayoritariamente vino tienen un estilo de vida más saludable, en comparación con los consumidores de otro tipo de bebidas alcohólicas (35).

Al analizar la cantidad del consumo de bebidas alcohólicas, el consumo excesivo ha demostrado un aumento significativo en los niveles de colesterol total, mientras que no se encontraron otras asociaciones para parámetros lipídicos (33). Reforzando esos hallazgos, estudios de casos y controles afirman que el consumo moderado de alcohol aumenta significativamente los niveles de HDL-c y el consumo excesivo aumenta los niveles de colesterol total (36).

Estudios epidemiológicos también discuten el rol de cada bebida alcohólica en relación con los parámetros lipídicos. Así pues, se ha encontrado que todas las bebidas alcohólicas aumentan el HDL-c en una asociación directa, mientras que, por el contrario,

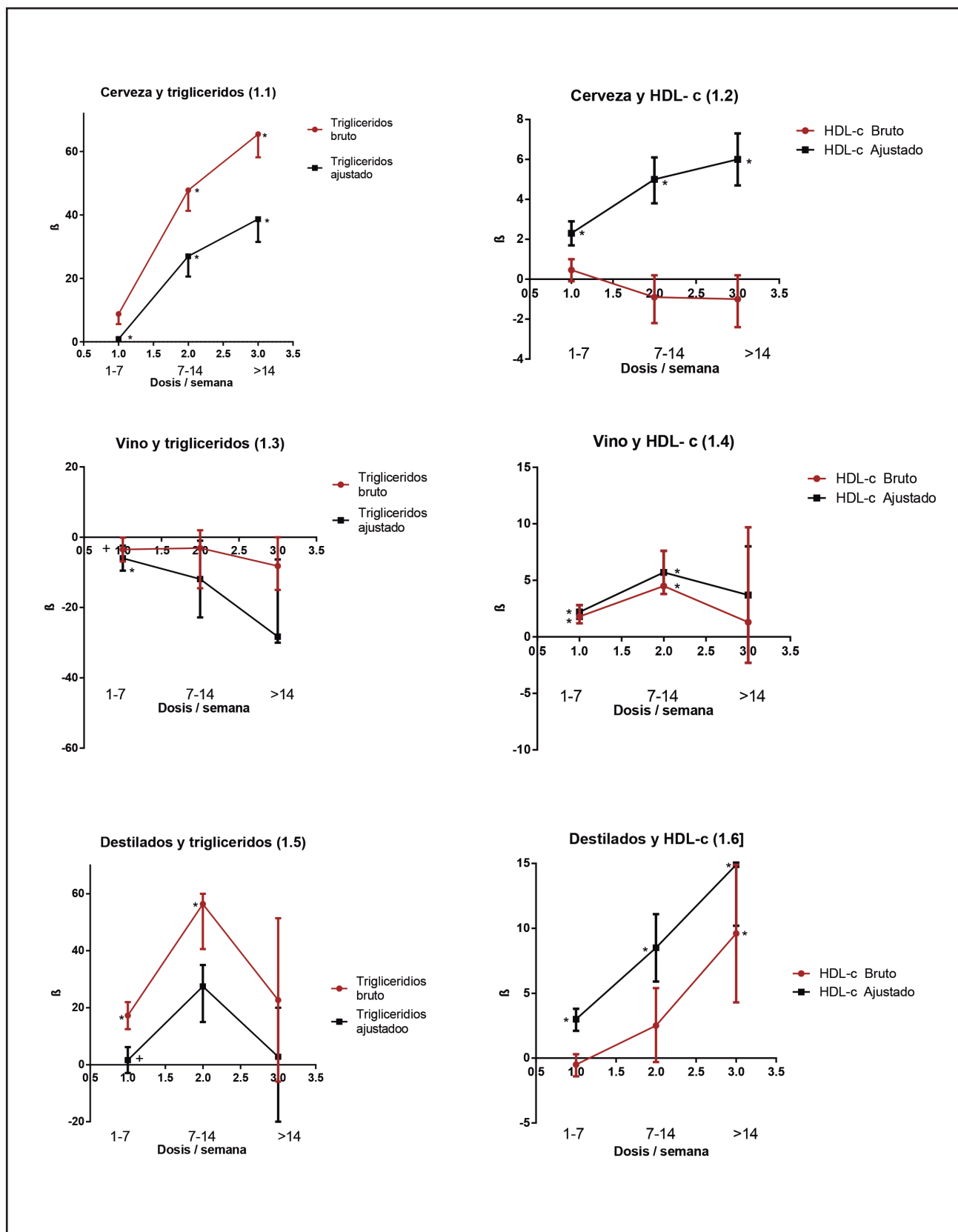


Figura 1.

Tipos de bebida alcohólica y parámetros lipídicos. * > 0,001. + > 0,05

se demuestra que el consumo de vino disminuye los triglicéridos, lo cual reafirma los resultados de nuestro estudio (37).

Sin embargo, los niveles séricos de HDL-c altos no siempre han demostrado beneficios para la salud cardiovascular. El HDL-c superior al percentil 90 (hiperalfalipoproteinemia) está relacionado con mayor incidencia de eventos cardiovasculares (38). Los individuos adultos con hiperalfalipoproteinemia y enfermedad cardiovascular presentan una inhibición de la proteína de transferencia del colesterol éster (CETP) relacionada con el metabolismo del HDL-c, lo que se traduce en un aumento de la placa aterosclerótica e incidencia de eventos cardiovasculares (39).

En la misma población de nuestro estudio ELSA-Brasil fueron analizados participantes con hiperalfalipoproteinemia y su asociación con grosor de la íntima-media de la carótida, denominada como estándar para el estudio de enfermedad cardiovascular. Se halló que presentar niveles de HDL-c superiores al percentil 90 no respalda un fenotipo pro aterogénico (40).

Algunas limitaciones de este trabajo merecen atención. El diseño transversal limita la atribución de una relación causal y ELSA-Brasil representa un grupo específico de la población brasileña, razón por la cual se buscó heterogeneidad en la población en seis estados diferentes de Brasil. Las muestras biológicas fueron recogidas una sola vez, pero la determinación de HDL-c y triglicéridos presenta una buena precisión diagnóstica. Por otro lado, en el ELSA-Brasil todos los procesos de recolección, almacenamiento y transporte de material biológico fueron estandarizados. No hubo pérdida de daño biológico y ninguna muestra tuvo que ser descartada.

CONCLUSION

Nuestros resultados coinciden con estudios previos de asociación de consumo de alcohol y evidencian que, independientemente del tipo de bebida alcohólica (cerveza, vino, destilados), se observa un aumento del HDL-c. Además, el HDL-c aumentó sus niveles plasmáticos directamente con el consumo de todos los tipos de bebida alcohólica. Por el contrario, los triglicéridos disminuyen con el consumo de vino.

FINANCIACIÓN

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Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Association of Mediterranean diet and anthropometric measures with quality of life in coronary artery disease patients

Asociación de la dieta mediterránea y las medidas antropométricas con la calidad de vida en pacientes con enfermedad arterial coronaria

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Abstract

Introduction: the Mediterranean diet (MD) and ideal body weight are associated with a reduction in the risk of chronic diseases, but their association with health-related quality of life (HRQL) is not clear.

Objective: the aim of this study was to assess the association between adherence to MD and the HRQL and anthropometric measurements in coronary artery disease patients.

Methods: this cross-sectional study was carried out in 55 women and 84 men who were diagnosed with coronary artery disease by a physician. Anthropometric indices were measured, MD adherence was evaluated with a 14-item questionnaire and the 36-Item Short Form Health Survey (SF-36) was used for HRQL.

Results: mean age in males was 63.0 ± 9.7 years and mean age in females was 63.1 ± 10.1 years. Prevalence of overweight and obesity was 53.5% and 40.5%, respectively, in men and 14.5% and 83.6%, respectively, in women. Adherence to the MD was assessed and the median values were found statistically higher in male patients ($p < 0.05$). A significant positive correlation was found between MD and all physical component summary (PCS, its subscale) and most mental component summary (MCS) (except emotional role, social health subscale) ($p < 0.05$). Inverse significant associations were found between BMI, waist circumference, waist/height ratio, percent of body fat and both PCS and MCS (including most subscales).

Conclusion: adoption of healthy dietary habits (adherence to the Mediterranean diet) by the participants and optimal anthropometric measurements may be considered as a possible contributor to HRQL.

Key words:

Cardiovascular disease. Mediterranean diet. Mental health. Physical health. Body composition.

Resumen

Introducción: la dieta mediterránea (DM) y el peso corporal ideal se asocian con una reducción en el riesgo de enfermedades crónicas, pero su asociación con la calidad de vida relacionada con la salud (CVRS) no está clara.

Objetivo: el objetivo de este estudio fue evaluar la asociación entre la adherencia a la DM y la CVRS y las mediciones antropométricas en pacientes con enfermedad arterial coronaria.

Métodos: este estudio transversal se llevó a cabo en 55 mujeres y 84 hombres que fueron diagnosticados con enfermedad de las arterias coronarias por un médico. Se midieron los índices antropométricos, se evaluó la adherencia a la DM con un cuestionario de 14 ítems y se utilizó el cuestionario de salud SF-36 para la CVRS.

Resultados: la edad media de los hombres fue de $63,0 \pm 9,7$ y la edad media de las mujeres fue de $63,1 \pm 10,1$. La prevalencia de sobrepeso y obesidad fue del 53,5% y 40,5%, respectivamente, en hombres y del 14,5% y 83,6%, respectivamente, en mujeres. Se evaluó la adherencia a la DM y los valores de la mediana fueron estadísticamente más altos en los pacientes varones ($p < 0,05$). Se encontró una correlación positiva significativa ($p < 0,05$) entre la DM y el resumen general del componente físico (PCS, subescala) y la mayor parte del resumen del componente mental (MCS), excepto el subpeso emocional y la subescala de salud social. Hubo una correlación negativa entre el IMC, la circunferencia de la cintura, la relación cintura/estatura, el porcentaje de grasa corporal y PCS y MCS (incluida la mayoría de las subescalas).

Conclusión: la adopción de hábitos alimentarios saludables (adherencia a la dieta mediterránea) por parte de los participantes y las mediciones antropométricas óptimas pueden considerarse como un posible contribuyente a la CVRS.

Palabras clave:

Enfermedad cardiovascular. Dieta mediterránea. Salud mental. Salud física. Composición corporal.

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INTRODUCTION

Cardiovascular diseases (CD) are a common cause of mortality and morbidity in the world (1). According to the World Health Organization (WHO) data, an estimated 17.7 million people died from cardiovascular diseases in 2015, representing 31% of all global deaths (2). Evidence shows that dietary and lifestyle factors are the most important determinants of mortality and morbidity among CD (3). Further, unhealthy dietary habits and lifestyles that affect physical and psychosocial health are known as risk factors for the development of life-threatening diseases (4). Several cohort studies have shown that greater adherence to the Mediterranean diet is associated with lower mortality (5,6). Furthermore, few studies have been published about the effect of the diet on the health related quality of life (HRQL) (4,7,8).

Mediterranean diet (MD) has shown a significant beneficial effect on human health over the last 50 years (9). The most common features of the MD include high amount of whole grains, fresh vegetables and fruits, legumes; olive oil as a source of fat; fish, poultry, milk products, eggs and moderate amount of wine and low amount of red meat (10). In a meta-analysis study, greater adherence to the MD was associated with a reduction in metabolic syndrome, type 2 diabetes mellitus (DM), hypertension, heart diseases, systemic and chronic inflammation, risk of cancer and a healthier and a longer life (11-13).

In addition, as the incidence of chronic diseases has increased with globalization, quality of life has been affected negatively (14). The short form of quality of life (SF-36) was reported to be used to evaluate the quality of life as a determinant of medical treatment states and follow-up of the patients (15). There are many studies evaluating the HRQL of participants with cardiovascular diseases and obesity, as well as other chronic diseases (16-18). However, in the literature, there has not been adequate study to evaluate HRQL and Mediterranean diet (4,7,8). The aim of this study was to assess the relationship between MD adherence and HRQL and anthropometric measurements in coronary artery disease patients.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

This cross-sectional study was carried out in 55 females (over 50 years) and 84 males (over 40 years) who were diagnosed with coronary artery disease in Ankara, Turkey. The patients with a history of coroner artery stenosis (diagnosed by coronary angiography imaging by a cardiologist) were included in the study. The data on the patient demographics (educational level, smoking and alcohol use, coronary artery disease history in the family) was collected through face-to-face interviews by the researchers. Participants were excluded if they reported a personal chronic disease (except type 2 diabetes, dyslipidemia and hypertension); pregnant and lactating women and patients with pacemaker were also excluded. The sampling was performed from February to December 2016. The study procedures were approved by the Ethical Commission of the University of Gazi in meeting number 77082166-604.01.02 (on January 13th, 2016) and

were carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki (1989) of the World Medical Association. All participants were informed about the aims of the study and provided a written informed consent.

PROCEDURES

Adherence to the Mediterranean diet

Mediterranean diet was assessed with a 14-item questionnaire of Mediterranean diet adherence, which was developed by Schröder et al. in 2011 (19). Each question was scored either 0 or 1 point. The adherence to MD was evaluated after being diagnosed of CAD.

Health-related quality of life

The most commonly used tool to evaluate HRQL is the SF-36 survey. The assessment is based on the last four weeks of the participants. This questionnaire contains 36 items, which consist of eight multi-items including physical function, physical role, pain, general health, emotional role, mental health, social function and vitality. The first four items are considered in the physical health score and the last four items are considered in the mental health score (20). For each parameter, scores are coded, summed and transformed to a scale from 0 to 100. Higher scores suggest better functioning.

ANTHROPOMETRIC MEASUREMENTS, BODY COMPOSITION AND BIOCHEMICAL MEASUREMENTS

Anthropometric measurements (body weight [kg], height [cm], neck [cm], waist and hip circumference [cm]) and body composition of all participants were measured in accordance with the techniques by the WHO (21). Body composition (lean body mass [kg], percent of body fat and body water [%], fat free mass [kg]) was measured through a Tanita® BC 532N. The body mass index (BMI) was calculated through the following formula: $BMI = \text{body weight (kg)} / \text{height (m}^2\text{)}$. Waist/hip and waist/height ratios were also calculated. The BMI values of the participants were classified into three categories according to WHO classification: underweight ($<18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$), normal weight or healthy ($18.5\text{--}24.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$), overweight ($25.0\text{--}29.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$), and obese ($\geq 30.0 \text{ kg/m}^2$) (25).

Routine biochemical parameters, serum lipid profiles (total cholesterol, LDL, HDL, triglycerides) and fasting blood glucose levels of the participants during the last three months were recorded from the hospital records retrospectively.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 22.0 (Chicago, IL) software. The variables were investigated using visual and analytical methods (Shapiro-Wilk test) to determine whether or not they were

normally distributed. Descriptive values were given as number (n), percent (%), mean ($\bar{x}$), standard deviation (SD), median and interquartile range (IQR). The continuous variables were not normally distributed (non-parametric tests) and the Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare means. Non-parametric Spearman's rank correlation analysis was performed to determine the relationship between numerical variables. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered to show a statistically significant result.

RESULTS

The present study included 139 participants, whose mean age was 63.0 ± 9.7 years for males and 63.1 ± 10.1 years for females. Diabetes, dyslipidemia and hypertension incidences were lower in male participants (39.3%, 44.0% and 64.3%, respectively) than in female participants (69.1%, 63.6% and 81.8%, respectively) ($p < 0.05$). Also, 22.6% of all the male participants were smokers *versus* 5.5% of female participants. An educational level longer than eight years was found in 59.5% of male participants and in 10.9% of female participants. Both smoking habits and educational levels were statistically significant according to gender ($p < 0.05$) (data not shown).

Anthropometric measurements and body compositions of participants by gender are given in table I. According to BMI classification, 6.0%, 53.5% and 40.5% of male participants were normal, overweight and obese, respectively; whereas 1.8%, 14.5% and 83.6% of female participants were normal, overweight and obese, respectively (data not shown).

Some biochemical parameters and the MD adherence of participants by gender are shown in table II. Fasting blood glucose, HDL and total cholesterol levels of female participants were found statistically higher than those of male participants ($p < 0.05$). Adherence to the MD was assessed and the median values were found statistically higher in male participants ($p < 0.05$) (Table II).

Physical component summaries (PCS), mental component summaries (MCS) and the subscales of SF-36 of participants by gender subscale are shown in table III. The median values of the component summaries (PCS, MCS), PF, PR, Pain, GH, ER, MH, SH and vitality in the male participants were significantly higher than the female participants ($p < 0.05$).

The correlation between component summaries (physical, mental) and the subscales of the SF-36, adherence to the MD scores and anthropometric measurements-body composition was presented in table IV.

With regard to PCS and antropometric measurements-body composition were not correlated between the groups both male and female (except: waist/height ratio and PCS were correlated in female). In male, PF was found negatively correlated with waist circumference and waist/height ratio. In female, the negative association between the PR and BMI, in addition, pain and waist/height ratio were found. Generally, among subscales of SF-36 and antropometric measurements-body composition significant correlation were found as a unique sample not dividing according to gender. The association between PCS scores, its subscales (except GH and FR), MCS of the participants and waist circumference (cm), BMI (kg/m^2), waist/height ratio and body fat (%) were found negative, whereas a positive significant correlation was found between the aforesaid scores and percent of body water, as well as the fat free mass (kg) ($p < 0.05$) for all participants. A negative correlations were found between ER and waist/height ratio, percent of body fat. MH were negative correlated with BMI, waist/height ratio, percent of body fat ($p < 0.05$). A significant negative correlations were found between SH and waist circumference, BMI, percent of body fat. Vitality scores were negatively correlated with waist circumference, BMI, waist/height ratio and percent of body fat; positively correlated with fat free mass.

When anthropometric measurements were assessed by age, gender and educational level, considered to affect the physical

Table I. Anthropometric measurements and body compositions of participants by gender

Anthropometric measurements	Male (n: 84)		Female (n: 55)	
	$\bar{x} \pm S$	Median (IQR)	$\bar{x} \pm S$	Median (IQR)
Height (cm)	166.8 ± 5.8	166.0 (7.0)	151.8 ± 5.2	152.0 (7.0)
Body weight (kg)	83.3 ± 13.1	81.3 (15.9)	81.5 ± 13.4	80.7 (18.6)
Waist circumference (cm)	103.9 ± 9.9	103.0 (13.8)	107.8 ± 30.0	107.5 (18.6)
Hip circumference (cm)	107.5 ± 8.3	106.0 (9.0)	118.3 ± 10.9	118.0 (19.0)
Neck circumference (cm)	41.5 ± 2.8	42.0 (4.3)	38.1 ± 3.6	38.0 (4.5)
Waist/ height ratio	0.62 ± 0.08	0.62 (0.07)	0.71 ± 0.08	0.70 (0.12)
BMI (kg/m^2)	29.9 ± 4.3	29.0 (5.0)	28.3 ± 5.3	34.7 (9.2)
Waist/hip ratio	0.97 ± 0.06	0.96 (0.09)	0.91 ± 0.06	0.92 (0.09)
Body Fat (%)	28.7 ± 6.8	29.2 (7.1)	41.7 ± 6.5	42.5 (7.5)
Body Water (%)	51.0 ± 5.1	50.4 (3.9)	41.3 ± 4.1	40.6 (4.8)
Fat free mass (kg)	55.9 ± 6.3	54.8 (8.3)	44.5 ± 5.1	44.0 (5.8)

BMI: body mass index; IQR: interquartile range.

Table II. Adherence to the Mediterranean dieg

Biochemical parameters	Male (n: 84)		Female (n: 55)		p Value
	$\bar{x} \pm S$	Median (IQR)	$\bar{x} \pm S$	Median (IQR)	
Adherence to the MD (0 to 14 points)	7.4 $\pm$ 1.7	7.0 (3.0)	6.8 $\pm$ 1.4	7.0 (2.0)	0.021*
Fasting blood glucose (mg/dL)	114.7 $\pm$ 44.7	104.5 (34.4)	143.7 $\pm$ 69.2	124.0 (55.0)	0.001*
HDL (mg/dL)	43.1 $\pm$ 11.4	42.6 (10.8)	49.1 $\pm$ 15.8	46.5 (14.6)	0.006*
LDL (mg/dL)	110.4 $\pm$ 47.6	104.0 (50.9)	120.9 $\pm$ 43.8	120.9 (63.0)	0.051
Total cholesterol (mg/dL)	179.5 $\pm$ 48.1	178.2 (58.1)	202.8 $\pm$ 51.1	202.8 (69.7)	0.003*
Triglyceride (mg/dL)	158.9 $\pm$ 114.9	143.7 (83.9)	176.6 $\pm$ 90.8	169.6 (69.7)	0.071
VLDL (mg/dL)	31.7 $\pm$ 23.0	28.8 (15.6)	34.2 $\pm$ 16.7	33.9 (19.8)	0.087

IQR: interquartile range; MD: Mediterranean diet; HDL: high density lipoprotein; LDL: low density lipoprotein; VLDL: very low density lipoprotein. *Significance was calculated with the Mann-Whitney U test for ordinary data analyses participants according to gender expressed median. $p < 0.05$.

Table III. Physical component summaries (PCS), mental component summaries (MCS) and the subscales of SF-36 participants

Components of SF-36	Male (n: 84)		Female (n: 55)		p Value
	$\bar{x} \pm S$	Median (IQR)	$\bar{x} \pm S$	Median (IQR)	
PCS	59.8 $\pm$ 18.1	62.2 (27.8)	36.1 $\pm$ 16.7	31.9 (18.1)	< 0.001 ^a
PF	72.56 $\pm$ 22.18	75.0 (30.0)	39.64 $\pm$ 24.28	35.0 (35.0)	< 0.001 ^a
PR	31.25 $\pm$ 20.58	37.5 (37.5)	12.50 $\pm$ 18.00	0.0 (25.0)	< 0.001 ^a
Pain	72.71 $\pm$ 26.01	77.5 (45.0)	44.00 $\pm$ 26.18	42.5 (45.0)	< 0.001 ^a
GH	62.50 $\pm$ 24.29	70.0 (33.8)	48.27 $\pm$ 23.00	50.0 (45.0)	< 0.001 ^a
MCS	58.9 $\pm$ 17.3	61.5 (27.2)	39.3 $\pm$ 17.80	45.1 (23.5)	< 0.001 ^a
ER	27.38 $\pm$ 17.48	33.3 (29.2)	19.70 $\pm$ 16.10	16.7 (33.3)	0.010 ^c
MH	68.95 $\pm$ 20.44	76.0 (28.0)	53.16 $\pm$ 25.68	60.0 (40.0)	< 0.001 ^a
SH	78.57 $\pm$ 22.76	87.5 (37.5)	65.68 $\pm$ 28.99	75.0 (50.0)	0.010 ^c
Vitality	60.71 $\pm$ 24.50	62.5 (35.0)	37.91 $\pm$ 23.78	35.0 (30.0)	< 0.001 ^a

IQR: interquartile range; ER: emotional role; GH: general health; MCS: mental component summary; MH: mental health; PCS: physical component summary; PF: physical function; PR: physical role; SH: social health. *Significance was calculated with Mann-Whitney U test for ordinary data analyses of the participants according to gender. p -value: ^a< 0.001; ^b< 0.01; ^c< 0.05.

Table IV. The correlation between component summaries (physical, mental) and the subscales of the SF-36, adherence to the MD scores and anthropometric measurements-body composition

Gender	Parameters	PCS (r)	PF(r)	PR (r)	Pain (r)	GH (r)	MCS (r)	ER (r)	MH (r)	SH (r)	Vitality (r)	MD (r)
Male	Waist circumference (cm)	-0.167	-0.233 ^c	-0.098	-0.091	-0.171	-0.146	-0.096	-0.101	-0.148	-0.192	-0.082
	BMI (kg/m ²)	-0.028	-0.070	-0.007	0.010	-0.036	-0.078	0.008	-0.115	-0.039	-0.146	-0.068
	Waist/height	-0.184	-0.225 ^c	-0.157	-0.069	-0.205	-0.144	-0.109	-0.136	-0.105	-0.178	-0.064
	Body fat (%)	-0.003	-0.082	-0.017	0.097	-0.056	-0.045	0.061	-0.107	0.033	-0.145	-0.059
	Fat free mass (kg)	-0.001	-0.004	0.090	-0.118	0.039	-0.119	-0.021	-0.060	-0.186	-0.136	-0.094
Female	Waist circumference (cm)	-0.234	-0.129	-0.210	-0.259	-0.105	-0.049	-0.034	0.028	-0.085	-0.058	-0.044
	BMI (kg/m ²)	-0.266	-0.129	-0.331 ^c	-0.215	-0.124	-0.086	-0.105	0.097	-0.154	-0.114	-0.087
	Waist/height	-0.286 ^c	-0.226	-0.186	-0.350 ^b	-0.080	-0.099	-0.077	-0.005	-0.112	-0.114	-0.103
	Body fat (%)	-0.057	0.062	-0.260	-0.084	0.005	0.034	-0.171	0.265	-0.116	0.082	0.078
	Fat free mass (kg)	-0.184	0.005	-0.217	-0.058	-0.187	-0.054	0.052	-0.014	-0.101	-0.064	0.002
Total	Waist circumference (cm)	-0.232 ^b	-0.230 ^b	-0.158	-0.205 ^c	-0.185 ^c	-0.171 ^c	-0.120	-0.096	-0.168 ^c	-0.181 ^c	-0.098
	BMI (kg/m ²)	-0.346 ^a	-0.340 ^a	-0.289 ^a	-0.297 ^a	-0.194 ^c	-0.271 ^a	-0.161	-0.190 ^c	-0.172 ^c	-0.324 ^a	-0.154
	Waist/height	-0.442 ^a	-0.440 ^a	-0.335 ^a	-0.386 ^a	-0.290 ^a	-0.330 ^a	-0.227 ^b	-0.249 ^b	-0.216 ^b	-0.361 ^a	-0.169 ^c
	Body fat (%)	-0.375 ^a	-0.392 ^a	-0.343 ^a	-0.297 ^a	-0.215 ^b	-0.271 ^a	-0.172 ^c	-0.190 ^c	-0.146	-0.337 ^a	-0.142
	Fat free mass (kg)	0.362 ^a	0.396 ^a	0.320 ^a	0.285 ^a	0.189 ^c	0.214 ^b	0.166	0.185 ^c	0.076	0.243 ^b	0.097

BMI: body mass index; PCS: physical component summary; PF: physical function; PR: physical role; GH: general health; MCS: mental component summary; ER: emotional role; MH: mental health; SH: social health; MD: Mediterranean diet. The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient test was performed. p -value: ^a< 0.001; ^b< 0.01; ^c< 0.05.

Table V. Association between adherence to the MD and SF-36

SF-36	Adherence to the MD					
	Male		Female		Total	
	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value
PCS	0.182	0.098	0.241	0.077	0.286	0.001 ^a
PF	0.101	0.361	0.318	0.018 ^c	0.261	0.002 ^b
PR	0.108	0.329	0.124	0.366	0.196	0.021 ^c
Pain	0.206	0.060	0.040	0.772	0.237	0.005 ^b
GH	0.156	0.158	0.151	0.270	0.214	0.011 ^c
MCS	0.168	0.018	0.128	0.350	0.216	0.011 ^c
ER	0.018	0.160	-0.029	0.835	0.054	0.525
MH	0.160	0.146	0.269	0.047	0.250	0.003 ^b
SH	0.167	0.128	0.008	0.956	0.144	0.091
Vitality	0.155	0.159	0.139	0.312	0.208	0.014 ^c

PCS: physical component summary; PF: physical function; PR: physical role; GH: general health; MCS: mental component summary; ER: emotional role; MH: mental health; SH: social health. *The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient test was performed. p-value: ^a< 0.001; ^b< 0.01; ^c< 0.05.

component summary, the R^2 value of the model was 0.46 and it was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

The physical health score was found lower especially in female participants ($\beta = -0.504$), low educated participants ($\beta = 0.287$) and the participants with higher neck circumference ($\beta = -0.193$). No correlation was found between HRQL of the participants and biochemical parameters ($p > 0.05$) (data not shown).

The association between adherence to the MD and SF-36 was shown in table V. In terms of gender, the relationship between physical function and adherence to the MD were found only in female participants ($r = 0.261$; $p = 0.018$). Adherence to the MD of the participants was positively correlated with PCS (all subscales) and most MCS (except emotional role, social health subscales) ($p < 0.05$). However, no gender-based association was found ($p > 0.05$). No statistical association was found between adherence to the MD and biochemical parameters either based on gender or not ($p > 0.05$) (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

The relationship between MD and HRQL in the literature has generally been examined in epidemiological studies. However, adherence to the MD can be associated with survival and mortality. Therefore, in this study, the effect of MD on HRQL was examined in patients diagnosed with coronary artery disease.

The MD, in particular, is associated with a reduction in the risk of developing cardiovascular diseases (22). A systematic review reported that MD reduces the risk of cardiovascular disease by 8% to 45% in patients with acute myocardial infarction (23). Another study associated each one-point increase in adherence to the MD with a reduction in myocardial infarction risk by 18% (24). In a study conducted in 110 individuals with cardiovascular disease, the mean score of adherence to the MD was 9.3 (25). In our study, the median value of adherence to the MD score was lower than the aforesaid value by 7.0, both in male and female participants; however, adherence of male individuals was higher ($p < 0.05$). Although

adherence to the MD is generally low, a study conducted in Turkey indicates similar results with this study, with higher adherence to the MD in male individuals (21%) than in female individuals (19%) (26).

To the best of our knowledge, the present study was the first to investigate the associations between adherence to Mediterranean diet (MD), HRQL and anthropometric measurements in the patients with coronary artery disease. One of the key findings of the present study is that a direct linear association was found between adherence to MD and all physical and most mental quality of life. Consistent with this finding, a greater adherence to the MD was associated with better HRQL in cross-sectional studies conducted in Spain and Greece (8,27). Particularly, in a study conducted in Spain (8), a significant direct association was observed between adherence to Mediterranean diet and all the physical and most mental health domains (vitality, social functioning and emotional role). In a Greek study (27), a positive association between adherence to the Mediterranean diet and self-reported mental and physical health status was observed. The association is more obvious for mental than for physical health. By contrast, another study in Spain (28) assessed the association between Mediterranean diet and HRQL in two prospective cohorts of old-age individuals. The UAM-cohort was used to develop an eight-item index of Mediterranean diet (UAM-MDP). The Seniors-ENRICA cohort Mediterranean diet adherence was measured with the PREDIMED score and the Trichopoulou's Mediterranean Diet Score (MSD). In the UAM-cohort, no significant associations between the UAM-MDP and the PCS or the MCS were found. In the Seniors-ENRICA cohort, a higher PREDIMED score was associated with a slightly better PCS. when compared with the lowest tertile of the PREDIMED score. However, the PREDIMED score was non-significantly associated with a better MCS score. The MSD did not show an association with either the PCS or the MCS. The SUN project study concluded that a directly linear association is present between physical-mental health and MD, and this association is particularly stronger in physical health. Thus, the discrepancies between the present study and previous studies in relation to the observed correlations between adherence to MD and HRQL were hypothesized to be due to the consumption of different

food groups, different age groups, population-specific preferences and socioeconomic status. The relation between quality of life and diet was associated with consumption of healthy food or nutrients with lower quantity and mental-physical health. In this study, both low adherence to MD score and the low quality of life scores may explain the correlation between them.

Our study demonstrated that the mean and median value of adherence to the MD score in male was significantly higher (respectively 7.4 ± 1.7 and 7.0 (3.0)) than female (respectively 6.8 ± 1.4 and 7.0 (2.0)) ($p < 0.05$). Although adherence to the MD is generally low, a study conducted in Turkey indicate similar results with this study in terms that higher adherence to the MD in male individuals (21%) than female individuals (19%) (28). Greater adherence to a Mediterranean diet is associated with a significant improvement in health status, as seen by a significant reduction in overall mortality, mortality from cardiovascular diseases (14). A systematic review reported that the MD reduce the risk of cardiovascular disease by 8% to 45% in the patients with acute myocardial infarction (29). Another study associated each increase of one point in adherence to the MD with a reduction in myocardial infarction risk by 18% (30). A study conducted on 110 individuals, aged between 55 and 80 years, who were diagnosed with CAD, the mean score of adherence to the MD (14-items) was found 8.9 (31). Consequently, we can say that little increases adherence to the MD score is a great importance in protection against CAD and quality of life.

Although the effect mechanism remains unclear, another essential component of HRQL is obesity (29). The second objective of this study was to study the association between HRQL and anthropometric measurements-body composition in coronary artery disease patients. In this study, HRQL scores (all subscales) of males were higher than those of females. In females, the higher prevalence of obesity (86%), dyslipidemia, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, median values of some anthropometric measurements (waist circumference, hip circumference, waist to hip circumference, BMI and percentage of body fat) and the lower MD scores can be attributed to the lower HRQL scores in comparison with men. Some studies found a negative association (30) or no association between BMI and mental health scores (31). A meta-analysis study which assessed the BMI and HRQL in adults reported that mental health scores of moderately overweight individuals are significantly higher than those of normal individuals; in addition, third grade obese individuals presented lower mental health scores. The same study found significantly lower physical health scores in individuals with higher BMI values (32). In the PreCIS study, a negative correlation was observed between physical-mental health scores and BMI-waist circumference (15). The majority of the studies associate higher BMI with bad physical function (33). Our data agree with previous findings in that inverse significant associations were found between BMI, waist circumference, waist/height ratio, percent of body fat and both physical and mental health scores (including subscale). Although coronary artery diseases are given as a more important mortality risk for men in the world, the increase in obesity and low educational level negatively affect the physical health components, especially in women, as seen in this study. No correlation was found between HRQL and biochemical parameters ($p > 0.05$). Further, there was no statistical

association between adherence to the MD and biochemical parameters, either based on gender or not ($p > 0.05$) (data not shown). This can be attributed to questioning the short term.

CONCLUSION

In our study, we found that adherence to the MD may be associated with better mental and physical health in the participants with coronary artery disease in Turkish population. Furthermore, a significant association was found between physical and mental health state and anthropometric measurements.

The adoption of healthy dietary habits by the participants is considered as a possible contributor in both improvement of biochemical parameters and achievement of desired results in anthropometric measurements. Moreover, mortality related to coronary artery disease can be significantly reduced in patients highly adhered to MD. Further studies are needed to prove the long term effectiveness of this nutritional regimen in coronary artery disease. The present study outcomes will contribute to new evidence for the health benefits of the MD and may encourage public health policymakers to promote this dietary pattern.

LIMITATIONS

This study has some limitations. It only includes people who are living in central Anatolia, therefore it does not reflect the whole of Turkey. Consequently, further homogeneous and large studies which represent all society are needed. As the population of this study consisted of young consumers from central Turkey, the results cannot be generalized for all coronary artery disease patients or all ages. Performing the study in a large sample of patients would be useful.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Epidemiología y dietética

Estudio exploratorio del vegetarianismo en restauración colectiva

An exploratory study of vegetarianism in catering establishment

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Resumen

Introducción: el interés por las dietas vegetarianas está en auge, pero siguen existiendo muchas dudas y controversia al respecto. Temas como sus posibles deficiencias nutricionales, o si son adecuadas o saludables, podrían no ser ampliamente conocidos.

Objetivos: explorar estas dietas, ver el nivel de conocimiento que existe sobre ellas y analizar y mejorar nutricionalmente los menús vegetarianos de un restaurante con opciones vegetarianas.

Métodos: el diseño del estudio fue de tipo descriptivo, transversal y exploratorio. Se entregaron cuestionarios con 17 preguntas y un cuestionario de frecuencia de consumo de alimentos entre los clientes del restaurante. Participaron un total de 155 personas, con un rango de edad de 18-62 años. Se analizaron un total de 30 menús y se hicieron sugerencias para mejorarlos.

Resultados: de la muestra total, 138 personas eran omnívoras, 12 eran vegetarianas y dos, veganas. Más de la mitad de los vegetarianos no sabían que la única suplementación necesaria por defecto es la B12 y el 60% de ellos dijo no suplementarse nunca con ella. Los menús vegetarianos analizados aportaban de media 1.195 kcal y cubrían el 89% de la ingesta recomendada de fibra, el 212% de vitamina C, 30% de calcio y zinc, el 86% de hierro y el 38% de B12. Se observaron niveles insuficientes de vitamina D.

Conclusiones: existe un gran desconocimiento sobre muchos aspectos de las dietas vegetarianas, incluso entre los propios vegetarianos. Informar al público es primordial, tanto para evitar deficiencias nutricionales potencialmente peligrosas (B12), como para atraer a más personas hacia este tipo de dietas, con los beneficios que esto acarrearía. Se observaron niveles muy adecuados de nutrientes en los menús vegetarianos de Foodtopia. Las principales sugerencias de mejora fueron: reducir las calorías totales y la cantidad de aceite de girasol y aumentar la cantidad de legumbres, frutos secos y semillas.

Palabras clave:

Dieta vegetariana.
Dieta vegana.
Vegetarianismo.
Deficiencia. Vitamina B12. Vitamina D.
Nutrición.

Abstract

Introduction: interest in vegetarian diets is rising, however, it remains a very controversial topic, and with many reservations regarding it. Questions like their conceivable nutritional deficiencies, or if they are adequate or healthy, might be widely unknown.

Objectives: exploring vegetarian diets, examining the current level of knowledge about them, and analyzing and improving, from a nutritional standpoint, the vegetarian menus of a restaurant with vegetarian options.

Methods: this study was designed as an exploratory, crossover, descriptive study. Surveys with 17 items and a food frequency questionnaire were given among the customers of the restaurant. A total of 155 people, aged between 18 and 62, took part in it. A total of 30 menus were analyzed, and some suggestions were made in order to improve them.

Results: out of the total sample, 138 people were omnivores, 12 people were vegetarians and two were vegans. More than half of the vegetarians did not know vitamin B12 is the only required supplement by default, and almost 60% of them stated never taking B12 supplements. The vegetarian menus which were analyzed provided a mean of 1,195 kcal, and covered 89% of the requirements of fiber, 212% of vitamin C, 30% of both calcium and zinc, 86% of iron, and 38% of B12.

Conclusion: a great lack of knowledge regarding several aspects of vegetarian diets was found, even among vegetarian themselves. Informing the general public is essential for both avoiding dangerous nutritional deficiencies (like B12), and attracting more people towards this kind of diets, with all the benefits this would provide. In the vegetarian menus of Foodtopia, adequate levels of nutrients were observed. The main suggestions to improve the menus were: reducing the total calories and the amount of sunflower oil, and increasing the amount of legumes, nuts and seeds.

Key words:

Vegetarian diet.
Vegan diet.
Vegetarianism.
Deficiency. Vitamin B12. Vitamin D.
Nutrition.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La International Vegetarian Union (IVU) da la siguiente definición sobre las dietas vegetarianas: “Una dieta de alimentos derivados de plantas, con o sin productos lácteos, huevos y/o miel” (1). Pero dentro de esta definición, nos encontramos un amplio abanico de dietas, con unos niveles de restricción de alimentos, planteamientos o normas diferentes.

Así, encontramos dietas como las ovolactovegetarianas, en las cuales se rechaza todo producto que cause la muerte del animal pero que incluyen productos como huevos y leche, o las veganas, que evitan todo tipo de productos de origen animal.

Las dietas vegetarianas son seguidas por gran cantidad de gente en todo el mundo, sin embargo, los vegetarianos solo representan un pequeño porcentaje de la población total de cada país, aunque hay excepciones como la India, donde una de cada cuatro personas es vegetariana (2). Por otro lado, un 5% de la población de Reino Unido (3) y un 2,8% de los adultos de Estados Unidos son vegetarianos (4). Para hacernos una idea del porcentaje de vegetarianos en España tenemos que recurrir a la Encuesta Nacional de Ingesta Dietética Española (ENIDE), realizada por la AESAN en 2011 (5), en la cual un 1,5% de la población no consumía carne ni pescado, lo que equivaldría a una cifra total de más de 700.000 vegetarianos. Estas cifras parecen “una base bastante sólida”, según expone la Unión Vegetariana Española (UVE) en su página web, aunque asimismo apuntan que existen ciertas limitaciones, como en el caso de las personas que no consideren el atún en lata un pescado o que no consideran el jamón una carne (6).

Mientras que el vegetarianismo está ganando popularidad entre los países más prósperos, el consumo de carne sigue aumentando en otros países que típicamente tenían consumos de carne más bajos, con el mayor incremento en Asia del Este (7). Además, el consumo mundial total de carne ha estado creciendo desde 1997-1999, con una producción de 92×10^6 toneladas/año, y se estima que podría llegar a alcanzar las 376×10^6 toneladas/año en 2030 (8).

La popularidad del vegetarianismo está creciendo especialmente entre jóvenes y mujeres y puede haber muchas razones detrás de este fenómeno. Algunas de las razones por las que la gente sigue estas dietas son la preocupación por el medio ambiente, debido al calentamiento global o la ineficiencia de la producción de carne, problemas éticos respecto al bienestar animal, el miedo a los antibióticos o a las hormonas de crecimiento usadas en la producción de carne o el miedo a enfermedades transmisibles de origen animal, entre otras (9-11).

Las dietas vegetarianas, especialmente cuando son comparadas con la dieta occidental, muestran numerosos beneficios. Los vegetarianos tienen típicamente un índice de masa corporal (IMC) más bajo y un menor riesgo de padecer enfermedades cardiovasculares (ECV), diabetes mellitus tipo 2 y algunos tipos de cáncer (11), lo que revela otras de las razones por las que la gente sigue estas dietas, como la preocupación por la salud o por el peso.

El principal problema de estas dietas, y de cualquiera que limite ciertos alimentos concretos o grupos de alimentos, es que

dejan menos opciones disponibles. Cuantos más grupos estén restringidos en una dieta, más difícil resultará que esta aporte todos los nutrientes esenciales y, por tanto, será más difícil evitar deficiencias nutricionales.

Sin embargo, una dieta vegetariana bien planificada puede ser adecuada para todas las etapas de la vida (11). Los tipos de dietas vegetarianas que cuenten con restricciones más severas serán más difíciles de equilibrar y podrían no ser adecuados en todas las situaciones. Según el tipo de dieta vegetariana del que estemos hablando, ciertos suplementos y alimentos fortificados pueden ser recomendables o incluso necesarios. Otros son necesarios, independientemente del tipo de dieta vegetariana que se siga.

Existen tantas dietas como personas. Que una dieta no presente deficiencias nutricionales dependerá en la mayoría de los casos de cómo esté estructurada esa dieta (alimentos, frecuencia de consumo, etc.), y no tanto del tipo de dieta que sea. Así, que alguien siga una determinada dieta, como podría ser la vegetariana, no nos aporta una cantidad de información suficiente para realizar una valoración nutricional formada.

Aun teniendo esto en cuenta, sí que existen ciertos patrones que parecen observarse en las dietas vegetarianas en términos generales.

Estas dietas tienden a ser altas en hidratos de carbono, fibra dietética, ácidos grasos omega-6, vitaminas C y E, magnesio, ácido fólico, hierro y fitoquímicos, comparadas con las dietas omnívoras.

Por otro lado, estas dietas suelen contener menos calorías, proteínas, grasas saturadas, colesterol, ácidos grasos omega-3 de cadena larga, calcio, vitamina D, vitamina B12, retinol y zinc. El calcio y la vitamina B12 podrían ser particularmente bajos en veganos (12,13).

En todo caso, las dietas vegetarianas pueden ser perfectamente equilibradas. En muchos casos, como ocurre con el zinc o el hierro, existen mecanismos compensatorios que impiden la posibilidad de sufrir una deficiencia nutricional. En otros casos, como en la ausencia de ácidos grasos omega-3 de cadena larga (EPA y DHA), a estos mecanismos compensatorios se podrían sumar ciertos efectos protectores de estas dietas. Por tanto, muchos de los hipotéticos problemas de estas dietas simplemente no se manifiestan.

Los dos nutrientes más problemáticos son la vitamina D y la vitamina B12. Las formas activas de la vitamina B12 no se encuentran en alimentos vegetales (salvo contaminación o fortificación), pero incluso los ovolactovegetarianos, los cuales consumen huevos y leche (que sí contienen formas activas de vitamina B12), tienen un riesgo incrementado de padecer dicha deficiencia. Todos los vegetarianos, independientemente de su dieta, requieren suplementación de B12 o ingesta de alimentos fortificados. Los suplementos de B12 han probado ser efectivos en la prevención y el tratamiento de la deficiencia de esta vitamina, a la vez que son muy económicos (14).

El problema con la vitamina D no es exclusivo de vegetarianos. Se ha estimado que existen más de mil millones de personas alrededor del mundo que son deficientes en vitamina D y que en torno a un 50% de la población podría tener niveles inadecuados

de dicha vitamina (15). Esta deficiencia continúa siendo un problema de salud global e incluso una “epidemia ignorada”, como apuntan algunos investigadores (16).

Las principales fuentes de esta vitamina son los pescados grasos, la leche y la yema de huevo (17). Por tanto, los vegetarianos presentan un riesgo incrementado de padecer esta deficiencia debido a la escasa cantidad de esta vitamina en sus dietas. En todo caso, la luz solar es el factor más importante de cara a tener unos niveles óptimos de vitamina D. Normalmente, un 50-90% de la vitamina D es producida vía exposición a la luz solar, mientras que el resto proviene de la dieta (16). Sin embargo, además de una exposición solar insuficiente, muchos otros factores pueden reducir la síntesis de vitamina D. Las personas que viven en altas latitudes, que son de piel más oscura, que cubren la mayoría de su cuerpo con ropa (por ejemplo, por motivos culturales o religiosos) o que usan protección solar habitualmente son más susceptibles de padecer deficiencia en vitamina D (18). La composición corporal también parece ser de gran importancia en el estado de los niveles de vitamina D. Se ha visto en repetidas ocasiones una correlación inversa entre cantidad de tejido adiposo y los niveles de vitamina D. La explicación más posible parece ser el almacenamiento de dicha vitamina en los adipocitos, lo cual hace que no sea accesible para ser usada por el cuerpo (19,20).

Los vegetarianos, pero especialmente los veganos, en estas situaciones que no consuman alimentos fortificados o suplementos de vitamina D tendrán un riesgo significativamente incrementado de padecer deficiencia en esta vitamina y la suplementación podría ser una opción, aunque sin olvidar que esto afecta a toda la población y no solo a vegetarianos.

El objetivo de este estudio ha sido evaluar y equilibrar nutricionalmente menús vegetarianos en un restaurante y valorar la alimentación, el estado de salud y el conocimiento respecto a dietas vegetarianas de los clientes del local.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

La muestra poblacional se compuso de 155 clientes del restaurante Foodtopía, situado en el Edificio R del Parque Científico de Murcia, carretera de Madrid km 388, código postal 30100, en el Campus Universitario de Espinardo, Murcia.

La recogida de datos se realizó durante los meses de marzo, abril, y principios de mayo de 2017, a través de cuestionarios entregados a los participantes por personal entrenado. Los cuestionarios eran anónimos. El estudio cuenta con la aprobación del Comité de Bioética. Los cuestionarios estaban validados y estaban compuestos por 5 páginas, siendo las 3 primeras una encuesta con 17 preguntas, y las 2 últimas páginas un cuestionario de frecuencia de consumo de alimentos (CFCA). Para la elaboración del cuestionario no se usaron ni se siguieron otros modelos. El cuestionario al completo fue elaborado específicamente para este estudio.

Las preguntas de la encuesta contaban con una parte sobre datos básicos de la persona, preguntas sobre estilo de vida y preguntas acerca de conocimientos generales sobre dietas vegetarianas. El CFCA contaba con 55 ítems y disponía de nueve

opciones para la frecuencia: “nunca”, “1-3 veces al mes”, “1 vez a la semana”, “2-4 veces a la semana”, “5-6 veces a la semana”, “1 vez al día”, “2-3 veces al día”, “4-6 veces al día” y “más de 6 veces al día”.

Por otro lado, se analizaron 30 menús equivalentes a 15 días distintos, una mitad en su versión vegetariana y otra mitad en su versión omnívora. Los menús fueron proporcionados directamente por el cocinero del restaurante, en forma de hojas de producción, con las cantidades totales de cada ingrediente o alimento en la receta. De ahí, los gramos por ración para cada uno de los tres platos (entrante, plato principal y postre) del menú tuvieron que ser calculados. Posteriormente eran introducidos en hojas de Excel para su análisis. Para el análisis se utilizó la Base de Datos Española de Composición de Alimentos (BEDCA), desarrollada por la red BEDCA en colaboración con la Agencia Española de Seguridad Alimentaria y Nutrición (AESAN) (actualmente AECOSAN). Los alimentos que no se encontraban en BEDCA se buscaban en la base de datos de composición de alimentos del Departamento de Agricultura de los Estados Unidos (USDA Food Composition Database).

Las hojas de Excel de los menús también incluían los porcentajes respecto a la ingesta recomendada (IR) de varios nutrientes. Dichas IR fueron calculadas utilizando el documento “*Propuesta de ingestas dietéticas de referencia (IDR) para población española*”, publicado por la Federación Española de Sociedades de Nutrición, Alimentación y Dietética (FESNAD) en 2010 (capítulo 5).

Para el análisis de todos los datos se utilizó el software Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), versión 22 para Windows. Con las encuestas se utilizaron estadísticos descriptivos. Se realizó una ANOVA de un factor con el CFCA entre vegetarianos y omnívoros, incluyendo un test de Scheffe. Las variables con diferencias estadísticamente significativas fueron posteriormente analizadas con estadísticos descriptivos y comparadas entre ambos grupos. Valores de $p < 0,05$ fueron considerados estadísticamente significativos. Los 30 menús fueron analizados con estadísticos descriptivos y posteriormente comparados, usando el tipo de menú (vegetariano u omnívoro) como factor para dicha comparación.

RESULTADOS

La muestra poblacional estuvo constituida por 75 hombres (48,4%) y 80 mujeres (51,6%), con edades comprendidas entre los 18 y los 62 años, con una media de $32,9 \pm 9,9$ años. Respecto a su ocupación, 93 eran trabajadores, 74 eran estudiantes, cinco estaban en paro y uno estaba jubilado/retirado. La distribución respecto a sus dietas fue de 138 omnívoros, 12 vegetarianos y dos veganos. Tres personas no contestaron.

En la tabla I se puede observar la población total del estudio, así como las medidas antropométricas reportadas. El estadístico descriptivo correspondiente a las variables nominales y ordinales se puede observar en tabla II.

La mayoría de encuestados (45,2%) manifestó realizar una comida principal en el local a la semana y un 25,2% dijo consumir entre dos y tres comidas principales a la semana.

Tabla I. Distribución de los universitarios por edad, altura, peso y estilo de vida

Variable	n	Media	Desviación estándar	Varianza
Edad (años)	154	32,87	9,998	99,970
Peso (kilos)	153	68,970	16,9474	287,214
Altura (metros)	154	1,7072	0,09222	0,009
De 0 a 10, sin usar decimales, ¿cómo calificaría su estilo de vida? (0 = nada saludable; 5 = normal; 10 = inmejorable)	154	6,73	1,473	2,170

Tabla II. Test de calidad de la dieta vegetariana y distribución de los universitarios por sexo y hábitos de vida

Pregunta	Opciones	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
Sexo	Masculino	75	48,4
	Femenino	80	51,6
¿A qué se dedica?	Estudiante	74	47,7
	Trabajador	93	60,0
	Jubilado/retirado	1	0,6
	Parado	5	3,2
Respecto a FOODTOPÍA, ¿qué tipo de cliente se considera?	Es mi primera vez	32	20,6
	Esporádico (1 vez a la semana o menos)	71	45,8
	Habitual (2 veces a la semana o más)	29	18,7
	Diario (prácticamente todos los días o varias veces al día)	23	14,8
¿Qué suele consumir en FOODTOPÍA? (Marque todas las que correspondan)	Bebidas, café, etc.	23	14,8
	Tostadas, empanadillas, etc.	12	7,7
	Platos individuales o menú completo (consumido en establecimiento)	121	78,1
	Platos individuales o menú completo (para llevar)	46	29,7
¿Cuántas comidas principales realiza habitualmente en FOODTOPÍA cada semana? (Excluyendo desayunos y contando solo comidas y cenas, tanto consumidas en el establecimiento como para llevar)	Ninguna	21	13,5
	1	70	45,2
	2-3	39	25,2
	4-5	18	11,6
	6-10	7	4,5
¿Por qué razón acude a FOODTOPÍA? (Marque todas las que correspondan)	Precio	103	66,5
	Sabor/calidad	115	74,2
	Preocupación por su salud o su peso	46	29,7
	Cercanía/conveniencia	63	40,6
	Medio ambiente/sostenibilidad	91	58,7
	Bienestar animal	41	26,5
	Por las opciones veganas/vegetarianas	47	30,3
	Otras	15	9,7

(Continúa en la siguiente página)

Tabla II. (Cont.). Test de calidad de la dieta vegetariana y distribución de los universitarios por sexo y hábitos de vida

Pregunta	Opciones	Frecuencia	Porcentaje
¿Seguiría acudiendo a FOODTOPÍA de no ofrecerse alternativas CON carne?	Sí	103	66,5
	Sí, aunque con menor frecuencia	34	21,9
	No	9	5,8
¿Cuánto ejercicio físico realiza?	Ninguno (sedentario)	8	5,2
	Algunas veces al mes	34	21,9
	1-2 veces a la semana	51	32,9
	3-5 veces a la semana	41	26,5
	Prácticamente a diario	20	12,9
¿Con qué frecuencia consume comida rápida? (p. ej., de cadenas tipo McDonald's, Telepizza, etc.)	Nunca	57	36,8
	Algunas veces al mes	79	51,0
	Varias veces a la semana	16	10,3
	A diario	3	1,9
De las siguientes opciones, ¿cuáles consume al menos 1 vez a la semana? (Marque todas las que correspondan)	Cafeína	129	83,2
	Alcohol	78	50,3
	Tabaco	30	19,4
	Otras drogas	5	3,2
¿Cuántas horas duerme al día?	Menos de 6	11	7,1
	Entre 6 y 7	77	49,7
	Entre 7 y 9	65	41,9
	Más de 9	1	0,6
¿Qué tipo de dieta sigue?	Omnívora	138	89,0
	Vegetariana (en cualquiera de sus variantes)	12	7,7
	Vegana/vegetariana estricta (ningún producto de origen animal)	2	1,3
Dietas vegetarianas: siempre es necesario suplementar (Marque todas las que correspondan)	Calcio	25	16,1
	Vitamina D	20	12,9
	Vitamina B12	56	36,1
	Hierro	41	26,5
	Otros	18	11,6
	Ninguno	29	18,7
Dietas vegetarianas: son más saludables que una dieta que incluya carne	Sí	27	17,4
	No	20	12,9
	Depende	87	56,1
Dietas vegetarianas: son normalmente bajas en calorías	Sí	41	26,5
	No	20	12,9
	Depende	71	45,8
Dietas vegetarianas: si están bien planificadas, estas dietas pueden ser aptas para todas las etapas de la vida (infancia, adolescencia, embarazo, lactancia, etc.)	Sí	65	41,9
	No	26	16,8
	Depende	45	29,0

Un 11,6% dijo realizar cuatro o cinco comidas principales a la semana y un 4,5% dijo realizar entre seis y diez comidas semanales. Por otro lado, el 13,5% manifestó no realizar ninguna de sus comidas principales en el restaurante. Los motivos por los que la gente acudía al restaurante pueden observarse en la figura 1.

En el CFCA se vieron diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre vegetarianos (incluidos veganos) y omnívoros en los siguientes ítems: leche, pollo/pavo, otras carnes (vaca, cerdo, etc.), embutidos, pescados azules (salmón, atún, etc.), pescados blancos (merluza, panga, etc.), marisco/moluscos, verduras cocinadas, legumbres (garbanzos, lentejas, etc.), alternativas a la leche (soja, almendra, etc.) y suplementación con vitamina B12. Los primeros siete ítems eran significativamente más consumidos por omnívoros, mientras que sucedía lo opuesto en los cuatro ítems restantes (datos no publicados).

Respecto a los 30 menús analizados, la media de calorías fue de 1.299,08. El menú con el menor valor calórico aportaba 417,30 kcal, mientras que el que tenía el valor más alto aportaba 2.082,7 kcal. De media, los menús aportaban 40 g de proteína, 71,55 g de grasa (de los cuales 26,26 g venían de PUFA y 0,82 g, de ácidos grasos omega-3), 18,89 g de fibra (que equivaldría al 75,56% de la IR), 128,34 mg de vitamina C (207,24% de la IR), 1,47 µg de vitamina D, 2,13 µg de vitamina B12 (89,07% de la IR), 274,6 mg de calcio (27,47% de la IR), 9,48 mg de hierro (94,82% de la IR) y 4,89 mg de zinc (32,6% de la IR).

Estos resultados pueden ser consultados en la tabla III (los porcentajes respecto a la IR han sido omitidos en la tabla).

En la figura 2 se pueden ver las diferencias entre el porcentaje de la IR que cubren de media los menús vegetarianos y los omnívoros respecto a los nutrientes de mayor interés.

DISCUSIÓN

La American Dietetic Association (ADA), actualmente Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (AND), junto a Dietitians of Canada (DC), concluyeron: "Las dietas vegetarianas apropiadamente planeadas han mostrado ser saludables, nutricionalmente adecuadas y beneficiosas en la prevención o tratamiento de ciertas enfermedades. Las dietas vegetarianas son apropiadas para todas las etapas del ciclo vital" (11).

La única suplementación realmente necesaria en cualquier vegetariano es la vitamina B12 (o en su defecto, alimentos enriquecidos). También es frecuente observar otras deficiencias o niveles insuficientes de ciertos nutrientes, como el hierro o la vitamina D. Sin embargo, es necesario resaltar que, si bien la prevalencia de dichas deficiencias es muy elevada, esto sucede en toda la población, y no sólo en vegetarianos, resaltando la idea de lo importante que es una dieta equilibrada, variada y bien estructurada, independientemente del tipo de dieta que sigamos.

Otros muchos nutrientes con niveles de ingesta habitualmente inferiores (o incluso nulos) en vegetarianos comparados con omnívoros, como el zinc o los ácidos grasos EPA y DHA, parecen no tener un efecto negativo observable sobre los vegetarianos, lo que podría deberse al gran poder de adaptación del organismo a diferentes niveles o ingestas, o a ciertos efectos protectores de este tipo de dietas.

En definitiva, los factores a vigilar en estas dietas son similares a los de otras dietas que incluyan productos animales (con la excepción de la B12) y las recomendaciones son similares a las del resto de la población: alto consumo de frutas y verduras, cantidades suficientes de proteína y provenientes de fuentes de calidad, consumo de grasas saludables o evitar el consumo de alcohol y el sedentarismo, entre otras.

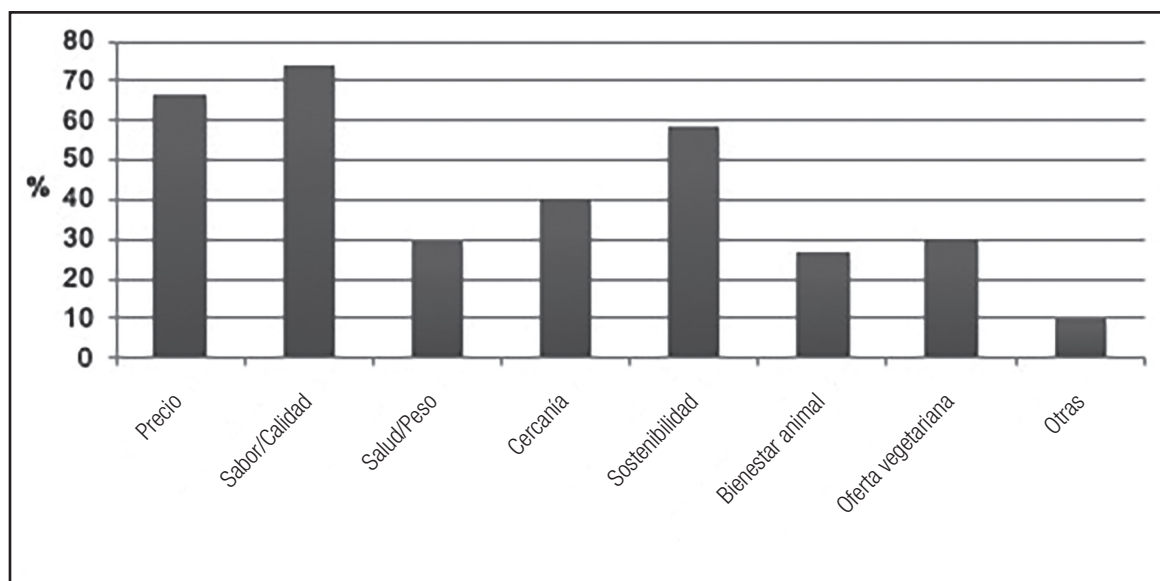


Figura 1.

Distribución de las razones por las que los consumidores asisten al establecimiento de restauración colectiva.

Tabla III. Evaluación nutricional de los menús vegetarianos

Variable	Tipo de menú	n	Media	DE	Mínimo	Máximo
Calorías	Vegetariano	15	1.195,2313	368,14881	417,30	1.868,30
	Omnívoro	15	1.402,9273	328,18236	1.025,41	2.082,70
	Total	30	1.299,0793	358,58213	417,30	2.082,70
Hidratos (g)	Vegetariano	15	117,5130	38,97839	67,70	223,30
	Omnívoro	15	130,0073	27,66381	72,50	161,40
	Total	30	123,7602	33,81248	67,70	223,30
Fibra (g)	Vegetariano	15	22,2913	7,88618	9,80	33,75
	Omnívoro	15	15,5053	5,42527	8,50	27,30
	Total	30	18,8983	7,49282	8,50	33,75
Proteína (g)	Vegetariano	15	32,6573	8,55418	16,40	44,00
	Omnívoro	15	47,4633	13,58469	29,90	72,10
	Total	30	40,0603	13,45770	16,40	72,10
Grasa (g)	Vegetariano	15	65,7707	30,54717	5,60	118,70
	Omnívoro	15	77,3327	33,66926	34,60	137,00
	Total	30	71,5517	32,12963	5,60	137,00
SFA (g)	Vegetariano	15	11,0493	6,29101	0,40	27,00
	Omnívoro	15	15,4453	8,86771	5,00	34,00
	Total	30	13,2473	7,87822	0,40	34,00
MUFA (g)	Vegetariano	15	20,0711	17,96472	1,10	63,80
	Omnívoro	15	24,9513	20,27146	7,40	70,20
	Total	30	22,5112	18,98267	1,10	70,20
PUFA (g)	Vegetariano	15	24,8860	13,11043	2,10	44,10
	Omnívoro	15	27,6413	12,83016	5,40	50,70
	Total	30	26,2637	12,82225	2,10	50,70
Omega-3 (g)	Vegetariano	15	0,9581	1,28872	0,00	5,50
	Omnívoro	15	0,6927	0,29390	0,00	1,10
	Total	30	0,8254	0,92827	0,00	5,50
Vitamina C (mg)	Vegetariano	15	127,0240	47,79688	48,80	224,30
	Omnívoro	15	121,6640	37,57867	53,60	192,10
	Total	30	124,3440	42,33253	48,80	224,30
Vitamina D (µg)	Vegetariano	15	1,3401	1,49892	0,00	5,20
	Omnívoro	15	1,6060	1,58415	0,10	4,90
	Total	30	1,4731	1,52133	0,00	5,20
B12 (µg)	Vegetariano	15	0,9183	0,96333	0,00	3,30
	Omnívoro	15	3,3533	4,46080	0,00	18,60
	Total	30	2,1358	3,40408	0,00	18,60
Folato (µg)	Vegetariano	15	251,3433	91,48949	117,40	429,60
	Omnívoro	15	187,1187	66,32381	94,60	308,80
	Total	30	219,2310	85,03640	94,60	429,60
Calcio (mg)	Vegetariano	15	290,8683	108,35203	152,10	501,60
	Omnívoro	15	258,3327	85,10884	112,60	379,30
	Total	30	274,6005	97,15093	112,60	501,60
Hierro (mg)	Vegetariano	15	8,6052	3,74071	4,00	15,50
	Omnívoro	15	10,3613	5,61089	4,20	19,70
	Total	30	9,4833	4,76980	4,00	19,70
Zinc (mg)	Vegetariano	15	4,5760	1,58605	2,20	7,20
	Omnívoro	15	5,2053	2,15708	2,20	10,60
	Total	30	4,8907	1,88762	2,20	10,60

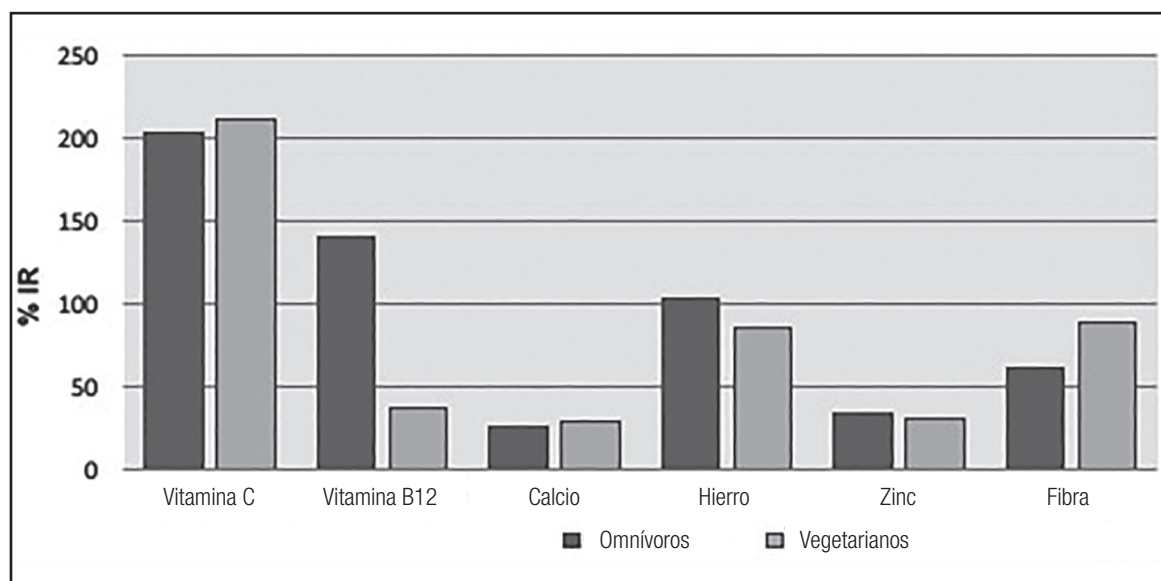


Figura 2.

Diferencias entre el porcentaje de la IR que cubren de media los menús vegetarianos y los omnívoros, respecto a los nutrientes de mayor interés.

Estas recomendaciones siempre tendrían que tener prioridad frente a otros problemas, como las posibles preocupaciones por nutrientes concretos.

No obstante, esto no nos puede hacer olvidar las posibles deficiencias, sobre todo aquellas tan comunes como la de hierro o vitamina D. Como ya ha sido mostrado, las estimaciones respecto a la prevalencia de niveles inadecuados de vitamina D se sitúan en torno al 50% (16). Por tanto, llevar una dieta equilibrada y, además, vigilar las posibles deficiencias de nutrientes son recomendaciones básicas y que deberíamos llevar a la práctica. Pero esto sería de aplicación a la población general, y no solo a vegetarianos o veganos.

En nuestra muestra hay un número de vegetarianos varias veces superior al estimado a nivel nacional por la ENIDE (9% frente a 1,5%) (5). Esto nos lleva a otro dato importante: aun hablando de un local con una clara orientación vegetariana, un 89% de los clientes encuestados no seguía dietas vegetarianas. Esto, sumado a que un 58,7% de los clientes dijo acudir al restaurante por motivos medioambientales y de sostenibilidad, un 26,5% por el bienestar animal y un 30,3% por las opciones vegetarianas/veganos, y sin olvidar que solo un 5,8% dijo que dejaría de acudir al local en el supuesto de que se dejaran de ofrecer alternativas con carne, podría ser un reflejo del incremento en el interés y popularidad que están experimentando las dietas vegetarianas.

La tendencia global entre países desarrollados es la de un aumento en el número de vegetarianos (7) y los resultados de este estudio parecen reforzar esa idea. Sin embargo, a pesar de todo esto, parece existir un gran desconocimiento al respecto de estas opciones dietéticas que, en parte, se refleja en la tabla II.

Cuando los encuestados fueron preguntados sobre la suplementación que era imprescindible en dietas vegetarianas, solo un 36,1% lo supo. La única suplementación que debería ser implementada por defecto en vegetarianos de cualquier tipo es la B12 (y casi dos tercios de los encuestados lo desconocían). Además, muchos de los que eligieron la B12 como suplementación por defecto escogieron al mismo tiempo otras opciones, lo que muestra de nuevo cierto desconocimiento al respecto. Si nos fijamos en los que eligieron exclusivamente la B12, el porcentaje baja del 36,1% al 16,11%.

Puesto en perspectiva, de 155 personas, solo 25 sabían el tipo de suplementación necesaria en una dieta vegetariana, y de esas 25 personas, solo seis eran vegetarianas. Dicho de otra manera: más de la mitad de los vegetarianos y veganos encuestados desconocían la suplementación que debían estar consumiendo.

Cuando fueron preguntados si una dieta vegetariana bien planificada podría ser apta para todas las etapas de la vida, un 16,8% contestó que no y un 29% contestó "depende". Estas dietas (si están bien planificadas) son aptas para todas las etapas de la vida (11), dato que conocía menos de la mitad (un 41,9%) de los encuestados.

Esto nos da una ligera idea del desconocimiento que sigue existiendo respecto a este tipo de opciones dietéticas. De este desconocimiento surgen dos problemas. Por un lado, la gente seguirá teniendo un concepto erróneo de estas dietas y se seguirá pensando que no son adecuadas, que producen deficiencias nutricionales, etc., lo que alejará a potenciales seguidores de estas dietas o a personas interesadas en ellas. Por otro lado, este hecho también hará que los que sigan estas dietas no estén correctamente informados, lo que sí podría causar graves problemas de salud.

Por ejemplo, en la muestra había más vegetarianos que ignoraban la suplementación que deberían estar tomando que vegetarianos que sí lo sabían. Analizando los datos del CFCA (no publicado), vemos que de los 14 vegetarianos, un 57,14% no se suplementaba nunca con vitamina B12 y un 14,3% declaró hacerlo entre una y tres veces al mes. Cabe señalar que no existía una opción para alimentos enriquecidos en B12 en el cuestionario pero, incluso existiendo dicha posibilidad, los vegetarianos que consumen alimentos fortificados en B12 (como soja o cereales) tienen habitualmente niveles inadecuados de esta vitamina (21).

Como hemos podido ver, el desconocimiento en estos temas, como es el caso de la suplementación con B12, podría entrañar graves riesgos. En palabras del doctor Roman Pawlak, experto en vitamina B12, “puesto que la vitamina B12 es esencial para la síntesis de ácidos nucleicos, eritrocitos, y en el mantenimiento de la mielina, su deficiencia puede dar como resultado varios síntomas. Algunos de esos síntomas pueden ser severos mientras que otros pueden ser irreversibles” (22). Esto pone de relieve lo preocupante que es el hecho de que un 57% de vegetarianos de la muestra nunca se suplementara con dicha vitamina.

Es prudente señalar que hablamos de un restaurante con unas características muy concretas, con una clara orientación vegetariana y que se encuentra, además, en un ambiente universitario. Esto hace pensar que los porcentajes de desconocimiento sobre dietas vegetarianas podrían dispararse en otros contextos o a escala nacional.

Del CFCA se desprendió que, aun considerándose vegetarianas, algunas personas sí consumían algunos de estos productos animales. Dos vegetarianos manifestaron consumir pollo/pavo y “otras carnes”, un vegetariano dijo consumir embutidos, otros dos dijeron consumir pescado azul y marisco o moluscos y tres vegetarianos dijeron consumir pescado blanco. Por lo tanto, como mínimo tres de las personas que dijeron ser vegetarianas eran, en el mejor de los casos, semivegetarianas.

Por otro lado, el patrón de consumo de leche entre omnívoros guardaba grandes similitudes con el patrón de consumo de “alternativas a la leche” entre vegetarianos. Esto podría indicar que la leche y sus “alternativas” se ven como productos intercambiables.

Tras el análisis estadístico de menús y su posterior interpretación, se decidieron los siguientes cambios:

- **Calorías:** los menús aportaban de media 1.299 kcal. Se propuso bajar la media de los menús al menos por debajo de las 1.200 kcal o, simplemente, reducir las calorías de los menús con un mayor aporte calórico. El máximo en menús vegetarianos llegaba hasta las 1.868,3 kcal, subiendo hasta las 2.082,7 kcal en el caso del menú omnívoro más calórico. A estas calorías habría que sumar las proporcionadas por el pan (en el caso de ser consumido) y las comidas restantes del día. De ahí la sugerencia de reducirlas.
- **Fibra:** los menús vegetarianos y omnívoros aportaban de media 22,3 y 15,5 gramos respectivamente, equivalente a un 90% y un 60% de la IR. Se sugirió subir ligeramente la fibra en los menús omnívoros, aunque siendo conscientes de que dichos menús ya estarían cubriendo más de la mitad de las recomendaciones diarias de fibra.

- **Grasa:** la media absoluta de grasa por menú era de 72 g. Se sugirió su reducción, dando prioridad a este respecto a otros cambios. La reducción propuesta fue del 50% aproximadamente, pero alcanzar esa cifra dependerá finalmente de la aceptabilidad de los nuevos menús por los clientes. Además, esta era la forma más sencilla de reducir calorías en los menús.
- **PUFA:** la media total era de 26 g y se trataba prácticamente en su totalidad de omega-6, concretamente, LA procedente del aceite de girasol. Esto tiene un problema añadido en vegetarianos. El LA compite por la misma vía de metabolización que el ALA, reduciendo la conversión de este último a EPA y DHA. Hay cierta evidencia de que una reducción en el consumo de LA podría aumentar potencialmente la conversión de ALA en EPA y DHA (23).
- **Omega-3:** la media total fue de 0,8 g por menú. Las recomendaciones de la FESNAD se encuentran en 1-1,5 g de ALA por día, por lo que los menús estarían cubriendo de media entre un 53 y un 80% de la IR para este AG. En todo caso, subir la cantidad de ALA podría ser especialmente interesante. Junto a lo visto en el apartado anterior (la reducción de LA), el aumento de ALA también podría incrementar la conversión a EPA y DHA (23).
A esto hay que añadir que, en general, nuestro consumo de omega-3 es bajo y el de omega-6 es demasiado elevado. Como apunta la Fundación Española de la Nutrición (FEN) (24), “la relación omega-6/omega-3 (ω -6/ ω -3) sigue encontrándose desplazada, al igual que en los años anteriores, hacia los omega 6, lo que podría condicionar los potenciales efectos beneficiosos de los ácidos grasos omega 3”.
- **Vitamina C:** ambos tipos de menús aportan, de media, por encima de los 120 mg de vitamina C (el 200% de la IR), aunque hay que contar con las posibles pérdidas en el cocinado, que podrían alcanzar el 60% (25).
- **Calcio:** los menús aportaban de media 270 mg (27% de la IR). Se sugirió intentar subir el aporte ligeramente. En general, los métodos de cocinado, al igual que otras técnicas como la fermentación o el germinado (las cuales están siendo utilizadas por el restaurante), aumentan la biodisponibilidad del calcio proveniente de fuentes vegetales.
- **Hierro:** los menús vegetarianos cubrían de media un 86,1% de la IR (los omnívoros aún más). A esto hay que sumar las grandes cantidades de vitamina C, que aumenta la biodisponibilidad del hierro no-hemo (26). Los diferentes métodos de cocinado aumentan la biodisponibilidad del hierro no-hemo, igual que ocurre con el calcio. Por tanto, son valores muy adecuados.
- **Zinc:** los menús aportaban de media un 32% de la IR. La vitamina C mejora su biodisponibilidad y hay cierta adaptación del cuerpo a dietas con menores cantidades de zinc. Traducido a alimentos, los cambios propuestos fueron:
- **Aceite de girasol:** se sugirió reducir el contenido de los menús en un 50%. Esto tendría el doble efecto de eliminar una parte significativa de kcal y reducir la cantidad de LA.

- *Frutos secos y semillas*: añadiendo más frutos secos se conseguiría aumentar el contenido de ALA de los menús, además de subir el calcio, el hierro, el zinc y la fibra. Además, aumentarían las proteínas y mejoraría el perfil de aminoácidos en menús veganos. El principal problema encontrado fue el precio, por lo que se sugirió buscar un fruto seco asequible. Las semillas tienen propiedades similares a los frutos secos. Se sugirió buscar una semilla asequible e incluirla en los menús. Se hizo especial énfasis en que esa semilla aportara ALA. En caso de aportar mucho LA (semillas de girasol), mejor no incluirla.
- *Legumbres*: se recomendó aumentar ligeramente el contenido en este grupo de alimentos. Son la principal fuente de proteínas vegetales y, además, tienen fibra y minerales como calcio, hierro o zinc. Se hizo hincapié en las judías, por su mayor contenido en calcio.
- *Azúcar*: se sugirió sustituir el azúcar por edulcorantes (siempre que sea posible). El efecto más notable sería la reducción de calorías, especialmente en postres.
- *Brócoli, coliflor y repollo*: se sugirió aumentar su cantidad, especialmente por el alto contenido o biodisponibilidad de calcio.

CONCLUSIONES

Las dietas vegetarianas bien estructuradas son aptas para todas las etapas de la vida, siendo la vitamina B12 la única suplementación requerida por defecto. Además, suponen beneficios que van más allá de la salud (impacto medioambiental, sufrimiento animal, etc.).

Se ha observado un bajo conocimiento general sobre este tipo de dietas, incluso entre los propios vegetarianos, por lo que promover conocimientos sobre las mismas no solo ayudaría a aumentar el número de vegetarianos, sino también a mejorar la salud de los que ya las siguen. Al margen del vegetarianismo, la promoción de conocimientos generales en nutrición aparece como una necesidad apremiante; claro ejemplo de ello son las preocupantes cifras de obesidad o de deficiencias como la de vitamina D.

Por último, en los análisis de los menús de Foodtopía no se han encontrado carencias, a excepción de la vitamina D (y la B12 en menús vegetarianos). Los menús han sido mostrados como perfectamente equilibrados y saludables. Entre las principales sugerencias de mejora se encuentran: la reducción de calorías y aceite de girasol y un aumento de legumbres, frutos secos y semillas.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Trabajo Original

Otros

Estudio transcultural de los diferentes componentes de la insatisfacción corporal en muestras comunitarias de España y Chile

Cross-cultural study of the different components of body dissatisfaction in community samples from Spain and Chile

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Resumen

Introducción: el estudio de la insatisfacción corporal se ha centrado sobre todo en sus componentes perceptual y cognitivo-conductual, habiendo sido menos analizado el componente afectivo, tanto en España como en Chile. Hasta el momento, se ha observado mayor presencia de insatisfacción corporal en la población femenina y con sobrepeso. Esto se ha relacionado en gran parte con la mujer delgada y definida como ideal de belleza.

Objetivo: comparar los diferentes componentes de la insatisfacción corporal (perceptual, cognitivo-conductual y afectivo) en la edad adulta en una muestra comunitaria de ambos sexos de España y de Chile.

Método: se utilizó una muestra de 390 participantes, la cual se dividió en dos muestras según el país ($n = 179$ chilenos; $n = 211$ españoles). A su vez, los grupos por países se dividieron en dos grupos en función del índice de masa corporal (IMC) y también en función del sexo. Se evaluaron los diferentes componentes de la insatisfacción corporal mediante cuestionarios específicos para cada uno de ellos.

Resultados y conclusión: tanto en España como en Chile, las personas con sobrepeso muestran mayor insatisfacción en las áreas perceptual y afectiva, especialmente las mujeres. Sin embargo, el componente cognitivo-conductual es el único en el que se hallaron diferencias entre países, mostrándose las mujeres con sobrepeso españolas más insatisfechas ($t = 4,14$, $p < 0,001$, $d = 0,72$, $IC = 0,22-1,12$). Estos resultados constatan la mayor presencia de insatisfacción corporal en mujeres con sobrepeso, asociada a la mayor presión sobre la apariencia en la población femenina.

Palabras clave:

Chile. España. Estudio transcultural. Índice de masa corporal. Insatisfacción corporal.

Abstract

Background: the study of body dissatisfaction has been focused on their perceptual and cognitive-behavioral components, being the affective component the least analyzed, both in Spain and Chile. Until now, it has been observed more presence of body dissatisfaction in overweight women. This fact has been related with the thinness beauty ideal established by society.

Objective: to compare the different components of body dissatisfaction (perceptual, cognitive-behavioral and affective) in adults in a community sample of both sexes of Spain and Chile.

Method: the sample consisted of 390 participants and has been divided in two samples by country ($n = 179$ Chileans; $n = 211$ Spanish). At the same time, these groups were divided in two groups by body mass index (BMI) and also by sex. The different components of body dissatisfaction were evaluated using specific questionnaires for each of them.

Results and conclusion: both in Spain and in Chile, people with overweight show more dissatisfaction in the perceptual and affective areas, especially women. However, cognitive-behavioral component is the only one where differences between countries were found, showing overweight Spanish women more dissatisfaction. These results verify a higher presence of body dissatisfaction in women with overweight ($t = 4.14$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.72$, $IC = 0.22-1.12$), related to the greater pressure on appearance in the female population.

Key words:

Chile. Spain. Cross-cultural study. Body mass index. Body dissatisfaction.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Según la Organización Mundial de la Salud (OMS) (1), en los últimos 30 años, la prevalencia del sobrepeso y la obesidad se ha duplicado en todo el mundo y la presencia de insatisfacción corporal (IC) se ha hecho notar entre las personas que sufren esta condición física (2-6).

La imagen corporal es un constructo psicológico multifacético que comprende las experiencias perceptuales y actitudinales subjetivas sobre el propio cuerpo, en particular sobre la apariencia (7). Desde hace varios años, autores han señalado la presencia de diferentes componentes al hablar de imagen corporal (8,9), tales como: factores perceptuales, afectivos, cognitivos y conductuales.

El componente perceptual se refiere a la precisión en la estimación del tamaño corporal del sujeto (8), basada en juicios puramente perceptivos. Este elemento se puede evaluar analizando la percepción de partes concretas del cuerpo o la estimación del cuerpo entero (9). El componente afectivo está relacionado con las distintas emociones que la persona vive en relación a la imagen corporal y que están en parte relacionadas con ciertas situaciones promotoras de estas sensaciones (7,10). Por último, el componente cognitivo-conductual refleja las valoraciones y creencias subjetivas sobre el propio cuerpo, que se activan a partir de los esquemas mentales del individuo en el proceso de autoevaluación (3,7,11), así como las acciones o comportamientos derivados a partir de dichas valoraciones (3).

Un importante factor explicativo de la presencia de IC en personas con sobrepeso u obesidad es la presión social y mediática, a partir de la emisión de dos mensajes contradictorios muy relacionados con el componente cognitivo-conductual de la IC. Por un lado, el desarrollo de la tecnología y el aumento de medios de transporte contribuyen al incremento del sedentarismo como estilo de vida (3,4). Por otra parte, el ideal de belleza que se promueve en los medios es el de la extrema delgadez, junto a sus actitudes, creencias y prácticas (2,3,12-16). La internalización de este ideal de belleza, en los esquemas de funcionamiento de la población (12-17), se ha producido sobre todo en los países desarrollados (3,14,18-21), como por ejemplo España. Este fenómeno tiene una especial repercusión entre las mujeres, quienes presentan una mayor IC a lo largo de su vida en comparación con los hombres (2,3,6,13,22), excepto en edades muy avanzadas (17).

Se ha observado que la presión social, en lo que a apariencia se refiere, es más homogénea, está mucho más presente y tiene un mayor impacto en la población femenina (17,23). El ideal que se potencia es inaccesible y se caracteriza por promover la juventud, la delgadez y conductas insanas orientadas al culto al cuerpo; además, este ideal se asocia a mayor éxito a la hora de parecer atractivas a los miembros del otro sexo (23). Por lo anterior, las mujeres adultas refieren conductas más orientadas a mantenerse jóvenes y delgadas (3). La presencia de ese ideal inalcanzable repercute en una disonancia perceptual en las personas con un índice de masa corporal (IMC) elevado (por encima de 25 kg/m²), especialmente en las mujeres (24,25).

Pese a que se observa una relación bidireccional entre los componentes cognitivo-conductual y perceptual, en España se han realizado varios estudios que incluyen esta relación en la explicación de sus resultados. No obstante, a la hora de hacer

la evaluación de la IC, utilizan instrumentos que solo miden el componente perceptual de la misma (20,24,26,27).

En los países que se encuentran en vías de desarrollo, la globalización ha provocado la expansión del ideal de belleza prodelgadez (13,14,19). Chile es un claro ejemplo de la difusión de este ideal de belleza. Este país cuenta con una población joven y que manifiesta sentir una significativa atracción por las tendencias de los países desarrollados en distintos ámbitos, tales como el modelo económico o el ocio, así como los estándares de belleza (28), siendo una de las razones que justificarían la inexistencia de estudios transculturales entre Chile y España. En Chile, muchos de los estudios sobre IC focalizan la atención en los componentes perceptivos y cognitivos-conductuales (14,18,25) y se centran en mujeres adolescentes (14,18,19,25), observándose que son las adolescentes de mayor edad las que presentan una mayor IC. En general, la relación entre IC y sexo parece estar clara y son las mujeres las que se ven más afectadas. En cuanto a la edad, a pesar de que la adolescencia se ha señalado siempre como una etapa de riesgo, debido a que es donde comienzan a detectarse los problemas con la IC (2), se ha observado que en cuanto se incrementa la edad, también se incrementa la IC y esto se puede relacionar con el IMC, ya que a mayor edad, mayor IMC, y a mayor IMC, mayor IC (2,3,6,13,22,28).

En relación al componente afectivo de la IC, no se cuenta con un cuestionario específico para su evaluación. Los estudios actuales han tendido a centrarse en la influencia de los medios de comunicación sobre la imagen corporal, centrándose en la evaluación de cómo estos afectan a los componentes perceptuales y cognitivos-conductuales de la IC, sin que se observen estudios que incorporen los tres elementos mencionados, afectivos, perceptuales y cognitivos-conductuales. Por otro lado, no se observan estudios que analicen la presencia de los distintos componentes de la IC en población adulta chilena y española. Por lo tanto, el interés de este estudio radica primero en presentar una comparación en términos de IC entre España y Chile en población adulta, incluyendo a personas de ambos sexos. Además, se evaluarán los tres componentes de la IC mediante cuestionarios específicamente diseñados para cada uno de ellos y se señalarán las posibles repercusiones clínicas, según los resultados obtenidos en el estudio.

El objetivo de esta investigación es comparar los diferentes componentes de la IC (perceptual, cognitivo-conductual y afectivo) en la edad adulta en población comunitaria de España y de Chile, tanto en hombres como en mujeres.

MÉTODO

PARTICIPANTES

Se obtiene una muestra comunitaria de 390 participantes. En la muestra chilena se cuenta con 179 participantes (M = 36,6 años; DT = 10,6), 135 mujeres y 44 hombres. En cuanto a la muestra española, está compuesta por 211 participantes (M = 32,2 años; DT = 10,0), 172 mujeres y 39 hombres. Las dos muestras se han dividido en dos grupos teniendo en cuenta el IMC: normopeso (NP: 18,5 a 24,99 kg/m²), con 97 sujetos chilenos y 138 españoles, y sobrepeso (SP: > 25 kg/m²), con 82 sujetos chilenos y 73 españoles.

INSTRUMENTOS

Standard Figural Stimuli (SFS) (29)

Esta herramienta se utiliza para evaluar el componente perceptual de la IC y también proporciona información sobre la distorsión de la imagen corporal. En esta investigación solo se utiliza la primera, ya que es la que está directamente relacionada con el objeto de estudio. Esta escala está formada por nueve figuras de 8 cm de altitud, que representan gradualmente siluetas de figuras humanas de hombres y mujeres delgadas hasta las obesas. Las siluetas fueron elaboradas tomando un patrón comparativo; se tuvo en cuenta la apariencia de la imagen corporal para hacer las figuras lo más reales posibles y a cada figura se le asignó un número del 1 al 9. Se solicita a los participantes la identificación de su imagen corporal percibida y la imagen corporal ideal; la diferencia entre el número asignado a la figura percibida y a la ideal indica el grado de IC. La validez concurrente y la reproducibilidad de la prueba son elevadas (30).

Multidimensional Body Self Relations Questionnaire (MBSRQ) (11,31,32)

Evalúa el componente cognitivo-conductual de la IC, concretamente los aspectos actitudinales respecto al constructo imagen corporal, que incluyen componentes evaluativos, cognitivos y conductuales. Los ítems hacen referencia a dos dimensiones: evaluación y orientación. También se dividen en tres ámbitos somáticos: apariencia, forma física y salud/enfermedad. La versión original de este instrumento consta de 69 ítems que se responden mediante una escala tipo Likert que puntúa de 1 (muy insatisfecho/a) a 5 (muy satisfecho/a). También se dispone de una versión reducida de 45 ítems. En este estudio se utilizan tanto la adaptación española (31) como la chilena (32) de este cuestionario. Se ha de especificar que a menor puntuación en el cuestionario mayor IC.

Eating Disorder Inventory-Body Dissatisfaction Scale (EDI-3) (33,34)

Esta subescala por definición evalúa las creencias del sujeto respecto a su imagen corporal general o partes específicas del cuerpo. Consta de diez ítems que se responden mediante una escala tipo Likert que va de 0 (nunca) a 4 (siempre). La fiabilidad (alfa de Cronbach) para la escala de insatisfacción corporal es de 0,90 para mujeres y de 0,67 para hombres, en una muestra no clínica española de 19 años o más.

Situational Inventory of Body-Image Dysphoria-Short form (SIBID-S) (7,10)

Evalúa el componente afectivo de la IC, más específicamente las emociones negativas relacionadas con la imagen corporal activadas por contextos específicos. La versión original de este

cuestionario presenta 48 ítems que se responden mediante una escala Likert que va de 0 (nunca) a 4 (siempre o casi siempre). Posteriormente se desarrolló una versión corta de 20 ítems. En este estudio se utiliza la adaptación española de la versión reducida (10). La fiabilidad de la adaptación de este cuestionario se sustenta en un α de Cronbach de 0,94.

PROCEDIMIENTO

Este estudio ha sido aprobado por el Comité de Bioética de la Universidad de Barcelona. Los participantes se han obtenido mediante un muestreo no probabilístico accidental vía internet utilizando la plataforma SurveyMonkey. En la plataforma se incluyen los cuestionarios anteriores y un cuestionario sociodemográfico *ad hoc*. Los participantes tienen conocimiento del estudio a través de correo electrónico y redes sociales, principalmente Facebook. Una vez acceden a la plataforma *on-line* (antes de cumplimentar los cuestionarios), reciben información escrita sobre el objetivo del estudio y se les solicita la confirmación de su consentimiento informado. La participación es voluntaria, sin ningún tipo de incentivos, pudiéndose abandonar en cualquier momento sin necesidad de justificación.

Los criterios de inclusión aplicados han sido: edad entre 18 y 70 años, IMC igual o superior a 18,5 kg/m² y haber completado todos los cuestionarios. Además, se tuvieron en cuenta los siguientes criterios de exclusión: presentar algún trastorno de conducta alimentaria y/o problemas psicológicos severos.

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICOS

Los análisis de datos se han realizado mediante el programa SPSS.15.0 para Windows. Se utilizan las pruebas *t* de Student y χ^2 para conocer si existen diferencias significativas en las variables sociodemográficas teniendo en cuenta el país de origen. Se emplea la técnica *t* de Student para estudiar las diferencias para cada componente de la insatisfacción corporal teniendo en cuenta el IMC. Se utiliza la U de Mann Whitney para estudiar las diferencias para cada componente teniendo en cuenta el IMC y el sexo dentro de cada muestra. Del mismo modo, la comparación también se establece entre las dos muestras. Además, se han calculado el índice *d* de Cohen, el punto biserial de correlación *r* (35) y la *V* de Cramer para verificar la magnitud de las diferencias.

RESULTADOS

DESCRIPTIVOS DE LAS VARIABLES SOCIODEMOGRÁFICAS

La tabla I muestra las diferentes variables sociodemográficas para la muestra total y para cada grupo según el país de origen, Chile y España. Se observan diferencias significativas pero de baja intensidad para las variables edad, IMC, estado civil y situación laboral.

Tabla I. Características de la muestra

	Total (n = 390)	Chile (n = 179)	España (n = 211)	t/ χ^2	d/V
Edad (M, DT)	34,2 (10,5)	36,6 (10,6)	32,2 (10,0)	$t = 4,18^{\dagger}$	$d = 0,43$
Rango de edad	18,5-66,5	20,5-65,5	18,5-66,5		
IMC (M, DT)	24,7(4,3)	25,4 (4,0)	24,1 (4,4)	$t = 2,87^{\dagger}$	$d = 0,31$
Sexo (n, %)				$\chi^2 = 2,15$	
Hombre	83 (21,3)	44 (11,3)	39 (10,0)		
Mujer	307 (78,7)	135 (34,6)	172 (44,1)		
Estado civil (n, %)				$\chi^2 = 23,60^{\dagger}$	$V = 0,25$
Soltero	233 (59,7)	107 (27,4)	126 (32,3)		
Casado	102 (25,2)	56 (14,4)	46 (11,8)		
Viudo	5 (1,3)	3 (0,8)	2 (0,5)		
Separado	7 (1,8)	5 (1,3)	2 (0,5)		
Divorciado	18 (4,6)	7 (1,8)	11 (2,8)		
Pareja de hecho	25 (6,4)	1 (0,3)	24 (6,2)		
Nivel de estudios (n, %)				$\chi^2 = 3,82$	
Elemental	1 (0,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (0,3)		
Secundaria	16 (4,1)	4 (1,0)	12 (3,1)		
Superior	373 (95,6)	175 (44,9)	198 (50,8)		
Ingresos (n, %)				$\chi^2 = 290,54^{\dagger}$	$V = 0,86$
Sin ingresos	63 (16,2)	3 (0,8)	60 (15,4)		
< 1MW	66 (16,9)	4 (1,0)	62 (15,9)		
1MW-2MW	46 (11,8)	5 (1,3)	41 (10,5)		
2MW-3MW	39 (10,0)	9 (2,3)	30 (7,7)		
3MW-4MW	165 (42,3)	158 (40,5)	7 (1,8)		
4MW-5MW	4 (1,0)	0 (0,0)	4 (1,0)		
> 5MW	7 (1,8)	0 (0,0)	7 (1,8)		
Situación laboral (n, %)				$\chi^2 = 42,25^{\dagger}$	$V = 0,40$
En paro	28 (7,2)	5 (1,3)	23 (5,9)		
No trabaja	23 (5,9)	4 (1,0)	19 (4,9)		
Estudiante	85 (21,8)	24 (6,2)	61 (15,6)		
Asalariado	197 (50,5)	108 (27,7)	89 (22,8)		
Autónomo	51 (13,1)	35 (9,0)	16 (4,1)		
Baja/incapacidad laboral	1 (0,3)	0 (0,0)	1 (0,3)		
Jubilado	5 (1,3)	2 (0,5)	3 (0,8)		

d: índice de Cohen sobre la magnitud de la diferencia; DT: desviación típica; M: media; MW: salario mínimo; t: estadístico t de Student; V: V de Cramer; χ^2 : estadístico Chi-cuadrado. $^{\dagger}p < 0,05$; $^{\ddagger}p < 0,01$; $^{\ast}p < 0,001$.

RESULTADOS PARA LOS DIFERENTES COMPONENTES DE LA IC TENIENDO EN CUENTA EL IMC

La tabla II muestra las diferencias, dentro de cada país, para cada componente de la IC, teniendo en cuenta el IMC. En los dos países se observa que las personas con SP presentan una peor percepción de sus cuerpos o partes del mismo respecto a las personas con NP, tal como reflejan las puntuaciones significativamente más altas en el SFS y en la escala de insatisfacción corporal del EDI-3. Esta última también puede ser un indicador de una mayor insatisfacción corporal en el plano cognitivo por parte de las personas con SP en ambos países, aunque el componente

cognitivo-conductual está más presente en la muestra española, tal y como muestran las puntuaciones significativamente más bajas del MBSRQ en el grupo SP respecto al grupo NP en dicha muestra. Sin embargo, el componente afectivo solo refleja puntuaciones significativas más altas del grupo SP frente al grupo NP en la muestra chilena.

En general, los resultados se apoyan en magnitudes de la diferencia bastante buenas, a excepción de las puntuaciones del SIBID, donde la d es más baja. También, se observa una d negativa en el MBSRQ, que se debe a que en este caso, a menor puntuación, mayor IC, y debido a que el grupo SP es el utilizado como referente y el NP, como control, por eso el resultado sería negativo.

Tabla II. Diferencias significativas entre grupos de IMC por países

Chile					
	NP (n = 97)	SP (n = 82)	t	d	IC 95%
SFS (M, DT)	0,7 (1,0)	1,7 (0,8)	-7,47 [‡]	1,09	(0,77, 1,40)
EDI-3. Body Dissatisfaction Scale (M, DT)	13,4 (9,3)	18,0 (8,9)	-3,36 [‡]	0,50	(0,20, 0,80)
MBSRQ (M, DT)	3,2 (0,4)	3,1 (0,3)	1,88	-	-
SIBID (M, DT)	1,2 (0,8)	1,5 (0,9)	-2,71 [†]	0,35	(0,06, 0,65)
España					
	NP (n = 138)	SP (n = 73)	t	d	IC 95%
SFS (M, DT)	0,9 (0,7)	1,8 (1,0)	-6,49 [‡]	1,10	(0,80, 1,40)
EDI-3. Body Dissatisfaction Scale (M, DT)	11,5 (8,3)	17,3 (9,2)	-4,62 [‡]	0,67	(0,38, 0,96)
MBSRQ (M, DT)	3,2 (0,5)	2,9 (0,5)	4,74 [‡]	-0,60	(-0,89, -0,31)
SIBID (M, DT)	1,5 (0,9)	1,7 (1,0)	-1,69	-	-

d: índice de Cohen sobre la magnitud de la diferencia; DT: desviación típica; EDI: Eating Disorder Inventory; IC: intervalo de confianza; M: Media; MBSRQ: Multidimensional Body Self Relations Questionnaire; NP: normopeso; SFS: Standar Figural Stimuli; SIBID: Situational Inventory of Body-Image Dysphoria; SP: sobrepeso; t: prueba de t de Student. * $p < 0,05$; [†] $p < 0,01$; [‡] $p < 0,001$.

Finalmente, al establecer una comparación entre países, únicamente se observan diferencias significativas para el componente cognitivo-conductual en las personas con SP. Los participantes con SP españoles puntúan significativamente más bajo en el MBSRQ que los participantes con SP chilenos ($t = 3,68$, $p < 0,001$, $d = 0,49$, IC = 0,17-0,81).

RESULTADOS PARA LOS DIFERENTES COMPONENTES DE LA IC TENIENDO EN CUENTA EL SEXO Y EL IMC

Se observan puntuaciones significativamente más altas tanto en mujeres chilenas como españolas, en comparación con los hombres, para el componente perceptual y el afectivo de la IC. Estos resultados se apoyan en magnitudes de la diferencia medias y altas, siendo la r más baja igual a 0,33 (Tabla III).

Sin embargo, al comparar a las mujeres chilenas con las mujeres españolas, únicamente se observan diferencias significativas en el componente cognitivo-conductual. En este caso, las mujeres españolas con SP se presentan como más insatisfechas en esta área en cuestión frente a las mujeres chilenas con SP ($t = 4,14$, $p < 0,001$, $d = 0,72$, IC = 0,22-1,12).

DISCUSIÓN

El objetivo de esta investigación es comparar los diferentes componentes de la IC (perceptual, cognitivo-conductual y afectivo) en la edad adulta en población comunitaria de España y de Chile, en ambos sexos.

Los resultados muestran que tanto las personas españolas como las chilenas con SP se encuentran más insatisfechas perceptualmente, es decir, valoran como ideal una figura más delgada en comparación a la que señalan cuando se les pregunta cómo se perciben. El hecho de que las personas con un IMC más elevado perciban peor su cuerpo ya había sido observado en estudios anteriores, tanto en Chile (14,18,25) como en España (20,24,26,27). Concretamente, son las mujeres con un IMC más alto las que perciben peor su cuerpo o partes del mismo respecto a los hombres (2,3,6,13-19). Las puntuaciones observadas en el SFS y en la escala de insatisfacción corporal del EDI-3 han constatado esta información, pues en estas son las mujeres, sobre todo aquellas con SP, las que presentan una mayor IC perceptual respecto a los hombres en ambos países.

La explicación de estos resultados en el componente perceptual va ligada al papel del componente cognitivo-conductual de la IC. En este estudio se observa que el componente cognitivo-conductual es el único que presenta diferencias significativas, al hacer la comparación entre países, siendo las personas con sobrepeso españolas, en especial las mujeres, las que se encuentran más insatisfechas en este componente respecto a la muestra chilena. Esto puede deberse a que en los países desarrollados (3,14,18-21), como España, el ideal de belleza femenino prodigado está más interiorizado y automatizado en los esquemas de funcionamiento femeninos (2,3,12-17). El asumir de un modo casi automático que los cuerpos extremadamente delgados o muy definidos son considerados los más bellos concuerda con el hecho de que en España la silueta señalada como ideal sea inferior en tamaño a la señalada como percibida (2,3,6,13-19).

Además, también existe una gran presión social y mediática por la cual se hace creer que la mujer joven y delgada es la más

Tabla III. Diferencias significativas teniendo en cuenta el IMC y el sexo por países

Chile								
	NP		U	r	SP		U	r
	H (n = 15)	M (n = 82)			H (n = 29)	M (n = 53)		
SFS (M, DT)	0,0 (1,1)	0,8 (0,9)	367,0 [†]	0,26	1,5 (0,7)	1,8 (0,9)	644,0	-
EDI-3. Body Dissatisfaction Scale (M, DT)	7,5 (6,2)	14,5 (9,4)	336,0 [†]	0,29	13,9 (6,7)	20,3 (9,2)	464,5 [†]	0,33
MBSRQ (M, DT)	3,2 (0,4)	3,2 (0,4)	580,0	-	3,1 (0,4)	3,1 (0,3)	679,5	-
SIBID (M, DT)	0,4 (0,5)	1,3 (0,8)	190,0 [†]	0,43	1,0 (0,8)	1,8 (1,0)	419,0 [†]	0,38
España								
	NP		U	r	SP		U	r
	H (n = 19)	M (n = 119)			H (n = 20)	M (n = 53)		
SFS (M, DT)	0,9 (0,8)	1,0 (0,7)	1102,0	-	1,5 (0,8)	2,0 (1,0)	392,5	-
EDI-3. Body Dissatisfaction Scale (M, DT)	8,4 (7,6)	12,0 (8,3)	827,0	-	9,5 (8,1)	20,2 (7,8)	178,5 [†]	0,51
MBSRQ (M, DT)	3,2 (0,6)	3,2 (0,5)	1.118,5	-	3,0 (0,5)	2,8 (0,5)	422,5	-
SIBID (M, DT)	1,4 (0,9)	1,5 (0,9)	1.035,5	-	1,0 (0,9)	1,9 (0,9)	217,5 [†]	0,45

DT: desviación típica; EDI: Eating Disorder Inventory; M: media; MBSRQ: Multidimensional Body Self Relations Questionnaire; NP: normopeso; r: punto biserial de correlación para la magnitud del efecto; SFS: Standar Figural Stimuli; SIBID: Situational Inventory of Body-Image Dysphoria; SP: sobrepeso; U: prueba de U de Mann Whitney. * $p < 0,05$; $^{\dagger}p < 0,01$; $^{\ddagger}p < 0,001$.

exitosa con los miembros del otro sexo; lo anterior da lugar a una serie de comportamientos, actitudes y prácticas asociadas al culto al cuerpo, en una sociedad donde la mujer se ve mucho más presionada que el hombre para mantener una apariencia acorde con los estándares establecidos (3,17,23).

En países en vías de desarrollo, como Chile, la expansión de este ideal junto a todo lo que conlleva cada vez es mayor (13,14,19). Es posible que todavía no se haya instaurado tan profundamente como en los países desarrollados, pero los resultados observados en el área perceptual pueden ser indicadores significativos de la presencia de distorsiones, las cuales se podrían estar produciendo al ir estableciendo una comparación del propio cuerpo con un ideal de tamaño inferior (2,3,12,16).

Teniendo en cuenta todo lo anterior, el hecho de sentir que el propio cuerpo no encaja con lo demandado por la sociedad puede dar lugar a que en muchas situaciones las personas experimenten sentimientos desagradables relacionados con la imagen corporal (7,10). En este estudio han sido las personas con SP, en especial las mujeres, las que reportan una mayor IC en el componente afectivo. En España, la integración del ideal de belleza y la autopercepción negativa del propio cuerpo dan lugar a emociones negativas muy relacionadas con la baja autoestima (10). En el caso de Chile pueden deberse a que, efectivamente, perciben sus cuerpos de un modo negativo y no se aceptan, al igual que ocurre en España, pero no hay una integración de las conductas dirigidas a alcanzar ese ideal que tan instauradas están en los países desarrollados, el mal denominado autocuidado (14). Por lo tanto, en este caso puede surgir más la frustración de sentirse mal pero no saber hacia dónde dirigirse. Lo anterior no quiere decir que esas conductas orientadas

al culto al cuerpo sean positivas, sino que las personas las pueden interpretar como una solución a lo que consideran un problema.

Con todo, no se debe olvidar el hecho de que, tradicionalmente, los países latinoamericanos poseen un componente cultural más machista, lo cual podría dar lugar a que se le dé más importancia a lo que piensa el otro que a la propia opinión (23). Lo anteriormente señalado podría aumentar las posibilidades de que se den situaciones promotoras de emociones negativas relacionadas con la imagen (7,10).

Finalmente, parece que el tratamiento de la IC no se debe limitar a una exposición a aquellas partes del cuerpo que pueden provocar mayor desagrado, o donde la distorsión respecto al tamaño real de las mismas es muy grande. Esta es simplemente solo una parte del tratamiento que parece necesaria al mismo nivel en los dos países.

En España, debido a la mayor internalización en los esquemas mentales del ideal de belleza prodigadez, parece que una intervención cognitiva-conductual, donde se trabajen las creencias, los errores cognitivos y los comportamientos desadaptativos relacionados con la IC, sería más necesaria. Esto no quiere decir que este tipo de tratamiento no se deba aplicar en Chile también, pero las campañas de prevención y la psicoeducación sobre los estándares de belleza y los valores personales podrían ser un método más efectivo actualmente en ese país. Lo anterior sería un modo para intentar poner freno a la expansión en Chile de la asunción de la mujer delgada y joven como ideal y modelo a seguir.

El presente estudio presenta algunas limitaciones que pueden haber sesgado los resultados obtenidos, por lo que habrían de poderse subsanar en investigaciones posteriores. Por una parte, la

presencia de hombres es mucho más reducida, tanto en la muestra general como en los dos grupos de IMC. Por otra parte, cabe destacar que los datos relativos al peso y la altura son autoinformados. Sin embargo, se ha observado que las medidas autoinformadas de peso y altura resultan confiables, existiendo una alta correlación entre estas y los datos medidos directamente (36).

No obstante lo anterior, este estudio resulta pionero en el análisis de la IC a través de sus distintos componentes, en contraposición a la mayoría de las investigaciones, que suelen centrarse de modo exclusivo en el componente perceptual. Por otra parte, este estudio viene a evidenciar las similitudes y particularidades respecto de la IC existentes entre los países estudiados, proporcionando además sugerencias de intervención específicas para utilizar, ya sea a nivel clínico, comunitario o institucional, a la hora de afrontar esta problemática profundamente enraizada en las sociedades occidentales.

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Trabajo Original

Otros

Efectos de la suplementación aguda con beta-alanina sobre una prueba de tiempo límite a velocidad aeróbica máxima en atletas de resistencia

Effects of acute supplementation with beta-alanine on a limited time test at maximum aerobic speed on endurance athletes

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Resumen

Introducción: la beta-alanina (BA) es una de las ayudas ergogénicas más utilizadas actualmente por deportistas, pero la mayoría de los estudios centran su investigación en la suplementación prolongada.

Objetivos: determinar el efecto agudo de la suplementación con BA sobre una prueba de tiempo límite (PTL) a velocidad aeróbica máxima (VAM) en atletas de resistencia.

Material y método: once atletas de resistencia (VO_{2max} $61,6 \pm 9,5$ mL O_2 ·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) fueron parte del estudio. El diseño fue doble ciego, cruzado intrasujeto, y la suplementación de BA fue de 30 mg·kg⁻¹ o placebo (PL) 60 minutos antes de completar una PTL. Las variables fueron: tiempo y distancia en la PTL y concentraciones de lactato ([La]) postesfuerzo en los minutos 1, 3, 5, 7 y 9. Para el análisis se utilizó una prueba t de Student y el tamaño del efecto (TE) se realizó mediante la prueba d de Cohen.

Resultados: el tiempo en la PTL evidenció diferencias significativas entre la BA y PL ($p = 0,047$; $TE = 0,48$). No se observaron diferencias significativas en distancia entre ambos grupos ($p = 0,071$; $TE = 0,48$) y las [La] evidenciaron diferencias significativas entre ambos grupos en los minutos 3, 5 y 7, respectivamente ($p < 0,05$).

Conclusión: la suplementación aguda con BA evidenció aumentos significativos en el tiempo de ejecución en la PTL a intensidades correspondientes a VAM. Por lo anterior, la suplementación aguda con BA es una ayuda ergogénica que podría ser considerada por los atletas de resistencia para aumentar el rendimiento deportivo.

Palabras clave:

Beta-alanina. Ayuda ergogénica. Prueba de ejercicios.

Abstract

Introduction: the beta-alanine (BA) is one of the ergogenic aid most used by athletes, but the majority of the studies center the research on chronic supplementation.

Objectives: to determine the acute effect of BA supplementation on a limited time test (LTT) at maximum aerobic speed (MAS) on endurance athletes.

Material and method: eleven endurance athletes (VO_{2max} 61.6 ± 9.5 mL O_2 ·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) were part of the study. The study consisted of a double-blind, cross-over intra-subject design, and the BA supplementation was 30 mg·kg⁻¹ or placebo (PL) 60 minutes before completing a LTT. The variables were: time and distance in LTT, and post-effort lactate concentrations ([La]) in minutes 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9. The Student's t test was used for the analysis and the size of the effect (SE) was measured through Cohen's d test.

Results: the time on LTT showed significant differences between BA and PL ($p = 0.047$; $SE = 0.48$). No significant differences were seen between both groups ($p = 0.071$; $SE = 0.48$), and [La] showed significant differences between both groups in minutes 3, 5 and 7, respectively ($p < 0.05$).

Conclusion: acute supplementation with BA showed a significant increase in the execution time in LTT in the intensities connected to MAS. Hence, acute supplementation with BA is an ergogenic aid that could be considered by resistance athletes in order to increase the athletic performance.

Key words:

Beta-alanine. Performance-enhancing substances. Exercise test.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Los ejercicios de alta intensidad necesitan niveles elevados de sustrato y generan acumulación de metabolitos en el músculo esquelético (1). A medida que el ejercicio avanza hasta el punto de fatiga, ocurre una acumulación rápida de lactato e hidrogeniones (H^+) (1). La acumulación de estos metabolitos contribuye en el descenso del pH, generando una brusca acidosis metabólica cuando la acumulación intracelular de H^+ supera la capacidad aeróbica de remoción (2). De esta manera, se producen efectos perjudiciales sobre la función del músculo esquelético y en la generación de fuerza que contribuyen a la fatiga (1). Específicamente, la acumulación de H^+ en el músculo esquelético ha demostrado que interrumpe la resíntesis de fosfato de creatina (3), inhibe la glucólisis (3) e interfiere con la liberación de Ca^{++} desde el retículo sarcoplasmático y el acoplamiento de excitación-contracción (4). Más recientemente, la evidencia apunta a un efecto que conlleva la acumulación de H^+ en la sangre en la percepción del esfuerzo durante el ejercicio intermitente de alta intensidad (5), lo que podría también contribuir a la fatiga indirectamente.

En los últimos años se han probado varios suplementos nutricionales que teóricamente mantienen una mayor estabilidad en el pH durante ejercicios de alta intensidad (2,6,7). Por consiguiente, los amortiguadores fisicoquímicos en el músculo, entre los que se encuentra la carnosina, proporcionan la primera línea de defensa contra los cambios locales en el pH (2). La carnosina (b-alanil-L-histidina), por su parte, es un dipéptido citoplasmático formado por beta-alanina (BA) y L-histidina; no obstante, el precursor limitante en la síntesis de la carnosina en las fibras musculares viene dado por la BA (8). Se ha demostrado que la suplementación con BA aumenta significativamente los niveles de carnosina en las fibras musculares humanas de tipo I y tipo II del vasto lateral (8), así como en el tibial anterior, sóleo y gastrocnemio (9-11). Además, la carnosina desempeña un papel importante en el tamponamiento intracelular de H^+ debido a su anillo de imidazol, que tiene un pKa de 6,83 (12), y dado que la acidosis muscular es probablemente la que contribuye al inicio de la fatiga durante el ejercicio de alta intensidad, el aumento de la concentración de carnosina muscular teóricamente aumentaría la capacidad de tamponamiento intracelular, lo que podría retrasar la aparición de fatiga (2).

Del mismo modo, en un metaanálisis desarrollado por Hobson y cols. (2) se demostró la eficacia de la suplementación con BA en ejercicios de alta intensidad, particularmente en ejercicios que duran entre uno y cuatro minutos, pero también los investigadores concluyeron que en las pruebas inferiores a 60 segundos de duración la suplementación con BA no produce efectos significativos, y que tanto el tipo como la intensidad y la duración del ejercicio influyen positivamente el efecto ergogénico de la BA, partiendo del respaldo que el beneficio de la BA se produce a través de un aumento en el *buffering* del pH intracelular (2). Igualmente, los beneficios de la suplementación con BA parecen ser consistentes en actividades que duran hasta diez minutos (13). Por otra parte, la dosificación con BA varía de 3,2 a 6,4 g·día⁻¹,

con protocolos de suplementación de entre cuatro y 12 semanas (14,15). Sin embargo, en vivo, las concentraciones de carnosina se ven influenciadas por la disponibilidad de BA, lo que indica que a mayor ingesta de BA, mayor concentración de carnosina (16).

Actualmente, la suplementación prolongada con BA ha dado como resultado un aumento del rendimiento en algunos protocolos de ejercicios de alta intensidad (14,17), en ejercicios de *sprint* al final de una carrera de ciclismo de resistencia (18) y en series de contracciones máximas (9). De forma paralela, algunos investigadores han reportado cambios no significativos en el rendimiento posterior a la suplementación aguda con BA (19). Desafortunadamente, las pocas investigaciones que relacionan la suplementación aguda de BA en pruebas de rendimiento con duración mayor a tres minutos son escasas, menos aún en zonas de velocidad aeróbica máxima (VAM). Por lo anterior, aún queda por esclarecer las respuestas agudas de BA frente a ejercicios a VAM con una duración mayor a los 180 segundos. Consecuentemente, el objetivo de esta investigación fue determinar el efecto agudo de la suplementación con BA sobre una prueba de tiempo límite (PTL) a VAM en atletas de resistencia.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

APROXIMACIÓN A LA INVESTIGACIÓN

En este estudio se trabajó con once atletas de resistencia (seis hombres y cinco mujeres). El criterio de inclusión fue la cantidad de años en el deporte (los sujetos tenían un mínimo de dos años corriendo pruebas de medio fondo y fondo), mientras que el criterio de exclusión fue la incapacidad de ejecutar la PTL, ya sea por correr a menor o mayor intensidad teórica. Para investigar el efecto de la suplementación aguda en ejercicio de alta intensidad, el protocolo experimental se repitió dos veces en condiciones de doble-ciego intrasujeto (BA vs. placebo [PL]) separados por 48 horas.

SUJETOS

Once corredores de resistencia universitarios (seis hombres y cinco mujeres) pertenecientes a la Asociación Regional de Atletismo de Valparaíso, Chile (edad: $24,2 \pm 4,45$ años, peso: $60,5 \pm 8,39$ kg, altura: $167 \pm 8,42$ cm, índice de masa corporal [IMC]: $21,5 \pm 1,28$ kg·m⁻², porcentaje de grasa corporal: $16,8 \pm 7,71\%$, consumo máximo de oxígeno [VO_{2max}]: $61,6 \pm 9,5$ mL O₂·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹) (Tabla I), se ofrecieron como voluntarios para participar en este estudio. Todos los sujetos y entrenadores participantes fueron informados del objetivo del estudio y de los posibles riesgos del experimento. Todos los sujetos firmaron el consentimiento informado antes de la aplicación del protocolo. Tanto el protocolo de estudio como el consentimiento informado fueron aprobados por el Comité de Ética en Investigación Humana de la Universidad de Granada, España (registro 493/CEIH/2018).

Tabla I. Características de la muestra

Sujetos	Edad (años)	IMC (kg/m ²)	Masa corporal (kg)	Estatura (cm)	% Grasa corporal*	Consumo máximo de oxígeno (mLO ₂ ·kg ⁻¹ ·min ⁻¹)	VAM (m·s)
a (M)	31	20,2	47,8	154	23,4	53,6	4,45
b (M)	20	20,5	51,7	159	25,0	49,5	4,75
c (M)	28	19,5	48,1	157	19,5	61,7	4,45
d (M)	23	23,2	67,9	171	27,8	45,7	4,16
e (M)	18	22,9	59,3	161	26,5	54,8	5,05
f (H)	27	22,5	67,3	173	12,9	67,0	5,35
g (H)	21	22,0	63,7	170	10,5	65,0	5,35
h (H)	27	21,3	62,2	171	8,1	71,5	5,94
i (H)	25	22,8	69,7	175	12,9	64,4	5,35
j (H)	28	21,6	70,6	181	8,1	75,2	5,64
k (H)	18	20,1	57,4	169	10,5	69,2	5,64
Todos (11)	24,2 ± 4,4	21,5 ± 1,3	60,5 ± 8,4	167,4 ± 8,4	16,8 ± 7,7	61,6 ± 9,5	5,10 ± 0,58
Mujeres (5)	24,3 ± 4,0	21,7 ± 1,0	65,2 ± 5,0	173,2 ± 4,4	10,5 ± 2,1	53,1 ± 6,0	4,57 ± 0,34
Hombres (6)	24,0 ± 5,4	21,3 ± 1,7	55, ± 8,6	160,4 ± 6,5	24,4 ± 3,2	68,7 ± 4,1	5,54 ± 0,24

M: mujer; H: hombre; IMC: índice de masa corporal; kg: kilogramos; m²: metros cuadrados; cm: centímetros; mLO₂·kg⁻¹·min⁻¹: mililitros de oxígeno por kilogramo de peso corporal por minuto; VAM: velocidad aeróbica máxima; m·s: metros por segundo. *Sumatoria de cuatro pliegues (Durnin and Womersley, 1974).

INSTRUMENTOS

Para la caracterización de la muestra se realizó una evaluación de peso, estatura, IMC y porcentaje de grasa corporal. Para la evaluación del porcentaje de grasa corporal, se midieron cuatro pliegues cutáneos (tricipital, subescapular, supraespinal y bicipital) (20). Para las mediciones de pliegues cutáneos se utilizó el Kit Gaucho Pro "Mercosur", fabricado en Argentina bajo licencia de Rosscraft Canadá®.

CALENTAMIENTO ESTANDARIZADO

Tanto para la evaluación de VO_{2max} como para ambas PTL, el calentamiento estandarizado consistió en diez minutos de trote a 8 km·h para mujeres y a 10 km·h para hombres. Luego se incluyeron cinco minutos de movimientos balísticos de la extremidad inferior. Por último, los corredores realizaron tres aceleraciones de 80 metros.

EVALUACIÓN DEL CONSUMO MÁXIMO DE OXÍGENO

La evaluación del VO_{2max} se realizó a través de una ergoespirometría mediante un test incremental en un tapiz rodante. Todas las variables respiratorias se midieron utilizando sistemas analizadores de gases automáticos (CORTEX modelo MetaMax®3B). Antes de las pruebas, los analizadores y su *software* respectivo se calibraron

estrictamente de acuerdo a las recomendaciones de los fabricantes. Los datos fueron procesados a través de un ordenador portátil que calculó los resultados mediante un *software* desarrollado por el fabricante. Todos los corredores fueron precedidos por un calentamiento estandarizado de diez minutos y posteriormente ejecutaron la prueba de VO_{2max} con los criterios sugeridos por Howley y cols. (21). Esto implicó que la prueba de VO_{2max} comenzara con intensidades de 10 km·h para las mujeres y 12 km·h para los hombres, incrementándose gradualmente 1 km·h a intervalos de dos minutos hasta el agotamiento para ambos sexos. El VO_{2max} fue considerado cuando la cinética del VO₂ generó una meseta al final de la prueba, lo que implicó una estabilización del VO₂ a pesar del incremento de la carga (para considerar una meseta, el criterio utilizado fue que el aumento de VO₂ debía ser inferior a 150 mLO₂·min⁻¹ en las dos últimas cargas). La velocidad a la que se generó la meseta fue considerada como la VAM de cada sujeto. La inclinación utilizada en el tapiz rodante para todas las mediciones fue del 2%. Se instruyó a los participantes a correr a las velocidades correspondientes durante el tiempo que cada uno pudiera. Además, los datos de frecuencia cardíaca se monitorizaron utilizando un monitor de frecuencia cardíaca Polar S410® (Polar Electro), sincronizado con el *software* del analizador de gases.

PRUEBA DE TIEMPO LÍMITE

La PTL consiste en recorrer la mayor distancia posible en una pista atlética de 400 metros a una velocidad específica.

Este parámetro expresa el mantenimiento de una velocidad constante específica hasta el punto de agotamiento, definida por la incapacidad de mantener esa velocidad precisa; por lo tanto, la medida del rendimiento fue el tiempo en segundos (s) en la PTL (22). La velocidad específica definida para la realización de la PTL en este estudio, y la comprobación del uso de la BA como una ayuda ergogénica, fue la VAM obtenida en el test incremental de $VO_{2\text{máx}}$.

Para controlar la velocidad de desplazamiento en la pista de 400 metros, se usaron marcadores sonoros cada 100 metros. En el momento en que los atletas no lograron llegar a la marca de los 100 metros en el tiempo requerido por segunda vez consecutiva, la prueba se consideró finalizada y se registraron el tiempo final en segundos (s), la distancia recorrida en metros (m) y la percepción subjetiva del esfuerzo (PSE) a través de la escala de Borg modificada (1 a 10) (23). Al término de la PTL, se evaluaron las concentraciones de lactato capilar producido ($\text{mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) y la frecuencia cardíaca (FC) de término y de recuperación en los minutos 1, 3, 5, 7 y 9. Para la medición de las concentraciones de lactato ([La]) en sangre, se utilizó un lactómetro (h/p/cosmos®). Este lactómetro genera una detección enzimática-amperométrica de lactato con una precisión de $\pm 3\%$ (deviación estándar mínima de $0,2 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), volumen de muestra $0,2 \mu\text{L}$ y con un rango de medición de $0,5\text{-}25,0 \text{ mmol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$.

SUPLEMENTACIÓN

Carga de carbohidratos previa a PTL (*timing* nutricional)

Todos los atletas estuvieron a disposición dos horas antes de las PTL en condiciones de ayuno, con la finalidad de estandarizar una comida preentrenamiento, que estuvo constituida por 2 g de carbohidratos simples por kg de peso corporal.

Suplementación con B-alanina

Sesenta minutos antes de la PTL, se realizó la suplementación con BA. Esta suplementación fue de 30 mg de BA por kg de masa corporal disueltas en 500 mL de agua destilada. Treinta minutos posteriores a esta ingesta se ejecutó el calentamiento estandarizado previo a la PTL.

Suplementación con placebo

Sesenta minutos antes de la PTL se realizó la suplementación con placebo. Esta suplementación fue de 30 mg de carbohidratos simples por kg de masa corporal disueltos en 500 mL de agua destilada. Treinta minutos posteriores a esta ingesta se ejecutó el calentamiento estandarizado previo a la PTL.

PROTOCOLO EXPERIMENTAL

El estudio fue cuasiexperimental, doble ciego, cruzado intra-sujeto. El experimento se desarrolló durante una semana. Antes de la aplicación del experimento, se solicitó a toda la muestra que no ingirieran cafeína, suplementos energéticos o cualquier sustancia que incrementara el metabolismo 48 horas antes del día 1 y durante toda la semana de intervención. Previo al día 1, los sujetos firmaron el consentimiento informado y se realizaron las evaluaciones antropométricas. El día 1 se realizaron las evaluaciones de $VO_{2\text{máx}}$ para toda la muestra. El día 2 fue de descanso. El día 3, el 50% de la muestra (tanto mujeres como hombres) realizaron la PTL suplementados con BA, mientras que el otro 50% realizó la PTL con PL. El día 4 fue de descanso. El día 5, aquellos sujetos que ejecutaron la PTL con BA ahora la realizaron con PL y viceversa (Fig. 1A y B).

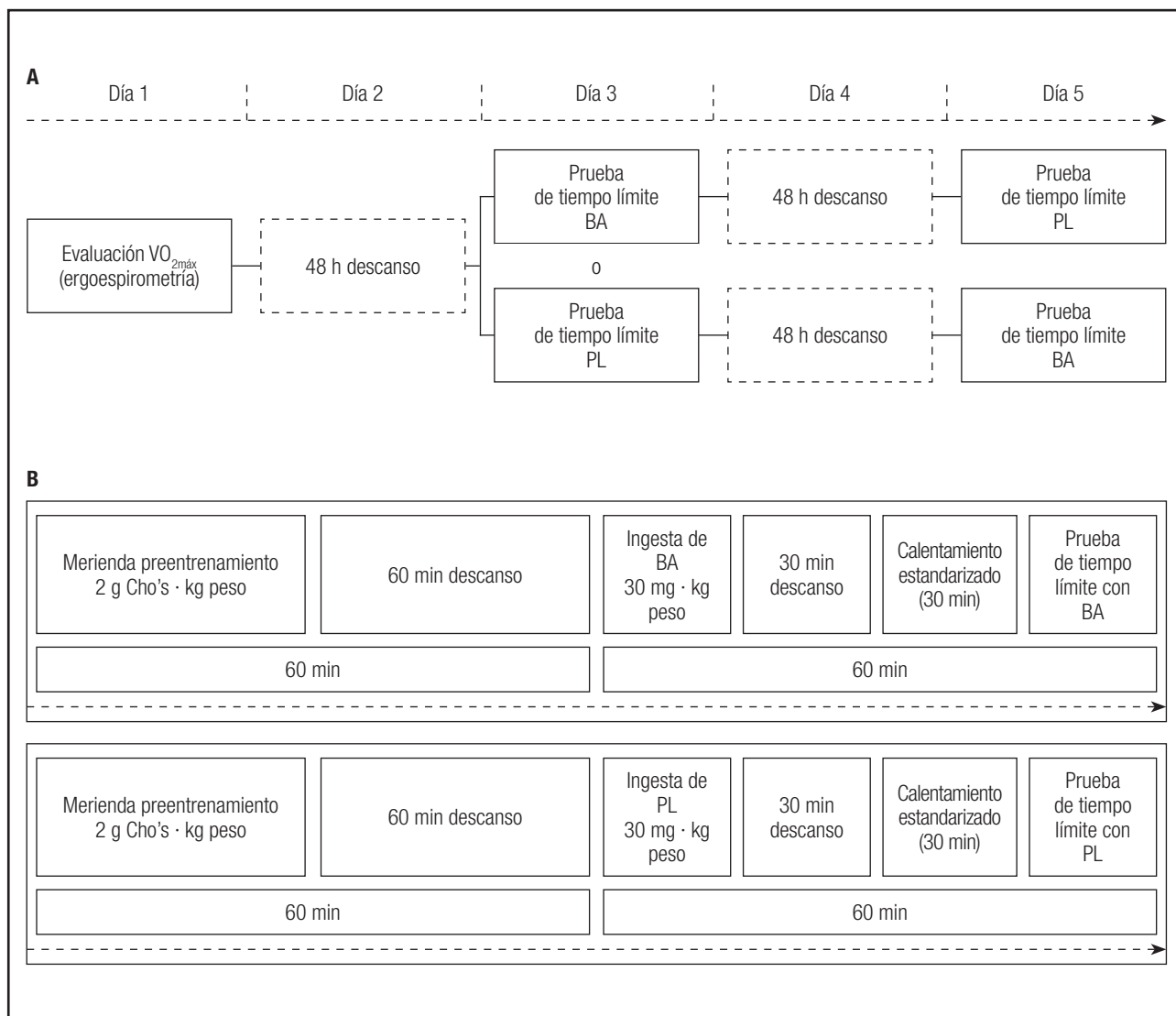
ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Para la tabulación y el análisis de datos se utilizaron el software Excel 2013® y el software estadístico SPSS versión 19®. La estadística descriptiva fue utilizada para expresar los valores medios y las desviaciones estándar de las variables estudiadas. La distribución normal de los resultados fue determinada con la prueba de Shapiro-Wilk. La comparación de medias de tiempo, distancia y PSE en la PTL a VAM, además de las [La] y la FC postesfuerzo, entre el grupo suplementado con BA y el grupo con PL, se realizó mediante la prueba t de Student para muestras relacionadas, mientras que el tamaño del efecto (TE) se calculó a través de la prueba d de Cohen. Este último análisis considera un efecto insignificante ($d < 0,2$), pequeño ($d = 0,2$ hasta $0,6$), moderado ($d = 0,6$ a $1,2$), grande ($d = 1,2$ a $2,0$) o muy grande ($d > 2,0$). El nivel de significancia para todos los análisis estadísticos fue de $p < 0,05$.

RESULTADOS

El análisis de datos fue realizado con siete de los once casos (tres mujeres y cuatro hombres). Hubo cuatro sujetos excluidos por la incapacidad de ejecución en la PTL a intensidad de VAM (ejecutaron a una intensidad mayor de la VAM individual). Los casos excluidos fueron a – b – h – i (Tabla I). Aplicada la prueba t de Student, el grupo suplementado con BA evidenció aumentos significativos en el tiempo realizado durante la PTL a VAM al ser comparado con el grupo PL ($p = 0,047$; $TE = 0,48$). En relación a la distancia realizada durante la PTL a VAM, ambos grupos no presentaron diferencias significativas ($p < 0,071$; $TE = 0,48$). Las progresiones y los cambios están reportados en la tabla II.

Por otra parte, la PSE entre ambas condiciones no mostró diferencias significativas al término de la PTL ($p = 0,096$; $TE = 0,80$). De igual manera, las [La] de reposo no mostraron diferencias entre el grupo suplementado con BA y el grupo suplementado con PL ($p = 0,634$; $TE = 0,24$). Las progresiones y los cambios están reportados en la tabla II.

**Figura 1.**

A. Diseño metodológico para la aplicación del tratamiento con BA y PL. B. Tiempo de espera entre la ingesta de BA o PL y la ejecución de la prueba de tiempo límite ($VO_{2\max}$: consumo máximo de oxígeno; h: horas; BA: beta-alanina; PL: placebo. Cho's: carbohidratos de fácil absorción; min: minutos).

Tabla II. Tiempos, distancias, PSE y [La] obtenidos en PTL a VAM con BA y PL

	Placebo media ± DS	Beta-alanina media ± DS	t de Student	d de Cohen
Tiempo Tiempo (s)	326,0 ± 84,6	366,5 ± 85,9	*	0,48
Distancia Distancia (m)	1.651,4 ± 370,8	1.828,6 ± 363,8	ns	0,48
Percepción subjetiva del esfuerzo Escala de Borg	7,6 ± 0,53	8,28 ± 1,5	ns	0,80
Concentración de lactato sanguíneo inicial [La] (mmol·L ⁻¹)	2,50 ± 0,67	2,34 ± 0,66	ns	0,24

PTL: prueba de tiempo límite; PSE: percepción subjetiva del esfuerzo; [La]: concentraciones de lactato sanguíneo; VAM: velocidad aeróbica máxima; BA: beta-alanina; PL: placebo; s: segundos; DS: desviación estándar; m: metros; mmol·L⁻¹: milimoles por litro; ns: no significativo. * $p < 0,05$.

Al término de la PTL, la FC de recuperación no mostró diferencias significativas en los minutos 1, 3, 5, 7 y 9 entre las dos condiciones. Las progresiones y los cambios están reportados en la tabla III, mientras que las [La] post-PTL tuvieron diferencias significativas entre ambas condiciones en los minutos 3, 5 y 7. Las progresiones y los cambios están reportados en la tabla III y en la figura 2.

DISCUSIÓN

En relación al objetivo principal de este estudio, los resultados indicaron que la suplementación aguda con BA (30 mg·kg⁻¹) aumentó el tiempo de carrera en una PTL a intensidades correspondientes a VAM (p < 0,05). Según lo evidenciado, luego de la suplementación aguda con BA, el grupo experimental fue capaz de mantener una carrera a VAM por mayor tiempo al ser comparado con el grupo placebo (366,5 ± 85,9 y 326,0 ± 84,6 s, respectivamente). Según las evidencias existentes, tanto los investigadores del presente estudio como Dutka y cols. (24) atribuyen el aumento del rendimiento deportivo al incremento de la sensibilidad del calcio del aparato contráctil cuando se utiliza suplementación de BA. Sumado a lo anterior, Sale y cols. (1) mencionaron que la suplementación con BA puede conducir a una mayor producción de fuerza, mientras que Ririe y cols. (25) asociaron el aumento de rendimiento a una reducción de la fatiga por vasodilatación. Asimismo, Harris y cols. (8), Hill y cols. (14) y Stout y cols. (17) plantearon que el incremento en el rendimiento se debe a un aumento de la carnosina intracelular, y es esta última la que atenuaría la caída del pH intracelular durante las contracciones musculares de alta intensidad. En relación a este último planteamiento, dentro de los hallazgos obtenidos también se evidenció una mayor [La] sanguínea postesfuerzo en los minu-

tos 3, 5 y 7 en el grupo experimental al ser comparado con el grupo placebo. Este incremento en las [La] postesfuerzo se puede asociar a la suplementación con BA, ya que este aminoácido, al contrarrestar la acumulación de H⁺, ayuda a la mantención del pH intramuscular durante el ejercicio intenso (8,14).

Los estudios centrados en los efectos agudos de la suplementación de BA son escasos y contradictorios (19). Invernizzi y cols. (19) concluyeron que la ingesta de 1 g de carnosina y 1 g de BA cuatro horas antes de una prueba de carrera total no tuvo ningún efecto sobre el rendimiento, el esfuerzo percibido, el dolor muscular, ni en la respuesta en las [La] sanguíneas en comparación con el placebo. En dicho estudio, utilizó una muestra de 12 sujetos masculinos sanos y físicamente activos. Sin embargo, no se declararon antecedentes como VO₂, VO_{2máx}, umbral ventilatorio 1 o 2. Esta muestra heterogénea fue constituida por jugadores de fútbol, básquetbol y atletas de pista y campo, por lo que no

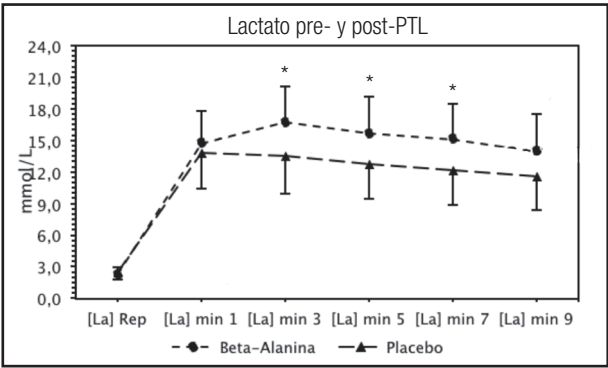


Figura 2. Concentraciones de lactato sanguíneo post-PTL a VAM con suplementación de BA y PL. PTL: prueba de tiempo límite; VAM: velocidad aeróbica máxima. *p < 0,05.

Tabla III. FC y [La] de recuperación posterior a la PTL a VAM con BA y PL

Frecuencia cardiaca postesfuerzo (lpm)						
	Término	min 1	min 3	min 5	min 7	min 9
Placebo	178,8 ± 13,2	148,7 ± 15,2	124,2 ± 13,8	113,5 ± 13,3	114,0 ± 13,4	113,1 ± 10,9
Beta-alanina	185,4 ± 8,0	150,8 ± 19,9	125,5 ± 16,4	115,1 ± 13,9	114,7 ± 14,8	117,2 ± 14,04
t de Student	0,313	0,637	0,632	0,406	0,649	0,121
d de Cohen	0,62	0,12	0,08	0,12	0,05	0,38
Lactato postesfuerzo (mmol·L ⁻¹)						
	Inicio	min 1	min 3	min 5	min 7	min 9
Placebo	2,50 ± 0,67	13,84 ± 3,42	13,60 ± 3,67	12,77 ± 3,26	12,21 ± 3,35	11,62 ± 3,17
Beta-alanina	2,34 ± 0,66	14,80 ± 3,01	16,8 ± 3,35	15,71 ± 3,47	15,18 ± 3,32	14,00 ± 3,57
t de Student	0,634	0,477	0,036	0,037	0,049	0,189
d de Cohen	0,24	0,30	0,91	0,87	0,89	0,71

PTL: prueba de tiempo límite; FC: frecuencia cardiaca; [La]: concentraciones de lactato sanguíneo; VAM: velocidad aeróbica máxima; BA: beta-alanina; PL: placebo; lpm: latidos por minuto; mmol·L⁻¹: milimoles por litro.

determina un patrón similar en la capacidad física de los sujetos. Adicionalmente, el propio autor informó que la dosis empleada no fue suficiente para aumentar el contenido muscular de la carnosina y que la duración del ejercicio empleado no resultó ser óptima (35 s) para observar algún efecto a través de la suplementación aguda con BA. En relación al tiempo de ejecución empleado por Invernizzi y cols. (19), Hobson y cols. (2) demostraron que la suplementación con BA mejora la capacidad de rendimiento durante ejercicios que duren aproximadamente 240 s. Por lo anterior, Invernizzi y cols. (19) no usaron una prueba con un tiempo adecuado para inducir un efecto asociado a la suplementación aguda con BA. Además, Hobson y cols. (2) proporcionaron evidencia del efecto ergogénico de la suplementación con BA debido a su capacidad *buffer* intramuscular, reduciendo que los H^+ que se acumulan durante el ejercicio de alta intensidad con una duración de uno a cuatro minutos. De forma complementaria, Di Pierro y cols. (26) realizaron un estudio preliminar con una ingesta aguda oral de cuatro dosis de 500 mg (250 mg de carnosina y 250 mg de BA) en seis atletas masculinos sometidos a un periodo de entrenamiento intenso. Al término del estudio, se comprobó que la ingesta redujo la producción de lactato en todos los atletas; no obstante, los autores no detallan sobre el ejercicio realizado, la caracterización de la muestra empleada o los resultados obtenidos.

La gran mayoría de los estudios con BA han evidenciado los efectos de este aminoácido con suplementación prolongada (11,18,27-30). Se calculó un efecto global medio de un 2,85% (-0,37 a 10,49%) de incremento del rendimiento luego de la suplementación prolongada con BA, mientras que el tiempo de suplementación osciló entre dos y cuatro semanas (13) y la dosis, entre 2,4 g·día⁻¹ (30) y 6,4 g·día⁻¹ (31,32). Otras investigaciones han declarado incrementos sobre ese 2,85% calculado (14,31). Es así como Hill y cols. (14) y Sale y cols. (31) reportaron incrementos del 11,8% y 12,1% en el rendimiento luego de cuatro semanas de suplementación con BA respectivamente. Por otro lado, varias investigaciones han demostrado que la suplementación prolongada de BA (28 días) aumenta significativamente los niveles elevados de carnosina muscular total (8,14). Hasta la fecha, existen múltiples protocolos de suplementación prolongada de BA (2), pero los estudios no siempre se centran en el efecto ergogénico de la BA como un *buffer* intracelular, por lo que el uso de diferentes estrategias de dosificación y posibles fundamentos a los efectos evidenciados en el rendimiento deportivo no dejan claro si existe un vínculo directo entre la dosis de BA suplementada y el resultado del ejercicio (2). Adicionalmente, el interés de investigar los efectos con protocolos de suplementación aguda con BA se basa no solo en evitar la exposición a semanas de suplementación prolongada, sino también en asegurar que los deportistas usen las dosis establecidas de BA (8,27), para disminuir así el riesgo de exposición a los síntomas de parestesia, que aún siguiendo un esquema de suplementación prolongada no es excluyente a su aparición.

En relación a los efectos secundarios de la suplementación con BA, los primeros estudios informaron los resultados obtenidos al comparar la ingesta de BA con una dosis equivalente a 40 mg·kg⁻¹

de forma libre y la misma dosis pero contenida dentro de un caldo de pollo (8). Los investigadores informaron que tras la administración de la dosis de BA libre varios sujetos evidenciaron síntomas de sofocos, enrojecimiento y sensación espinal desagradable en la piel (parestesia), con una duración de aproximadamente 60 min después de la ingesta (8). No obstante, ningún sujeto evidenció estos síntomas al ingerir la misma dosis contenida en un caldo de pollo, sugiriéndose que las dosis individuales de BA deben ir acompañadas de una dieta normal para limitar el riesgo de parestesia (8). Por tal motivo, en la presente investigación se llevó a cabo un control de la alimentación preentrenamiento (2 g·kg⁻¹ de peso de carbohidratos simples) 60 minutos antes de la suplementación aguda con BA (30 mg·kg⁻¹) y 120 minutos antes de ejecutar la PTL (Fig. 1A y B). Por lo anterior, en la presente investigación no se reportaron síntomas de parestesia por parte de los sujetos de estudio. De forma paralela, Maté-Muñoz y cols. (33) basaron su investigación en una suplementación con 6,4 g·día⁻¹ de BA con dosis de ocho tomas de 800 mg cada 1,5-3 horas de diferencia de ingesta entre tomas por cinco semanas, y aunque los autores expusieron una mejora significativa en la potencia promedio (mayor carga de entrenamiento logrado y más kilogramos levantados) en el grupo suplementado con BA, la mayor limitante reportada por los autores fue llevar a la práctica un protocolo de dosificación donde los deportistas se comprometan con cumplir estrictamente las ingestas señaladas por varias semanas (33).

Por último, en las respuestas individuales existe una variabilidad intersujeto posterior a la suplementación de BA (34), mientras que la variación en la síntesis de carnosina muscular en respuesta a la ingesta de BA es alta (9,14). En algunos estudios se ha descrito que las mujeres requieren menores niveles de suplementación de BA para obtener aumentos relativos similares en carnosina en comparación con los hombres (35). De hecho, según Stout y cols. (17), la suplementación con BA en mujeres aumenta el tiempo hasta el agotamiento y retrasa el inicio de fatiga neuromuscular. Estos datos, junto con el hecho de que la carga de carnosina se ve aumentada aún más en músculos entrenados (36), hacen interesante que la población investigada en el presente estudio cuente con siete deportistas entrenados (tres mujeres y cuatro hombres). En un estudio desarrollado por Glenn y cols. (27), se evaluaron los efectos de la suplementación aguda con BA en mujeres. Al término del estudio, los investigadores concluyeron que la suplementación de 1,6 g de BA no aumentó el rendimiento deportivo (índice de fatiga o potencia de salida), pero sí disminuyó significativamente la RPE (27). No obstante, la dosificación utilizada fue baja, no hubo individualización de suplementación por peso y el protocolo de prueba se basaba en tres pruebas repetidas de ciclismo de Wingate con dos minutos de descanso activo después de cada prueba, por lo que no cumple de igual manera con el tiempo estimado para observar efecto ergogénico en la suplementación con BA, ni con la intensidad constante requerida. Por lo anterior, y al existir poca evidencia en mujeres, se deben seguir explorando las respuestas de la suplementación aguda con BA en esta población.

En conclusión, nuestros hallazgos indican que la suplementación aguda con BA (30 mg·kg⁻¹) 60 minutos previos a una prueba

máxima aumenta el rendimiento deportivo en PTL a intensidades correspondientes a VAM, posiblemente por una mayor capacidad *buffer* del pH durante el ejercicio intenso con duración mayor a 240 s. Aunque las recomendaciones deben esperar más ensayos experimentales, estos hallazgos pueden ser útiles para entrenadores, nutricionistas deportivos, científicos deportivos y atletas que buscan suplementos nutricionales alternativos que mejoren el rendimiento físico evitando periodos de tres a seis semanas de suplementación con BA.

LIMITACIONES DEL ESTUDIO

La principal limitación de nuestro estudio fue el pequeño tamaño de muestra ($n = 7$). Cuatro de los sujetos inscritos no cumplieron con los aspectos requeridos para llevar a cabo satisfactoriamente la PTL. Sin embargo, concluimos exitosamente con siete participantes que completaron adecuadamente el protocolo de *timing*, la suplementación con BA y las pruebas correspondientes.

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Otros

Trabajo Original

Evolución de las variables antropométricas en relación con los parámetros de entrenamiento y nutricionales en corredores de ultrarresistencia de montaña *Evolution in anthropometric variables related to training and nutritional parameters in ultra-endurance mountain runners*

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Resumen

Introducción: los hábitos alimentarios y de entrenamiento provocan modificaciones en los parámetros antropométricos.

Objetivos: analizar la evolución de las variables antropométricas en las once semanas previas a la competición en corredores de montaña populares e identificar los factores que explican dicha evolución.

Métodos: veintidós varones (media de edad: $41,4 \pm 4,1$ años), corredores de montaña recreacionales de ultrarresistencia, participaron en el estudio. Se midieron las variables antropométricas once semanas antes (pre-test) y en los días previos (post-test) a la competición objetivo del año. Los corredores realizaron un registro de su entrenamiento diario durante este periodo. Además, autocumplimentaron la primera y la última semana de estudio el "recordatorio de 24 horas" sobre la ingesta de alimentos, registrando dos días laborales y uno festivo.

Resultados: se encontró un descenso significativo en peso; índice de masa corporal; pliegues subescapular, supraespinal, abdominal y pierna; sumatorio de seis y ocho pliegues; perímetro del brazo corregido; área muscular transversal del brazo; porcentaje y peso graso; peso residual; y endomorfia. También hubo un aumento significativo del porcentaje de masa ósea y muscular, el índice ponderal y la ectomorfia. El análisis correlacional y la regresión lineal mostraron que estos cambios estaban relacionados con factores nutricionales, tales como el porcentaje de grasa consumida en el pre-test, las kilocalorías consumidas en el post-test y/o la diferencia en el porcentaje de grasas y kilocalorías consumidas entre ambas mediciones. No hubo relación con las variables de entrenamiento.

Conclusiones: los cambios antropométricos están influenciados en mayor medida por los hábitos alimentarios que por el entrenamiento en corredores de montaña recreacionales.

Palabras clave:

Adaptación fisiológica. Ciencias de la nutrición deportiva. Deportes. Entrenamiento deportivo. Rendimiento deportivo.

Abstract

Introduction: eating and training habits induce modifications in the anthropometric parameters.

Objectives: to analyze the evolution of the anthropometric variables in the eleven previous weeks to the competition in recreational mountain runners and to identify the factors that could explain those changes.

Methods: twenty-two recreational ultra-endurance mountain runners (mean age: 41.4 ± 4.1 years) took part in the study. Anthropometric variables were measured in the eleventh week before (pre-test) and in the previous days before (post-test) the main competition of the year. Runners registered their daily training during the study. Furthermore, they self-filled the "24-hour reminder" test about food intake, two week days and a weekend day, the first and last week of the study.

Results: it was found a significant decrease in weight; body mass index; subscapular, supraspinal, abdominal and calf skinfolds; six and eight skinfold sums; corrected arm girth, arm transversal muscle area; fat weight and percentage; residual mass; and endomorphy. Bone and muscle mass, ponderal index and ectomorphy showed a significant increase. Correlation analysis and linear regression showed that changes are due to nutritional factors, as fat percentage intake in pre-test, kilocalorie intake in the post-test and/or the differences in the fat percentage and kilocalorie intake between both measurements.

Conclusions: changes in anthropometric variables are influenced by nutritional habits instead of training factors in recreational mountain runners.

Key words:

Physiological adaptation. Sport nutritional sciences. Sports. Exercise training. Athletic performance.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

Las carreras de ultrarresistencia han visto aumentada su popularidad en los últimos años. Diversos autores consideran pruebas de ultrarresistencia todas aquellas que se encuentran por encima de las cuatro horas de duración (1,2), estableciendo otros autores que son carreras cuya distancia es superior a la de una maratón clásica (41.195 km) (3). Dentro de este tipo de competiciones se encuentran las carreras por montaña, pruebas en las cuales los deportistas recorren diferentes senderos por la montaña, con considerables desniveles y en un entorno montañoso duro (3).

Fruto del creciente interés en este tipo de competiciones, numerosos estudios han analizado las variables que podrían predecir el rendimiento en carrera de ultrarresistencia (3,4). Se ha encontrado que el rendimiento depende principalmente de parámetros fisiológicos, antropométricos y factores relacionados con el entrenamiento (4,5). En relación a las variables antropométricas, el rendimiento en carreras de ultrarresistencia sobre asfalto mejora cuando el deportista presenta un menor índice de masa corporal (IMC), porcentaje de masa grasa, sumatorio de ocho pliegues y circunferencia del brazo (4-11). Menos numerosas son las investigaciones que han analizado los parámetros antropométricos que condicionan el rendimiento en corredores de ultrarresistencia por montaña. Se ha encontrado que los atletas con menor IMC, sumatorio de ocho pliegues, masa y porcentaje grasa y pliegue de la pierna tienen un mejor rendimiento en competición (12-15).

Resulta fundamental que el deportista llegue a la competición en unas condiciones morfológicas óptimas. Un desequilibrio entre el aporte calórico y el gasto calórico, ya sea por déficit o superávit, tiene consecuencias en la morfología del individuo y su composición corporal, lo cual puede afectar sobre todo al tejido graso y muscular (16). Por lo tanto, una práctica deportiva sistematizada, junto con una nutrición adecuada, podrían inducir cambios en las variables antropométricas (16,17).

En población deportista se debe considerar la dieta como uno de los factores clave para optimizar el rendimiento deportivo. Una dieta adecuada acerca al atleta a la composición corporal idónea, mientras que una dieta no apropiada puede incluso potenciar la aparición de lesiones (18). Esto cobra especial relevancia en los corredores de ultrarresistencia, pues durante la carrera o el entrenamiento de larga duración no son capaces de compensar el déficit hídrico y energético que se produce, lo que los lleva a una pérdida de masa corporal que no solo se traduce en pérdida de grasa, sino también de masa muscular (19).

A lo largo de una temporada, las variables antropométricas y la composición corporal de los deportistas van variando como consecuencia de las fluctuaciones en el volumen de entrenamiento y la ingesta calórica (20,21). No obstante, no se encuentran estudios que hayan analizado la evolución de estas variables en corredores de ultrarresistencia por montaña, ni sobre los factores que afectan a estas fluctuaciones. Por lo tanto, los objetivos del presente estudio fueron analizar la evolución de las variables antropométricas, en las once semanas previas a la competición

objetivo de la temporada, en corredores de ultrarresistencia por montaña populares e identificar los factores que podrían explicar los cambios en dichas variables.

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

PARTICIPANTES

Veintidós hombres corredores populares de ultrarresistencia por montaña, de entre 30 y 50 años (media de edad: 41,4 $\pm$ 4,1 años), participaron voluntariamente en este estudio. Los participantes tenían como objetivo de la temporada participar en una carrera de montaña de 53 kilómetros de distancia, compuesta por cinco grandes montañas de entre 219 y 485 m y dos pequeños picos de 56 m y 94 m, con un desnivel positivo de 1.941 m y negativo de 1.890 m. Los criterios de inclusión fueron: a) tener una experiencia ininterrumpida de al menos dos años realizando carreras de larga distancia por montaña; b) no haber sufrido lesiones en los últimos tres meses; y c) no presentar enfermedades no transmisibles. Los participantes fueron excluidos si: a) habían sufrido una lesión durante el transcurso del estudio.

DISEÑO DEL ESTUDIO

El estudio fue aprobado por el comité de bioética institucional en Murcia (España), con número de referencia 20/09/13. Todos los procedimientos seguidos estaban en consonancia con lo establecido por la Asociación Médica Mundial y la Declaración de Helsinki. Previo a la realización del proyecto, los participantes fueron informados acerca de los objetivos y métodos del estudio y se obtuvo un consentimiento informado.

La presente investigación es descriptiva y de corte longitudinal. Se realizaron dos valoraciones antropométricas siguiendo los criterios establecidos por la International Society for the Advancement of Kinanthropometry (ISAK) (22). La valoración la realizó un antropometrista nivel 3 acreditado por la ISAK. La primera medición se realizó al comienzo del último macrociclo de entrenamiento previo a la competición objetivo del año, once semanas antes de la misma (pre-test). La segunda medición (post-test) se llevó a cabo al finalizar dicho macrociclo, entre tres y cinco días antes de la competición. Entre ambas mediciones transcurrieron entre 74 y 76 días.

Se valoraron las medidas básicas de peso y talla; los pliegues del tríceps, subescapular, bíceps, supraespinal, cresta iliaca, abdominal, muslo y pierna; los perímetros del brazo relajado, brazo contraído y flexionado, cintura, cadera y pierna; y los diámetros óseos del húmero, de la muñeca y del fémur. Cada medida se tomó dos veces. En caso de que la diferencia entre ambas fuera superior al 5% en los pliegues cutáneos y al 1% en el resto de las medidas, se realizó una tercera medida. Una vez realizadas las medidas correspondientes, se calculó el valor final de la variable. Este fue la media en caso de haber necesitado dos mediciones o la mediana en caso de que se hubiera medido tres veces la variable.

Para medir la masa corporal se utilizó una báscula Seca 862 (Seca®, Alemania) de 100 g de precisión. Para la talla se empleó un tallímetro de la marca Cescorf® (Cescorf®, Brasil) con una precisión de 0,1 cm. Los pliegues cutáneos se valoraron con un plicómetro Holtain (Holtain Ltd., Reino Unido) de 0,2 mm de precisión. Para los perímetros se empleó una cinta métrica milimetrada inextensible Lufkin W606PM (Lufkin, Estados Unidos). Los diámetros fueron valorados con un paquímetro Holtain (Holtain Ltd., Reino Unido). Con el objetivo de eliminar posibles errores en la toma de datos, el material fue calibrado antes de realizar las mediciones.

Las valoraciones fueron realizadas en unas condiciones de temperatura similares (25°). Respecto al protocolo de actividad física y alimentación, los participantes no realizaron ejercicio físico vigoroso ni comidas copiosas durante 24 horas previas a la medición.

Con los datos obtenidos se calculó el IMC, dividiendo el peso en kilogramos entre la altura en metros al cuadrado; los sumatorios de seis y ocho pliegues, estando en el primero recogidos todos los pliegues menos el del bíceps y la cresta iliaca; los perímetros del brazo y de la pierna corregidos (perímetro corregido = perímetro - $\pi \times$ pliegue); el área muscular transversal de la pierna y el brazo (área muscular transversal = $[\text{perímetro} - \text{pliegue} \times \pi]^2 / 4\pi$); y la ratio cintura-cadera (ratio cintura-cadera = perímetro cintura / perímetro cadera).

Para la estimación de la composición corporal se utilizaron las fórmulas de Faulkner, derivada de Yuhasz, para porcentaje graso (23), la de Lee para la masa muscular (24), el porcentaje de masa ósea según Rocha (25) y el peso residual según Würch (26). A partir de estos datos se calcularon el peso graso y el peso óseo (peso del componente = porcentaje del componente $\times$ peso actual) y el porcentaje de masa muscular y residual (porcentaje del componente = peso del componente / peso actual $\times$ 100). Para hallar el somatotipo se siguió la estrategia de Kerr (27), con la cual se obtuvo el valor de endomorfia, mesomorfia y ectomorfia.

Durante el periodo en que transcurrió la investigación no se realizaron indicaciones ni recomendaciones a los participantes acerca de sus hábitos de entrenamiento y alimentarios. Se solicitó a los participantes que realizaran un registro diario de sus entrenamientos durante este macrociclo, indicando el día que entrenaban, la distancia recorrida, el tiempo empleado para cubrir esa distancia y el desnivel positivo. Para ello se les proporcionó una hoja de registro modelo.

También se les solicitó una recogida de datos de hábitos alimenticios, mediante el test de "recordatorio de 24 horas" sobre el consumo de alimentos, que se realizó durante tres días de una misma semana, dos de ellos laborales y uno festivo (26). Este cuestionario se llevó a cabo durante la primera semana de entrenamiento tras el pre-test y en la última semana de entrenamiento previa al post-test. Para realizar el cálculo sobre los macronutrientes consumidos y las kilocalorías ingeridas se utilizó el programa Easydiet (Biocentury S.L.U., España).

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

Todo el análisis se realizó con el paquete estadístico SPSS (versión 21.0, IBM, Estados Unidos). Se valoró la distribución de la

muestra mediante el test de normalidad de Shapiro-Wilks y el test de homogeneidad de la varianza (test de Levene). Las variables siguieron una distribución normal, por lo que para el análisis de las mismas se utilizaron pruebas paramétricas. El nivel de significación para todas las pruebas fue establecido en $p < 0,05$. Mediante la realización de estadística descriptiva se obtuvieron los valores medios y la desviación típica de las variables. Para determinar las diferencias entre el pre- y post-test en las medidas antropométricas y variables derivadas, se utilizó una prueba t de Student para variables dependientes. Para hallar las diferencias entre los parámetros relacionados con el entrenamiento en las once semanas de registro, se utilizó un análisis ANOVA de medidas repetidas para un factor. Para aquellas variables con diferencias significativas, se realizó la corrección de Bonferroni para la comparación por pares, siendo el nivel de significación ajustado a 0,004 (0,05/11). Para analizar los valores de correlación entre los cambios producidos en las variables antropométricas y derivadas con los parámetros relacionados con el entrenamiento deportivo y con los hábitos alimentarios, se utilizó el coeficiente de correlación de Pearson. Posteriormente, se llevó a cabo un análisis de regresión lineal simple para aquellas variables que habían mostrado una correlación significativa. El tamaño del efecto se calculó utilizando el coeficiente d de Cohen con el programa Microsoft® Excel XP (Microsoft Corporation, Estados Unidos). Un valor menor de 0,2 se consideró como tamaño de efecto bajo; un valor entre 0,2 y 0,4, un tamaño del efecto bajo-moderado; un valor entre 0,4 y 0,6, un tamaño del efecto moderado; un valor entre 0,6 y 0,8, un tamaño del efecto moderado-alto; y un valor superior a 0,8, un tamaño del efecto alto (28).

RESULTADOS

En la tabla I se pueden encontrar la media y la desviación típica de las variables antropométricas en el pre-test y el post-test, la significación estadística entre ambas mediciones y el tamaño del efecto. Se encontró una disminución significativa con un tamaño del efecto entre bajo y moderado para peso e IMC, varios pliegues individuales y sumatorio de pliegues; perímetro de brazo corregido y área muscular transversal del brazo; porcentaje y peso graso; peso residual; y endomorfia. También se halló un aumento significativo con un tamaño del efecto entre bajo y moderado en el porcentaje de masa ósea, porcentaje de masa muscular, índice ponderal y ectomorfia. No se encontraron diferencias significativas en el resto de medidas. Los corredores mostraron un somatotipo endomesomorfo en ambas mediciones.

Los resultados relacionados con la dieta de los deportistas en la primera y segunda medición, así como las diferencias y el tamaño del efecto entre ambos momentos se muestran en la tabla II. No se encontraron cambios significativos en ninguna de las variables analizadas.

En la tabla III se encuentran los valores descriptivos de los parámetros de entrenamiento del macrociclo analizado, así como resultados del ANOVA. Si bien se encontraron diferencias significativas en todas las variables, el posterior ajuste de Bonferroni no mostró diferencias significativas en ninguno de los pares.

Tabla I. Valor medio $\pm$ desviación típica de las variables antropométricas y derivadas y valor de significación estadística entre ambas medias de los corredores de *trail*

Variable	Pre-test	Post-test	t	d	p
Peso	81,72 $\pm$ 9,84	80,65 $\pm$ 9,29	3,52	0,11	0,002
Talla	177,47 $\pm$ 5,81	177,84 $\pm$ 5,11	-0,87	0,06	0,201
PL triceps	9,54 $\pm$ 3,71	9,84 $\pm$ 3,41	-1,43	0,08	0,167
PL subescapular	13,56 $\pm$ 5,68	12,56 $\pm$ 4,85	3,94	0,19	0,001
PL bíceps	5,06 $\pm$ 2,11	4,70 $\pm$ 1,52	1,45	0,20	0,163
PL cresta iliaca	18,47 $\pm$ 5,95	17,42 $\pm$ 4,71	2,02	0,19	0,057
PL supraespinal	12,21 $\pm$ 4,09	11,16 $\pm$ 3,50	2,48	0,27	0,022
PL abdominal	22,25 $\pm$ 6,92	20,13 $\pm$ 6,15	5,08	0,32	< 0,001
PL muslo	12,98 $\pm$ 3,54	12,02 $\pm$ 3,67	1,68	0,27	0,107
PL pierna	8,98 $\pm$ 3,86	7,53 $\pm$ 2,34	2,99	0,45	0,007
PR brazo relajado	31,81 $\pm$ 2,61	31,63 $\pm$ 2,48	1,70	0,07	0,105
PR brazo contraído	33,38 $\pm$ 2,52	33,18 $\pm$ 2,35	1,50	0,08	0,149
PR cintura	86,36 $\pm$ 8,65	85,88 $\pm$ 8,19	1,43	0,06	0,167
PR cadera	99,78 $\pm$ 5,68	99,66 $\pm$ 5,50	0,59	0,02	0,568
PR pierna	39,23 $\pm$ 2,31	39,14 $\pm$ 2,13	0,99	0,04	0,332
D húmero	7,19 $\pm$ 0,28	7,16 $\pm$ 0,30	1,54	0,14	0,149
D fémur	10,29 $\pm$ 0,41	10,35 $\pm$ 0,38	1,93	0,15	0,093
D biestiloideo	6,02 $\pm$ 0,29	6,07 $\pm$ 0,23	1,16	0,18	0,370
PR brazo corregido	28,82 $\pm$ 2,05	28,54 $\pm$ 2,01	2,65	0,14	0,015
PR pierna corregido	36,41 $\pm$ 2,21	36,77 $\pm$ 1,96	-1,94	0,17	0,066
AMT brazo	66,42 $\pm$ 9,41	65,13 $\pm$ 9,11	2,69	0,14	0,014
AMT pierna	105,89 $\pm$ 12,82	107,91 $\pm$ 11,34	-1,88	0,17	0,074
IMC	26,00 $\pm$ 3,48	25,65 $\pm$ 3,26	3,49	0,10	0,002
Sumatorio 6 PL	77,11 $\pm$ 21,45	70,80 $\pm$ 17,89	4,50	0,32	< 0,001
Sumatorio 8 PL	100,65 $\pm$ 28,01	92,93 $\pm$ 22,86	4,02	0,30	0,001
Ratio cintura/cadera	0,86 $\pm$ 0,05	0,86 $\pm$ 0,05	1,11	0,06	0,279
Índice ponderal	41,01 $\pm$ 1,91	41,18 $\pm$ 1,85	-3,77	0,09	0,001
Peso graso	9,25 $\pm$ 2,77	8,60 $\pm$ 2,32	4,17	0,25	< 0,001
% grasa	11,12 $\pm$ 2,08	10,50 $\pm$ 1,73	4,50	0,32	< 0,001
Peso óseo	13,05 $\pm$ 0,94	13,06 $\pm$ 0,89	-0,13	0,00	0,872
% masa ósea	16,12 $\pm$ 1,61	16,32 $\pm$ 1,55	-3,77	0,12	0,001
Peso residual	19,69 $\pm$ 2,37	19,43 $\pm$ 2,24	3,52	0,11	0,002
% residual	24,1 $\pm$ 0,0	24,1 $\pm$ 0,0	0,00	0,00	1,000
Peso muscular	39,71 $\pm$ 4,51	39,55 $\pm$ 4,45	1,25	0,04	0,226
% masa muscular	48,65 $\pm$ 1,51	49,06 $\pm$ 1,28	-3,91	0,30	0,001
Endomorfia	3,39 $\pm$ 1,19	3,24 $\pm$ 1,03	2,28	0,14	0,033
Mesomorfia	5,87 $\pm$ 1,28	5,842 $\pm$ 1,221	1,16	0,03	0,260
Ectomorfia	1,63 $\pm$ 1,03	1,72 $\pm$ 1,03	-3,31	0,09	0,003

t: distribución de probabilidad; d: tamaño del efecto de Cohen; p: significación estadística; PL: pliegue; PR: perímetro; D: diámetro; AMT: área muscular transversal; IMC: índice de masa muscular; %: porcentaje.

En la tabla IV se muestran las correlaciones significativas entre las variables antropométricas que mostraron un cambio significativo y los parámetros relacionados con el entrenamiento deportivo y con los hábitos alimentarios. Las correlaciones que no se muestran en la tabla fueron no significativas. Se encontraron correlaciones significativas entre algunos parámetros antropométricos y las variables relacionados con los hábitos alimentarios, pero no con

los parámetros de entrenamiento. El posterior análisis de regresión lineal mostró que los mayores predictores para los cambios antropométricos fueron el porcentaje de grasa consumido en el pre-test, que explica el 28% de la varianza en el peso y el 31% en el IMC, y la diferencia en kilocalorías entre ambas mediciones, que explica el 30% de la varianza del pliegue supraespinal y el 43% de la ectomorfia (Tabla V).

Tabla II. Valor medio $\pm$ desviación típica de los porcentajes de macronutrientes y las kilocalorías consumidas

	Pre-test	Post-test	t	d	p
% HC	55,86 $\pm$ 7,85	56,59 $\pm$ 9,88	-0,501	0,08	0,622
% Pr	26,88 $\pm$ 6,42	27,64 $\pm$ 7,91	-0,792	0,1	0,438
% Gr	17,25 $\pm$ 4,43	15,76 $\pm$ 4,54	1,563	0,33	0,135
kcal totales	11.594,77 $\pm$ 3.555,67	10.934,91 $\pm$ 3.079,37	1,814	0,20	0,086

t: distribución de probabilidad; d: tamaño del efecto de Cohen; p: significación estadística; HC: hidratos de carbono; Pr: proteínas; Gr: grasas; kcal: kilocalorías.

Tabla III. Valor medio $\pm$ desviación típica de los parámetros relacionados con el entrenamiento de los corredores durante las once semanas

	km	Sesiones/semana	Tiempo (min)	Desnivel positivo (m)
Semana nº 1	33,38 $\pm$ 21,92	2,75 $\pm$ 1,37	235,53 $\pm$ 132,14	783,22 $\pm$ 637,89
Semana nº 2	39,59 $\pm$ 25,83	3,05 $\pm$ 1,57	285,32 $\pm$ 169,77	895,19 $\pm$ 775,08
Semana nº 3	32,79 $\pm$ 23,80	2,50 $\pm$ 1,46	222,76 $\pm$ 151,16	813,58 $\pm$ 688,05
Semana nº 4	32,83 $\pm$ 18,52	2,70 $\pm$ 1,21	295,81 $\pm$ 236,89	943,69 $\pm$ 703,15
Semana nº 5	40,79 $\pm$ 26,41	2,95 $\pm$ 1,53	314,26 $\pm$ 176,13	1.137,66 $\pm$ 933,05
Semana nº 6	38,95 $\pm$ 24,65	3,05 $\pm$ 1,23	279,89 $\pm$ 168,77	836,86 $\pm$ 994,36
Semana nº 7	30,14 $\pm$ 23,71	2,20 $\pm$ 1,28	204,79 $\pm$ 154,43	706,67 $\pm$ 644,18
Semana nº 8	31,05 $\pm$ 25,71	2,35 $\pm$ 1,72	221,07 $\pm$ 192,22	836,84 $\pm$ 839,17
Semana nº 9	43,01 $\pm$ 36,95	2,65 $\pm$ 1,81	329,93 $\pm$ 339,62	1.191,02 $\pm$ 1.183,54
Semana nº 10	50,14 $\pm$ 30,10	2,90 $\pm$ 1,02	392,15 $\pm$ 273,21	1.854,37 $\pm$ 1.617,01
Semana nº 11	32,61 $\pm$ 20,69	2,70 $\pm$ 1,59	205,77 $\pm$ 126,63	703,93 $\pm$ 622,01
Valor de F y p	F = 75,35; p < 0,001	F = 140,65; p < 0,001	F = 92,44; p < 0,001	F = 60,88; p < 0,001

F: coeficiente del grado de variación; p: significación estadística; m: kilómetros; min: minutos; m: metros.

Tabla IV. Análisis de las correlaciones entre las variables antropométricas y las variables nutricionales

	Porcentaje de grasa consumida pre-test	Kilocalorías consumidas post-test	Diferencia de grasas (pre-post)	Diferencia de kilocalorías (pre-post)
Peso	r = -0,53; p = 0,01			
PL subescapular		r = 0,45; p = 0,04		
PL supraespinal			r = 0,44; p = 0,04	r = 0,55; p = 0,01
PL abdominal	r = -0,49; p = 0,03			
IMC	r = -0,55; p = 0,01			
Sum 8 PL				r = 0,48; p = 0,03
Endomorfia			r = 0,45; p = 0,04	
Ectomorfia				r = 0,66; p = 0,002

r: coeficiente de correlación; p: significación estadística; PL: pliegue; IMC: índice de masa corporal; Sum: sumatorio.

DISCUSIÓN

Los objetivos de esta investigación fueron analizar la evolución de las variables antropométricas, en las once semanas previas a la competición objetivo de la temporada, en corredores de ultrarresistencia por montaña populares, e identificar los factores

ambientales que podrían explicar los cambios en dichas variables. Entre los principales hallazgos se evidenció una reducción de los parámetros que dependen de la grasa corporal, como son los pliegues individuales, especialmente en el tronco y miembro inferior, el sumatorio de seis y ocho pliegues, el porcentaje y peso graso y la endomorfia. Los resultados del presente estudio coinciden

Tabla V. Análisis de regresión lineal para determinar la relación entre los cambios antropométricos y las variables nutricionales

	R²	F	p
<i>Peso</i>			
Porcentaje grasa pre-test	0,28	6,94	0,01
<i>PL subescapular</i>			
kcal post-test	0,20	4,62	0,04
<i>PL supraespinal</i>			
Diferencia en kcal	0,30	7,67	0,01
<i>PL abdominal</i>			
Porcentaje grasa pre-test	0,24	5,64	0,03
<i>IMC</i>			
Porcentaje grasa pre-test	0,31	7,9	0,01
<i>Sumatorio 8 pliegues</i>			
Diferencia en Kcal	0,23	5,36	0,03
<i>Endomorfia</i>			
Diferencia en porcentaje grasas	0,20	4,46	0,04
<i>Ectomorfia</i>			
Diferencia en Kcal	0,43	13,66	0,002

R²: coeficiente de determinación; *F*: valor de la prueba *F* de Snedecor; *p*: significación estadística; *kcal*: kilocalorías; *IMC*: índice de masa corporal.

con los hallados en investigaciones previas que encuentran una disminución de la adiposidad a lo largo de la temporada conforme el atleta se acerca a su pico máximo de rendimiento (20,21).

La masa grasa ha sido uno de los parámetros más analizados en las últimas décadas por su relación con el estado de salud del individuo. Se ha encontrado que mayores porcentajes de grasa corporal están relacionados con la aparición de enfermedades cardiovasculares, sobrepeso y obesidad, hipertensión arterial, diabetes y síndrome metabólico (29-31). La disminución de tejido graso mostrada por los corredores de la presente investigación podría reducir la probabilidad de estos deportistas de padecer las enfermedades mencionadas. Esto es especialmente importante si se tiene en cuenta la gran incidencia de este tipo de patologías entre los varones adultos (29).

Numerosos artículos han encontrado una relación inversa entre las variables relacionadas con la adiposidad y el rendimiento en competiciones de larga distancia en diferentes modalidades (4-11). Más concretamente, en corredores por montaña las variables que han demostrado tener una mayor importancia sobre el rendimiento del deportista son el sumatorio de ocho pliegues, la masa y porcentaje grasa y el pliegue de la pierna (12-15). Los participantes del presente estudio mostraron una disminución de todas estas variables, lo que podría suponer una mejora de su rendimiento en carrera.

Otro hallazgo importante de la presente investigación fue que eran los atletas que más habían disminuido su consumo energético total y de grasas, los que menos kilocalorías consumían en el post-test y/o más grasas consumían en el pre-test, y los

que más cambios mostraron en los parámetros antropométricos relacionados con la adiposidad, pudiendo explicar entre el 20 y el 30% de la varianza. La disminución del aporte calórico podría haber desencadenado en un déficit calórico. Esto, a su vez, pudo originar cambios en la morfología y la composición corporal, relacionados sobre todo con el tejido graso como consecuencia de la reducción en la ingesta de grasas (17).

En la presente investigación no se ha encontrado una relación entre la disminución de las variables relacionadas con la adiposidad del atleta y los parámetros de entrenamiento. Estudios previos señalan que no existe relación entre el entrenamiento y la disminución del grosor de los pliegues o el sumatorio de los mismos tanto en corredores de larga distancia como en corredores de montaña, estando estos parámetros más influidos por otros factores como la nutrición (13,14), lo que concuerda con lo encontrado en la presente investigación. Por otro lado, los corredores que formaron parte de este estudio eran corredores por montaña antes de participar en la presente investigación. Con la realización sistemática de ejercicio se producen una serie de adaptaciones y es necesario que el entrenamiento progrese respetando los principios básicos de entrenamiento para que se produzcan nuevas adaptaciones (32). En la presente investigación no se intervino sobre el entrenamiento realizado por los participantes. Por lo tanto, la ausencia de relación entre las variables relacionadas con el entrenamiento y los parámetros antropométricos podría deberse al no cumplimiento de estos principios por parte de los participantes.

Los perímetros corregidos y áreas musculares se han propuesto como indicadores válidos y fiables de la masa muscular en las extremidades (33). Los corredores de montaña mostraron una disminución significativa del perímetro corregido y área muscular del brazo tras el macrociclo de entrenamiento, lo que indica que se redujo la masa muscular del miembro superior. Los cambios encontrados podrían deberse a las adaptaciones morfológicas que se producen en función del entrenamiento. Los corredores del presente estudio no realizaron ningún entrenamiento del tren superior. Esto, añadido al gasto calórico inducido por la larga duración de los entrenamientos y las adaptaciones fisiológicas al mismo (29), pudo provocar la disminución de la masa muscular del miembro superior. En línea con los hallazgos de la presente investigación, se ha encontrado que en periodos de gran volumen de entrenamientos hay pérdidas selectivas de masa muscular en aquellos miembros que menos intervienen en la acción deportiva (34).

Estudios previos han señalado que un menor perímetro del brazo es un indicador de un mayor rendimiento deportivo en corredores de diferentes distancias, al reducirse el coste energético en carrera (10,35,36). Por lo tanto, el cambio encontrado en los corredores de montaña podría suponer una mejora del rendimiento deportivo en carrera.

No se encontraron cambios significativos en el perímetro corregido y el área muscular transversal de la pierna, lo que indica que no se produjeron alteraciones en la masa muscular del miembro inferior. Esto podría ser consecuencia de que el entrenamiento llevado a cabo por los corredores se focalizó en el miembro inferior.

Estudios previos ya han reportado que ante un gran gasto calórico se podría mantener la masa muscular en aquellas extremidades que más intervienen en la acción deportiva (20,21,37).

El peso, el IMC y el índice ponderal han sido clásicamente relacionados con el estado de salud del sujeto. No obstante, su utilización en población deportista ha sido cuestionada al no permitir diferenciar entre masa grasa y muscular (38). En el presente estudio se hallaron una disminución del peso y el IMC y un aumento del índice ponderal y la ectomorfia tras el periodo de seguimiento. Al no haber cambiado la talla de los participantes, todas las variaciones encontradas en estos parámetros son consecuencia directa de la disminución del peso tras el macrociclo de entrenamiento. Al analizar la evolución de la composición corporal se encontró que se produjo una disminución del peso grasa, mientras que el peso muscular se mantuvo. Por tanto, el cambio en el peso podría deberse a la disminución de la masa grasa. La disminución del peso de los participantes podría implicar una mejora de su estado de salud (38), así como del rendimiento en carreras de larga distancia (3,4,6,12,13) al disminuir el gasto energético (35,36).

Al analizar el peso, el IMC y la ectomorfia en relación a los hábitos deportivos y nutricionales de los corredores, se halló que fueron los atletas que más porcentaje de grasas consumían en la primera medición y/o quienes más disminuyeron su ingesta de kilocalorías entre ambas mediciones quienes mayores cambios mostraron, explicando el modelo entre el 28% y el 43% de la varianza. Esto podría ser consecuencia, principalmente, del déficit calórico provocado por los cambios en las variables nutricionales, junto con el mantenimiento de la práctica sistemática de ejercicio (17).

Respecto al resto de factores de la composición corporal, los corredores mostraron un aumento del porcentaje muscular y óseo transcurridas las once semanas de duración del estudio. Esto podría deberse a que se produjo una disminución del peso total de los sujetos sin modificaciones en la masa muscular y ósea de los mismos al mantenerse el nivel de práctica deportiva realizado por los participantes (20,21,37). También se encontró una disminución significativa del peso residual en la segunda medición. Al tratarse de una variable calculada con un porcentaje constante dependiente del sexo (26), la disminución observada en este peso se debe a la variación producida en el peso total de los corredores.

En el aspecto nutricional, los hidratos de carbono son la fuente principal de energía implicada en la actividad física. Existe un consenso acerca de que los hidratos de carbono deben suponer entre un 55% y un 65% del consumo total de calorías en deportistas (19,39). Los corredores del presente estudio mostraron valores dentro de los recomendados en ambos momentos de medición. Respecto al resto de macronutrientes, las necesidades proteicas varían en función de la modalidad deportiva, de manera que los deportistas de resistencia necesitan un aporte que suponga el 10-15% de las calorías consumidas (39). Los corredores estudiados consumieron un porcentaje mayor al indicado por la bibliografía, que llegó a alcanzar el 27%. A su vez, el consumo de grasas se situó por debajo del recomendado en corredores (20-35%) (39). Estos hallazgos son similares a los encontrados en otros

corredores de ultrarresistencia durante la fase de entrenamiento antes de la competición principal (40,41). Por tanto, se encuentra que los hábitos alimentarios de los corredores recreacionales de ultrarresistencia son mejorables (41). Sería recomendable que esta población de deportistas contara con asesoramiento profesional de un nutricionista con el fin de realizar una ingesta suficiente, equilibrada y adaptada a las necesidades fisiológicas de esta modalidad deportiva. Así podrían alcanzar una morfología corporal que potenciara su rendimiento en competición (12-15).

La principal fortaleza del presente estudio radica en la aportación de información relevante sobre los cambios antropométricos que se producen con el entrenamiento en corredores por montaña recreacionales, así como las variables relacionadas con dichos cambios, ya que se trata del primer estudio que analiza estas cuestiones. Como principal limitación destaca el tamaño de la muestra, así como las características de la misma, por lo que serían necesarios futuros estudios que analicen la evolución de estos parámetros en deportistas de élite, sin experiencia previa o de diferente sexo y rango de edad. Otra limitación se encuentra en que en la presente investigación no se intervino sobre la planificación del entrenamiento o los hábitos de ingesta alimentaria de los corredores. Sería necesario en el futuro analizar la influencia de un programa de intervención sobre estos parámetros. Otra posible limitación es la falta de veracidad de las respuestas de los participantes en los cuestionarios realizados.

En conclusión, en los meses previos a la competición se produce una disminución de las variables relacionadas con la adiposidad del corredor. Estos cambios están influenciados por los hábitos alimentarios en el consumo de macronutrientes y el déficit o superávit de kilocalorías. Los factores relacionados con el entrenamiento como la distancia recorrida, el tiempo de entrenamiento, las sesiones realizadas y los metros de desnivel positivo no parecen afectar en las variaciones producidas en los parámetros antropométricos.

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Trabajo Original

Efficacy of urine urea nitrogen measurement to assess the compliance with protein restricted diets

Eficacia de la medición de nitrógeno ureico urinario para evaluar la adherencia a dietas restringidas en proteínas

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Abstract

Background: protein restriction is the mainstay of dietary management of chronic kidney disease.

Aim: to assess the usefulness of urine urea nitrogen measurement as a marker of protein restriction.

Methods: healthy young participants were randomly divided in two groups. During 14 days, one group received a diet containing 30 kcal/kg body weight and 1 g protein/kg body weight and the other group received a diet with the same amount of calories and 0.6 g/kg of proteins. At baseline, seven days and 14 days, 24 h dietary recalls were answered by the participants. They collected 24 hour urine and provided spot urine samples at baseline and at the end of the intervention, to measure creatinine and urea nitrogen.

Results: forty-one participants aged 29 ± 5 years completed the follow-up. According to 24h dietary recalls, the group receiving 0.6 g/kg protein reduced significantly the protein intake during the intervention from 0.88 ± 0.06 to 0.59 ± 0.05 g/kg/day. A significant reduction in 24 h urea nitrogen excretion was also observed in this group. In the group receiving 1 g/kg of protein, no significant changes in 24 h urea nitrogen excretion were observed. Among all participants, the odds ratio of observing a reduction in protein intake in the dietary survey was 5.75 (95% confidence intervals 1.29-25.55, $p = 0.02$), when a reduction in 24 h urea nitrogen excretion corrected by creatinine was observed. No changes were observed in urea nitrogen excretion in spot urine samples.

Conclusions: repeated urea nitrogen excretion measured in 24 h urine samples can be a reliable indicator of dietary protein restriction.

Key words:

Protein restriction.
Urine nitrogen. Kidney disease.

Resumen

Introducción: la restricción proteica es fundamental en el manejo de la enfermedad renal crónica.

Objetivo: evaluamos la utilidad de la medición de nitrógeno ureico urinario como marcador de restricción proteica.

Métodos: participantes jóvenes sanos fueron divididos aleatoriamente en dos grupos. Un grupo recibió una dieta con 30 kcal/día/kg peso corporal y 1 g/proteína/día/kg peso corporal y el otro recibió una dieta con la misma cantidad de calorías pero con 0,6 g/kg peso corporal de proteína. Al inicio, a los siete y a los 14 días, los participantes respondieron una encuesta dietaria de recordatorio de 24 horas. Además, recolectaron orina de 24 horas y se les tomó una muestra aislada de orina al comienzo y a los 14 días de la intervención para medir creatinina y nitrógeno ureico.

Resultados: cuarenta y un participantes de 29 ± 5 años completaron el estudio. El grupo que consumió 0,6 g/kg de proteínas redujo su ingesta proteica de $0,88 \pm 0,06$ a $0,59 \pm 0,05$ g/kg/día durante la intervención. En este grupo se observó una reducción significativa en la excreción urinaria de nitrógeno ureico en 24 horas. No se observó tal reducción en el grupo que consumió 1 g/kg de proteínas. La tasa de probabilidad de detectar una reducción en la ingesta proteica en las encuestas dietarias, cuando se observaba una disminución en la excreción urinaria de nitrógeno ureico/mg creatinina de 24 horas, fue de 5,75 (intervalos de confianza de 95% = 1,29-25,55, $p = 0,02$). No hubo cambios significativos en la excreción de nitrógeno ureico en las muestras aisladas de orina.

Conclusión: las mediciones repetidas de nitrógeno ureico urinario en 24 horas son un marcador de restricción dietaria de proteínas.

Palabras clave:

Restricción proteica.
Nitrógeno ureico.
Enfermedad renal.

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INTRODUCTION

Most guidelines recommend a dietary protein restriction for patients with chronic kidney disease, aiming at delaying the entry to dialysis and eventually retarding the disease progression. The usual recommendation is to reduce protein intake to 0.6 to 0.8 g/kg/day (1). Another alternative is to reduce protein intake to 0.2-0.3 g/kg/day and provide keotacid supplements (2).

The problem with protein restriction in ambulatory and usually asymptomatic patients is the compliance with the recommendation and the assessment of such compliance. In general, adherence to dietary changes is complicated to achieve and difficult to monitor. The usual method to determine adherence is the use of dietary recalls but again, these rely on the accuracy and veracity of patients' reports. Thus, this method may become an unreliable source of information if not performed following strict protocols (3).

Urine urea nitrogen excretion has been suggested as other method to assess the adherence to protein restricted diets. Organisms adapt to low protein diets reducing the urine excretion of nitrogen (4). Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess changes in 24 h or spot urine urea nitrogen excretion in healthy individuals consuming a diet providing 1 or 0.6 g/kg/day of proteins in a 14-day period.

METHODS

Healthy adults aged between 18 and 45 years, with an estimated glomerular filtration rate over 90 ml/min/1.73 m², with a body mass index between 19 and 34 kg/m², not engaged in vigorous physical activities and not taking medications, were invited to participate in the study. The study was approved by the Institute of Nutrition and Food Technology (INTA) Ethics Committee and all participants signed a written informed consent.

At baseline, a 24 h dietary recall was carried out using an atlas of different portions of usual Chilean foods, to increase the accuracy of the recall. Weight and height were measured and participants were requested to collect their urine in a container during 24 h. At the next morning, when they brought their urine collection, a spot urine sample was also obtained.

Subsequently, participants were randomly allocated, using a special iterative software based on random number generation, matching by age and body mass index to two groups receiving diets containing 30 kcal/k and 1 or 0.6 g/protein/day. In the group receiving 0.6 g/kg/day, missing protein calories were substituted by carbohydrates to provide the same amount of calories and micronutrients in both groups. Diet prescription was complemented with pictures of the common portions for Chilean food. One week after the initial assessment, participants were appointed to assess the compliance with the diet and reinforce the prescription when deviations from the initial indication were detected. At the end of the second intervention week, participants provided a new 24 h urine collection and a spot urine sample. A new 24 h dietary recall was done to determine the compliance with the prescribed diet.

In the urine samples, creatinine was determined by the Jaffe kinetic method and urea nitrogen by an UV-kinetic method in

a certified clinical laboratory. Urea nitrogen concentration was expressed as absolute values or per mmol of creatinine.

Normality of variable distribution was assessed using Shapiro-Wilks test. Variables with a normal distribution are expressed as mean $\pm$ standard deviation, otherwise as median (interquartile range). Differences between values with a normal distribution were assessed using Student's t test. Otherwise, Kruskal-Wallis test was used. Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to compare changes in urea nitrogen excretion in each group. Correlations between urea nitrogen in spot and 24 h urine samples were determined by Pearson's correlation coefficient. The association between the reduction in protein intake according to the dietary recall and urea nitrogen excretion (corrected or not by creatinine excretion) was analyzed using logistic regression models, using gender and age of participants as covariates.

RESULTS

Participant flow is shown in figure 1. Fifty five participants were randomized and 14 withdrew from the study. Therefore, 41 completed the two weeks of intervention. Demographic and

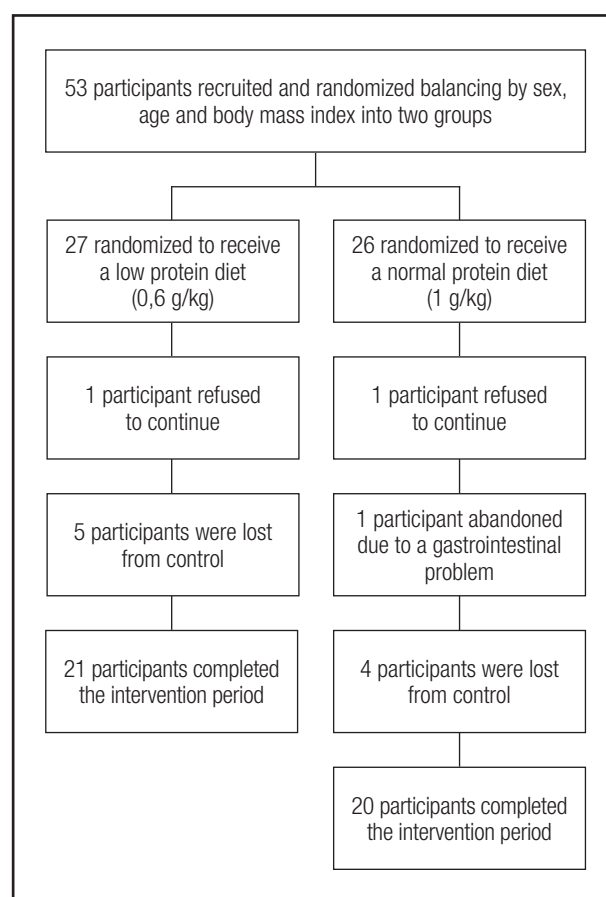


Figure 1.

Participant flow during the study. Recruited, randomized and lost participants are depicted.

clinical features of participants who finished the intervention period are shown in table I. Although randomization was carried out balancing for age, participants in the low protein diet who finished the study were significantly younger than their counterparts with normal diet.

According to the dietary recall, protein intake at baseline among participants in the normal and low protein diets was 0.97 ± 0.09 and 0.88 ± 0.06 g/kg/day, respectively ($p = \text{NS}$). At the end of the intervention, the figures were 0.78 ± 0.07 and 0.59 ± 0.05 g/kg/day in the group with normal or low protein intake, respectively ($p = 0.02$). The changes in 24 h urine urea nitrogen expressed as absolute values or corrected by creatinine excretion are shown in figure 2. There was a significant decrease in absolute urine urea nitrogen excretion among participants in the low protein diet and no changes in their counterparts with normal protein intake. No significant differences between groups were observed when urea nitrogen was corrected by creatinine excretion. When spot urine samples were used, no significant change was observed either. There was no correlation between

urea nitrogen measured in spot urine samples and that measured in 24 h samples ($r = 0.11$ and 0.2 at baseline and the end of the intervention, respectively, $p = \text{NS}$).

On a secondary analysis of all participants, a logistic regression showed that the odds ratio of observing a reduction in protein intake in the dietary survey in all the participants was 5.75 (95% confidence intervals 1.29-25.55, $p = 0.02$), when a reduction in 24 h urea nitrogen excretion, corrected by creatinine, was observed. The odds ratio for 24 h urea nitrogen excretion, not corrected by creatinine, was not significant (2.29, 95% confidence intervals 0.54-9.63, $p = 0.26$).

DISCUSSION

We observed that 24 h urea nitrogen excretion significantly decreased after 14 days with a protein restricted diet in participants with normal kidney function. A reduction in 24 h urea nitrogen excretion, corrected by creatinine, indicated that there

Table I. Demographic and clinical features of participants who completed the intervention period (expressed as $x \pm$ standard deviation)

	Group with protein restricted diet (n = 21)	Group with normal protein diet (n = 20)	p
Age (years)	27.2 ± 4.7	31.1 ± 4.8	0.01
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	25.9 ± 4.8	26.7 ± 3.6	0.6
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	117.8 ± 7.7	121.5 ± 10.7	0.4
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	74.0 ± 6.8	76.7 ± 10.5	0.5
Serum creatinine ($\mu\text{mol/l}$)	70.5 ± 14.8	73.4 ± 11.3	0.5

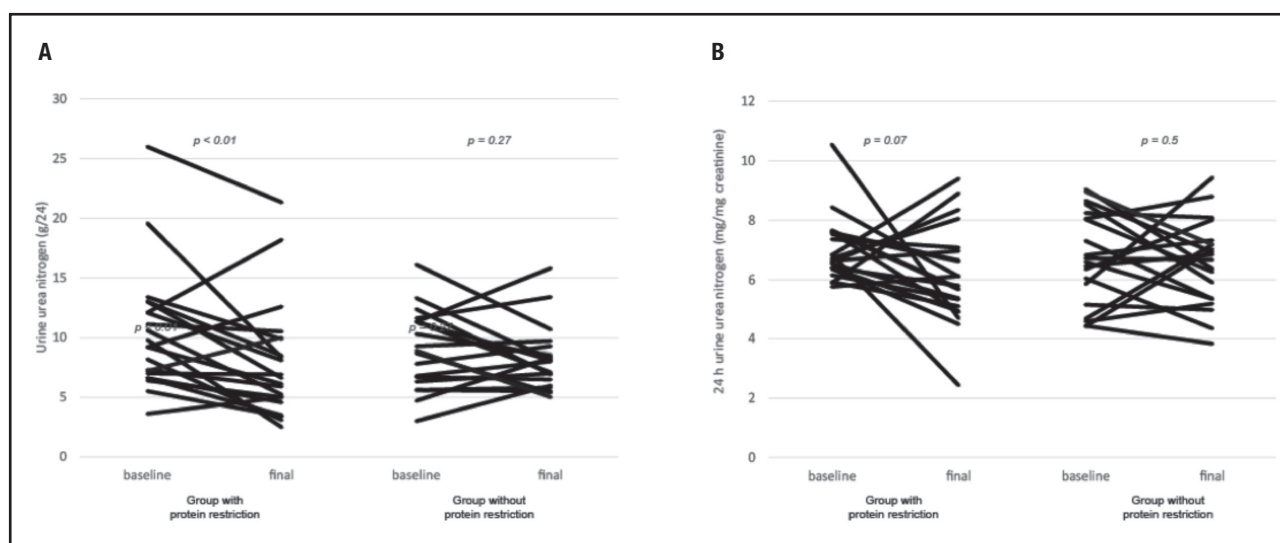


Figure 2.

Changes in 24 h urea nitrogen excretion after the dietary intervention in participants with and without dietary protein restriction. A. Urine urea nitrogen excretion at baseline and at the end of the intervention, expressed as g/24 h. B. Expressed as mg/mg creatinine. Significance of changes from baseline to the end of the intervention was calculated using Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

was a high probability that a reduction in protein intake really occurred. When spot urine samples were used, no significant change was observed.

It is common knowledge that urine nitrogen excretion decreases when dietary protein intake is restricted (5). The time to obtain a stable urea nitrogen excretion after providing a protein restricted diet is approximately eight days (6), therefore the intervention period of 14 days should be more than enough to detect changes in urine urea nitrogen. There is scarce information if this reduction can be detected with mild restrictions, such as those used in chronic kidney disease. Also, working with ambulatory subjects in whom the completeness of urine collections cannot be ascertained is another source of uncertainty about the value of urine urea nitrogen measurements. This study provides evidence to show that, even considering all the possible biases, a reduction in 24 h urea nitrogen excretion can be a reliable indicator of a reduction in protein intake. Moreover, when a reduction in urine urea nitrogen excretion corrected by creatinine is detected, there is a high probability that a reduction in protein intake really occurred.

We also showed that spot urine samples are not reliable for assessing protein intake. Although more feasible than collecting 24 h urine, the variability of urea nitrogen excretion during the day induced by food intake precludes the use of spot samples (7,8). Studies done in hospitalized patients receiving continuous feeding conclude that shorter urine collection times can be used to determine 24 h nitrogen excretion (9). Our results are in contrast with a recent report showing that spot urine samples can accurately predict protein intake in patients with chronic kidney disease. However, this was a cross-sectional study (10). Another study, in which postmenopausal women were supplemented with 45 g of whey protein, showed that urinary urea nitrogen excretion increases with higher protein intake. The authors even calculated a regression equation to predict protein intake from urea excretion. However, this extrapolation is far-fetched considering that the R^2 of the equation was only 0.34 (11).

The weaknesses of this study are the unfortunate age imbalance between groups, although this difference should not

influence our results. Also, these participants had normal renal function but we considered unethical to have a control group with kidney failure, since the benefits of protein restriction are well known (12). An observational study would be worthwhile among these patients.

In conclusion, a reduction in 24 urine urea nitrogen can be a reliable indicator that subjects are adhering to a protein restricted diet.

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Trabajo Original

Otros

Casein-derived peptides as an alternative ingredient for low-phenylalanine diets *Péptidos derivados de la caseína como ingrediente alternativo para las dietas bajas en fenilalanina*

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Abstract

Introduction: casein-derived peptides can be liberated both *in vivo* via normal digestion of casein, as well as *in vitro* via enzymatic hydrolysis. These peptides were suggested to have biological activity.

Objectives: the aim of this study was to describe the production and characterization of casein peptides and to explore the potential of these peptides as an option for low-phenylalanine diets.

Methods: peptides were produced by tryptic hydrolysis of sodium caseinate and acid precipitation with HCl, followed by precipitation with ethanol or aggregation of CaCl₂ or ZnSO₄.

Results: the amino acid analysis revealed a significant reduction in the amount of phenylalanine from the original protein.

Conclusion: casein-derived peptides could be a future alternative of short chain peptides to low-phenylalanine formulations.

Key words:

Casein. Peptides.
Phenylalanine.
Phenylketonuria.

Resumen

Introducción: los péptidos derivados de la caseína se pueden liberar tanto *in vivo*, a través de la digestión normal de la caseína, como *in vitro* a través de la hidrólisis enzimática. Se sugirió que estos péptidos tenían actividad biológica.

Objetivos: el objetivo de este estudio fue describir la producción y caracterización de péptidos de caseína y explorar el potencial de estos péptidos como una opción para las dietas con bajo contenido de fenilalanina.

Métodos: los péptidos se produjeron por hidrólisis triptica de caseinato de sodio y precipitación ácida con HCl, seguido de precipitación con etanol o agregación de CaCl₂ o ZnSO₄.

Resultados: el análisis de aminoácidos reveló una reducción significativa en la cantidad de fenilalanina de la proteína original.

Conclusión: los péptidos derivados de la caseína podrían ser una alternativa futura de los péptidos de cadena corta a las formulaciones con bajo contenido de fenilalanina.

Palabras clave:

Caseína. Péptidos.
Fenilalanina.
Fenilcetonuria.

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INTRODUCTION

Caseins are the main milk proteins; they constitute a heterogeneous group of phosphoproteins present as stable calcium phosphate-protein complexes named micelles. Their biological functions include supplying phosphate (PO_4), calcium (Ca^{2+}) and proteins to neonate, and the release of peptides with biological activity (1). Casein-derived peptides can be liberated both *in vivo* via normal digestion of casein, as well as *in vitro* via enzymatic hydrolysis. These peptides have been shown to enhance intestinal maturation in newborns with symptoms of infantile diarrhea or necrotizing colitis (2). Additionally, they can stimulate insulin secretion and lower postprandial blood glucose levels, which demonstrates their relevance for diabetes 2 prevention and management (3). Moreover, some casein-derived peptides are high-energy phenylalanine-free food sources that can play a unique role on nourishing and preventing major neurocognitive deficits on patients with phenylketonuria (PKU) (4).

Phenylketonuria (PKU) is a hereditary metabolic disorder caused by a deficiency of hepatic phenylalanine hydroxylase, which converts the amino acid phenylalanine into tyrosine. Classical phenylketonuria has an international average incidence of 1:11,000 living newborns. If left untreated, the patient will present high phenylalanine concentrations in blood and tissues. This results in severe clinical manifestations such as mental retardation, epilepsy, and behavioral problems. Early detection and strict dietary control is thus essential for those patients (5-8).

The goal of a treatment with dietary restriction is to maintain blood phenylalanine concentrations within defined target limits, which may vary from country to country (7). The diet should be supplemented with formulas composed of mixtures of amino acids and/or derivatives of proteins in which phenylalanine has been reduced or excluded. Several phenylalanine-free formulas are available in the market. They are a mixture of amino acids plus carbohydrates, vitamins, minerals, and other ingredients, depending on the formula. Usually, they come in powder form and must be reconstituted in water according to the amount recommended by the health professional who monitors the patient. The treatments available may affect absorption of trace elements due to the fact that those diets are poor in animal protein and rich in plant fibers and phytates (9).

Therefore, the nutritional management of PKU would greatly benefit from new dietary options, in addition to new synthetic amino acids formulations that facilitate ingestion of a low-phenylalanine protein source throughout the day (10). Our objective is to explore the potential of casein-derived peptides as an option for low-phenylalanine diets and to describe the production and characterization of these peptides.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

MATERIALS

Casein-derived peptides were obtained from sodium caseinate (Lactonat HV, Lactoprot Deutschland GmbH), with the follow-

ing composition: protein: 87.5%; moisture: 5.8%; ash: 5.3%; fat: 1.7%; lactose: 0.3%; and pH: 6.6. The Pancreatic Trypsin Novo (PTN 6.0S) enzyme was kindly provided by Novozymes (Novozymes A/S, Denmark).

CASEIN DIGESTION

Peptides were produced by three different methods, although under the same hydrolysis conditions. In the first process, sodium caseinate was hydrolyzed by trypsin with an enzyme to substrate ratio of 1:100, for 240 minutes, at pH 8 and at a temperature of 50 °C. Subsequently, the pH was adjusted to 4.64 with 2M HCl. The insoluble precipitate form was removed via centrifugation at 3,000 xg for ten minutes. This procedure aimed to remove the hydrophobic peptides from protein hydrolysate. CaCl_2 (1%) and ethanol (50%) were added to the supernatant; then the precipitate was collected by centrifugation at 4,000 xg for 15 minutes. These peptides were lyophilized and named peptide A (PA).

For the second process, the same procedures were performed as described for PA, but after the addition of CaCl_2 , the solution was ultrafiltered through a 10 kDa membrane. The pH of the retentate was reduced to 3.55. The product was submitted to diafiltration (1 kDa) with water and concentrated. Thereafter, the pH was raised to 7. The product was lyophilized and named peptide B (PB).

For the third process, the initial steps, which correspond to an acid precipitation, were similar to the previous ones, however 1.1% ZnSO_4 was added in order to promote the aggregation of peptides to zinc. The solution was ultrafiltered through a 10 kDa membrane, diafiltered (1 kDa) and concentrated. The product was then lyophilized and named peptide C (PC).

CHARACTERIZATION OF CASEIN PEPTIDES

Composition

Samples were analyzed for nitrogen content by micro-Kjeldahl. Protein content was calculated by multiplying the nitrogen content by 6.25. Ashes were measured via incineration method at 450 °C. Phosphorus content was determined by the molybdovanadate colorimetric method, procedures 22.042-2045 (11).

Amino acids

For the determination of amino acids, samples were hydrolyzed at 110 °C in the presence of 6M HCl for 22 hours. By the end of this period, the acid had evaporated; the pH was raised to 8 and the volume to 20 ml. Before the analysis, samples were filtered through 0.22 µm membranes. The analysis was performed by a PNA 402 (Protein and Nucleic Acid Analyzer, Applied Biosystems), with borate buffer at pH 9 at 15 °C. The detection was made on 400 nm/500 nm with a 10 mW laser and 500 KHz.

Predicted protein efficiency ratio

Predicted protein efficiency ratio (PER) was calculated according to Alsmeyer, Cunningham and Happich (12).

$$P\text{-PER} = -0.468 + 0.454 \times \text{leucine} - 0.105 \times \text{tyrosine}.$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The chemical analysis of the products (Table I) revealed that the protein content of PC is about 84% similar to the content of sodium-caseinate, indicating that only a few peptides were removed from the original protein. PA and PB showed higher content of ashes (19-29%) and lower content of proteins (64-67%).

The association of ions to molecules of casein was reviewed by Gaucheron et al. (13). The authors evaluated the binding of different cations (calcium, manganese, zinc, copper and iron) to caseinate and the stability of these associations under different physicochemical conditions.

Some patents suggested the possibility of purification of casein-derived peptides with the use of any divalent or trivalent minerals. Calcium chloride was the preferential base used, but using ferric chloride or zinc sulfate is also possible (14-16).

Sample PB, obtained with the use of calcium chloride, presented high level of ashes, indicating high concentration of the mineral calcium due to the fact that it was not dissociated from the product by the end of the process (in the diafiltration).

The production of peptides from the digestion of casein increases the bioavailability of calcium (17). Ingestion of casein and β -casein produces casein phosphopeptides *in vivo* in the intestinal tract of rats and is associated with a higher concentration of soluble calcium in the distal ileum lumen (18).

Studies of bone mineral status of children and adults with phenylketonuria showed delayed maturation of the skeleton and osteoporosis (19,20). Thus, casein-derived peptides could be used to improve the profile of bone mineralization of those patients by increasing calcium intake (21).

AMINO ACIDS

Table II shows the values of amino acid composition of peptides obtained. The amino acid composition of sodium caseinate showed high levels of phenylalanine. The comparison of the amino

acid profile of peptides obtained and sodium caseinate demonstrated a significant reduction in the levels of phenylalanine.

Tryptophan was not determined because this amino acid is destroyed during the acid hydrolysis used in the preparation of the samples.

The advantage of using casein-derived peptides, instead of hydrolysates treated for the elimination of phenylalanine, is that casein-derived peptides do not suffer high losses of amino acids that could compromise the nutritional value of these compounds.

Bernardi et al. (22) found that the use of a vacuum evaporator to remove HCl promotes loss of threonine and serine, primarily related to destruction by heat. The neutralization with citrate/NaOH reduces these losses. However, the inclusion of salts interferes with the determination by capillary electrophoresis, and for this reason, neutralization was not adopted.

Comparing the amino acids profile of the obtained peptides (Table II) with the Food and Agriculture Organization/World Health Organization (FAO/WHO) (23) recommendations, an average value of 10 g of protein per day is the recommended protein intake for a three-year-old child weighing approximately 15 kg (0.66 g/kg/day). Essential amino acids analyzed in samples PB and PC were sufficient to meet the amino acid requirements for preschool children and adults (23). PA, PB and PC could contribute significantly to the proper daily intake of non-essential amino acids such as serine, glycine, glutamic acid, alanine, aspartic acid, and arginine.

Amino acid analysis revealed a significant reduction in the amount of phenylalanine (Phe) in the PA. The value for this product represented a reduction of 72.33% compared to sodium caseinate, and of 51.89% and 26.61% for other studies which developed hydrolysates with low phenylalanine (5,24). These studies used charcoal in the adsorption of amino acid, which may cause loss of essential amino acids due to the low specificity of coal.

Peptides PA, PB and PC resulted in products with 12.70 mg, 21.60 mg and 31.90 mg of Phe per gram of protein, respectively. Phenylalanine tolerance is variable among phenylketonurics, depending on their residual enzyme activity. This tolerance ranges between 200 mg/day and 2,000 mg/day. The majority of patients with severe PKU tolerate less than 500 mg/day of phenylalanine. Vegetables and cereals are the main sources of protein in their diets (25). Supposing that the recommendation of daily protein intake for a three-year-old child is 0.66 g/kg/day (23), a formulation that uses the PA peptide will respect the acceptable daily intake of phenylalanine to children with phenylketonuria.

Protein efficiency ratio (PER) is an indicator of protein quality in food. The predicted PER value obtained for sodium-caseinate

Table I. Composition of sodium caseinate and casein peptides

	Protein (%)	Ash (%)	Phosphorus (%)
Na-caseinate	87.5 ± 0.9	5.77 ± 0.07	-
PA	64.28 ± 0.60	19.06 ± 0.03	2.89 ± 0.15
PB	67.59 ± 0.38	29.23 ± 0.14	1.45 ± 0.08
PC	84.85 ± 0.56	16.14 ± 0.0003	1.05 ± 0.03

Each value is the average ± standard deviation of triplicate analysis.

Table II. Amino acid composition (g amino acids/100 g protein)* of casein peptides obtained and commercial sodium caseinate

Amino acids (g/100 g de ptn.)	Sodium caseinate [†]	Peptides		
		PA	PB	PC
Serine	4.91 ± 0.40	8.19 ± 0.42	5.26 ± 0.27	4.05 ± 0.10
Threonine	3.61 ± 0.42	2.96 ± 0.17	3.64 ± 0.05	3.27 ± 0.09
Histidine	2.83 ± 0.02	0	1.61 ± 0.02	2.75 ± 0.02
Glycine	1.6 ± 0.09	1.43 ± 0.10	1.37 ± 0.10	1.23 ± 0.07
Glutamic acid	21.3 ± 0.01	28.70 ± 1.11	23.07 ± 2.3	18.89 ± 1.33
Alanine	2.78 ± 0.03	2.14 ± 0.12	2.20 ± 0.009	2.02 ± 0.14
Aspartic acid	6.23 ± 0.04	7.82 ± 0.35	6.90 ± 0.43	6.22 ± 0.51
Tyrosine	4.98 ± 0.09	1.61 ± 0.02	1.88 ± 0.11	2.53 ± 0.19
Valine	5.74 ± 0.04	5.67 ± 0.19	5.63 ± 0.51	4.79 ± 0.50
Methionine	2.3 ± 0.09	2.55 ± 0.04	2.06 ± 0.10	1.30 ± 0.10
Isoleucine	4.65 ± 0.52	7.69 ± 0.49	6.30 ± 0.55	5.03 ± 0.83
Leucine	8.35 ± 0.61	6.07 ± 0.29	7.91 ± 0.91	7.27 ± 1.10
Phenylalanine	4.59 ± 0.04	1.27 ± 0.03	2.16 ± 0.16	3.19 ± 0.13
Arginine	3.24 ± 0.03	1.72 ± 1.35	3.04 ± 0.16	3.13 ± 0.28

*Values are means ± DP. †Sodium caseinate; Lactoprot, Germany (<http://www.lactoprot.de/>).

and the different casein derived peptides accessed based on amino acid analysis were of 2.8 for sodium-caseinate, 2.1 for PA, 2.9 for PB and 2.6 for PC. PER value greater than 2 are well correlated with a protein's adequate capacity to promote physical growth and development. Therefore, all casein-derived peptides seem to be well recommended to patients within various life stages, including those with greater nutritional demand (12,26).

The use of protein hydrolysates containing short-chain peptides is highly desired in dietary formulas. The absorption of short-chain peptides is considered to be more efficient compared to an equivalent amount of free amino acids. This is due to the availability and speed of peptides' specific transport system in the enterocyte, and to their subsequent break into amino acids, caused by the action of cytoplasmic peptidases before transportation to the blood circulation. Moreover, the transport of free amino acids is easily saturable and competitive, decreasing the speed and the rate of absorption (27).

Furthermore, peptides are less hypertonic mixtures of amino acids, facilitating the absorption of other dietary components, thus reducing osmotic problems. Due to chemical instability and insolubility in water, some amino acids, such as glutamine, tyrosine, and cysteine cannot be easily administered in free form (27).

Additionally, peptides derived from proteins of bovine milk have the potential of exerting beneficial physiological effects, hence why they are called bioactive peptides. Anti-hypertensive, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, immunomodulatory, antimicrobial, opioid agonist, opioid antagonist, and antiproliferative activities are the main functions that can be performed by bioactive casein-derived peptides in different organism systems (28).

A dietary treatment option for PKU patients is the glycomacropeptide (GMP), a protein derived from k-casein via the action of

chymosin. This protein is palatable, rich in branched chain amino acids, and it does not present aromatic amino acids (phenylalanine, tryptophan and tyrosine) in its natural composition (29). GMP contains limited amounts of histidine, indispensable for individuals with PKU (30). Commercial highly-purified GMP contains less than 2.0 mg phenylalanine per gram of protein. However, to provide a complete source of protein for individuals with PKU, GMP must be supplemented with arginine, histidine, leucine, tyrosine, and tryptophan (31).

CONCLUSION

The protein efficiency ratio of the obtained peptides demonstrated that they can be used as a main protein source. Therefore, the most important finding of this study was that casein-derived peptides could be used in the future as an important alternative in the preparation of low-phenylalanine formulations.

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Trabajo Original

Análisis de las propiedades psicométricas de la versión mexicana de la Dieting Self-Efficacy Scale (DIET-SE)

Analysis of the psychometric properties of the Mexican version of the Dieting Self-Efficacy Scale (DIET-SE)

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Resumen

Introducción: investigaciones recientes demuestran que las personas con altos niveles en autoeficacia para llevar una dieta saludable pueden controlar su peso. La escala Dieting Self-Efficacy Scale (DIET-SE) es un instrumento completo que mide la autoeficacia para llevar una dieta saludable, sin embargo, no existen versiones en español para población mexicana.

Objetivo: el propósito del presente estudio es analizar las propiedades psicométricas de la versión mexicana del DIET-SE.

Método: la muestra estuvo conformada por 807 estudiantes universitarios mexicanos, de ambos sexos y con edades comprendidas entre los 17 y los 48 años (M = 20,65, DT = 3,16). Para la traducción al castellano de la escala DIET-SE, se siguió la metodología *parallel back-translation*. Además del análisis descriptivo y la correlación de Pearson, se utilizó el coeficiente alfa de Cronbach para el estudio de la consistencia interna y para el ajuste del modelo se utilizaron varios índices.

Resultados: los resultados del AFC por el método de máxima verosimilitud encontraron suficiente evidencia para la validez de constructo ($\chi^2 = 175,68$; gl = 35 [77-42]; $\chi^2/gl = 5,02$, $p < 0,01$; TLI = 0,92, IFI = 0,96, CFI = 0,95 y RMSEA = 0,07). Las cargas factoriales de los once ítems mostraron valores aceptables. Los resultados en el análisis de correlación entre la DIET-SE y los indicadores de bienestar psicológico pueden considerarse como prueba favorable de la validez discriminante. En cuanto a la fiabilidad, se encontraron resultados aceptables en consistencia interna.

Conclusión: la DIET-SE es una escala válida y fiable para evaluar la autoeficacia para mantener una dieta en estudiantes universitarios mexicanos.

Palabras clave:

DIET-SE. Validación.
Consistencia interna.
Validez factorial.

Abstract

Introduction: recent research shows that people with high levels of self-efficacy for a healthy diet can control their weight. The Dieting Self-Efficacy Scale (DIET-SE) scale is a complete instrument that measures self-efficacy for a healthy diet, however, there are no Spanish versions for the Mexican population.

Objective: the purpose of this study is to analyze the psychometric properties of the Mexican version of DIET-SE.

Method: the sample consisted of 807 Mexican university students, of both sexes and aged between 17 and 48 years (M = 20.65, SD = 3.16). The *parallel back-translation* methodology was used to translate the DIET-SE scale into Spanish. In addition to the descriptive analysis and the Pearson correlation, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to measure the internal consistency and other indices were used for the factorial model.

Results: the results of the CFA using the maximum likelihood estimation found good evidence for the construct validity ($\chi^2 = 175.68$; gl = 35 [77-42]; $\chi^2/gl = 5.02$, $p < 0.01$; TLI = 0.92, IFI = 0.96, CFI = 0.95 y RMSEA = 0.07). The factorial loads of the eleven items showed acceptable values. The results in the correlation analysis between the DIET-SE and psychological well-being indicators can be considered as a favorable proof of the discriminant validity. In terms of reliability, acceptable results were found in internal consistency.

Conclusion: the DIET-SE is a valid and reliable scale to evaluate the self-efficacy to maintain a diet in Mexican university students.

Key words:

DIET-SE. Validation.
Internal consistency.
Factorial validity.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La obesidad es un problema global de salud importante. En el año 2016 fue declarada una alerta epidemiológica que afectó a más del 72% de la población adulta en México y fue un factor de riesgo para otras enfermedades crónicas relacionadas que causaron la muerte a casi 100.000 habitantes por año (1). A pesar de estas estadísticas alarmantes, la prevención y el control de la obesidad deben tomarse en serio. Existe evidencia científica de la relación negativa entre el aumento de peso y la reducción de la autoestima y la calidad de vida, que, a su vez, se asocian a otros factores psicológicos como el estrés ante el alto costo del tratamiento de esta y otras enfermedades crónicas relacionadas (2).

La teoría de la autoeficacia se refiere a la creencia de los individuos acerca de su capacidad para llevar a cabo tareas específicas y desempeña un papel importante en las conductas de salud (3,4). La autoeficacia aplicada a la dieta se refiere a la creencia del individuo en su capacidad de adherirse a una dieta para perder o mantener el peso y, de acuerdo a la literatura, los niveles altos de autoeficacia se han asociado con la pérdida de peso y el control de peso (5). Hallazgos de estudios recientes han demostrado que aquellas personas con altos niveles en autoeficacia para llevar una dieta saludable pueden superar desafíos y obstáculos durante su vida cotidiana (6-8).

Aunque las personas con altos niveles de autoeficacia pueden romper sus dietas, su recuperación es más rápida y se adhieren mejor a sus objetivos previos para el control de peso y a la ingesta de alimentos saludables (8). Se ha demostrado que la autoestima está estrechamente relacionada con la autoeficacia (9-11), mientras que Wilson-Barlow, Hollins y Clopton (12) señalan que la autoeficacia para la dieta podría ser baja para personas con una imagen corporal negativa y baja autoestima, por lo que aseguran que el individuo fallaría en su capacidad para resistir los desafíos a la dieta ante la presencia de alimentos altos en calorías.

Dada la efectiva utilidad de la autoeficacia en el control del peso, se han desarrollado varias escalas de autoeficacia relacionadas con la alimentación, incluida la Escala de Comer SE (ESES) (13), el cuestionario Estilo de Vida de Peso Eficaz (14) y la Escala de Autoeficacia en Reducción de Peso (SES-WR) (15). Una de las escalas más recientes es la DIET-SE (16), que, a diferencia de las mencionadas anteriormente, presenta ventajas. Por ejemplo, es breve (once ítems) y consta de tres subescalas que evalúan la autoeficacia para tres tipos diferentes de exposición ante situaciones tentadoras, entre las que se comprenden factores sociales, como el desenvolvimiento del individuo ante grupos de personas; factores psicológicos, como la autoestima; y factores biológicos, como el control fisiológico para el apetito. Un estudio realizado en población similar demostró que el diagnóstico psicológico con la escala DIET-SE y la terapia relacionada con el desarrollo de las habilidades de autoeficacia para la dieta podrían resultar en una mejor pérdida de peso y un mejor autocontrol (8).

Debido a que no se encontraron estudios que indiquen haber utilizado alguno de los instrumentos señalados en población mexicana ni se encuentran disponibles en el idioma, se considera importante tener una medida válida y confiable acerca de las

creencias para llevar una dieta adecuada. Con base en lo anterior, el objetivo del presente estudio es analizar las propiedades psicométricas de la versión mexicana del DIET-SE (16).

MATERIAL Y MÉTODOS

PARTICIPANTES

La muestra fue seleccionada por medio de una técnica no probabilística de tipo incidental y estuvo conformada por 807 estudiantes universitarios mexicanos, de ambos sexos (hombres = 48%, mujeres = 52%) y con edades comprendidas entre los 17 y los 48 años ($M = 20,65$, $DT = 3,16$).

PROCEDIMIENTO

Para la traducción al castellano de la escala, se siguió la metodología *parallel back-translation* (17), en la que dos traductores profesionales tradujeron la escala del inglés al español y otros dos traductores realizaron la traducción español-inglés sin conocer la versión original del cuestionario. Una vez reunidas todas las versiones, los investigadores analizaron la equivalencia conceptual y cultural de cada uno de los ítems.

La recogida de datos se llevó a cabo dentro del aula de clase, de manera colectiva y autoadministrada. Se enfatizó en la importancia de contar con participaciones voluntarias y en la confidencialidad de las respuestas. Todos los participantes entregaron al investigador consentimiento informado.

INSTRUMENTO

Autoeficacia para mantener una dieta

Para la medición de la autoeficacia para mantener una dieta se utilizó la DIET-SE (16), la cual está conformada por once ítems que evalúan el nivel de confianza que una persona tiene en su capacidad para resistir una variedad de tentaciones alimenticias y mantener una dieta para la pérdida de peso. Las respuestas se registraron a través de una escala de tipo Likert de 0 a 4.

La estructura interna de la DIET-SE se compone de tres subescalas: tentaciones de alimentos con alto contenido calórico (describen situaciones en las que la persona es expuesta a alimentos tentadores con alto contenido calórico que puede dificultar la resistencia a comerlos), factores sociales e internos (describen situaciones en las que ciertos factores sociales o internos, como estar con amigos o sentirse cansado, pueden dificultar la resistencia a la tentación de comer) y eventos emocionales negativos (describen situaciones en las que la incomodidad emocional puede ser la causa de una alimentación no planificada). La forma de evaluar el DIET-SE es a través de la obtención de las puntuaciones medias del total de los ítems incluidos en cada factor. Los puntajes pueden variar de 0 a 33 para la versión de once ítems. Las

puntuaciones más altas representaron mayores barreras para una alimentación saludable. Una puntuación de 20 o más se consideró un alto riesgo de tener un trastorno alimentario.

El análisis de la consistencia interna, la validez de constructo y la validez concurrente de la DIET-SE fueron evaluados por Stich y cols. (2009) con muestra canadiense.

Autoestima

Para la medición de la autoestima global utilizamos la Escala de Rosenberg (18), la cual se compone de diez ítems: cinco redactados en positivo y cinco redactados en negativo. Las respuestas se registraron a través de una escala Likert de cuatro puntos que oscilaba entre 1 (totalmente en desacuerdo) y 4 (totalmente de acuerdo). Un ejemplo de ítem es: "Hay veces en las que siento que no sirvo para nada". Martín-Albo, Núñez, Navarro y Grijalvo (2007) encontraron adecuadas propiedades psicométricas de la escala con muestra española (19).

Satisfacción con la vida

Para la evaluación de la satisfacción con la vida se utilizó la Escala de Satisfacción con la Vida (20), la cual se compone de cinco ítems que se evalúan con una escala Likert que va desde 1 (muy en desacuerdo) hasta 7 (muy de acuerdo). La versión castellana de la escala ha mostrado adecuadas propiedades psicométricas (21).

Vitalidad subjetiva

La vitalidad se evaluó mediante la Escala de Vitalidad Subjetiva (22), la cual se compone de siete ítems (por ejemplo, "*me siento vivo y vital*") agrupados en un solo factor y que evalúan los sentimientos subjetivos de viveza y energía. Las respuestas fueron registradas en una escala tipo Likert que oscilaba entre 1 (no es verdad) y 7 (verdadero). Las propiedades psicométricas de la escala han sido comprobadas en diferentes estudios (23).

ANÁLISIS ESTADÍSTICO

El análisis descriptivo, de consistencia interna y correlación de Pearson se llevó a cabo con el programa estadístico SPSS 23.0. El análisis factorial confirmatorio (AFC) se realizó con el programa AMOS 16.0, a través del cual se estudió la validez de constructo. Para evaluar el ajuste del modelo trifactorial de la DIET-SE se utilizaron varios índices de ajuste: Chi-cuadrado dividido por los grados de libertad (χ^2/gl); un cociente χ^2/gl inferior a 3 indica un buen ajuste del modelo (24); y el índice de ajuste incremental (IFI) indica mejoras en el ajuste del modelo por grados de libertad en comparación con la línea base del modelo independiente.

Valores iguales o superiores a 0,90 se consideran aceptables (25). El índice comparativo de ajuste (CFI) es utilizado para contrastar

modelos teóricos con muestras superiores a 100 sujetos. Se recomiendan valores iguales o superiores a 0,90 para un buen ajuste (26). El índice de Tucker-Lewis (TLI) es un índice que considera los grados de libertad del modelo propuesto y nulo. Valores iguales o superiores a 0,90 indican un buen ajuste del modelo (27). El error de la raíz cuadrada media de aproximación (RMSEA) comprueba el grado de desajuste de los residuos de las matrices de covarianza del modelo teórico y empírico. Se consideran aceptables valores entre 0,05 y 0,10 (28). Para la comprobación de la validez discriminante se realizaron correlaciones entre los factores del DIET-SE y tres indicadores de bienestar psicológico: autoestima, vitalidad subjetiva y satisfacción con la vida. Se hipotetizaron correlaciones positivas y significativas. Para el estudio de la consistencia interna se utilizó el coeficiente alfa de Cronbach. Valores en el coeficiente alfa de Cronbach iguales o superiores a 0,70 se consideran aceptables (29).

RESULTADOS

ANÁLISIS DESCRIPTIVO DE LOS ÍTEMS DEL DIET-SE

En la tabla I se pueden apreciar los estadísticos descriptivos (media, desviación típica, asimetría y curtosis) de los once ítems de la DIET-SE. Los resultados mostraron niveles entre medios y moderados en los factores de la DIET-SE, con puntuaciones medias entre 2,29 (ítem 10) y 2,91 (ítem 11). Además, se observó bajo nivel de dispersión en las respuestas, oscilando las desviaciones típicas entre 1,21 (ítem 11) y 1,49 (ítem 1). En cuanto a las puntuaciones obtenidas en asimetría, se obtuvieron valores entre -0,25 (ítem 10) y -0,88 (ítem 11). Los valores en curtosis oscilaron entre -0,22 (ítem 11) y -1,02 (ítem 3). De acuerdo con los criterios de normalidad univariada (30), para que se cumpla con dicha normalidad, la asimetría debe mostrarse por debajo del valor absoluto 2 y curtosis por debajo del valor absoluto 7. En base a lo anterior, la estructura de los datos presentó una tendencia simétrica, dentro de la normalidad estadística.

VALIDEZ FACTORIAL DE LA DIET-SE

Se puso a prueba el ajuste global de un modelo trifactorial, utilizando para ello el análisis factorial confirmatorio. Los resultados de los diferentes índices de ajuste del modelo indicaron un ajuste global adecuado ($\chi^2 = 175,68$; $\text{gl} = 35$ [77-42]; $\chi^2/\text{gl} = 5,02$, $p < 0,01$; TLI = 0,92, IFI = 0,96, CFI = 0,95 y RMSEA = 0,07). Los valores de RMSEA oscilaron dentro del intervalo entre 0,06 y 0,08. Los coeficientes de correlación estimados fueron los siguientes: entre tentaciones de alimentos con alto contenido calórico y factores sociales e internos, 0,92; entre eventos emocionales negativos y tentaciones de alimentos con alto contenido calórico, 0,88; y entre eventos emocionales negativos y factores sociales e internos, 0,90; se obtuvieron valores significativos en todos los casos. Como se puede apreciar en la tabla II, las cargas factoriales estimadas de los once ítems del DIET-SE oscilaron entre 0,50 (ítem 1) y 0,75 (ítem 7).

Tabla I. Estadísticos descriptivos de los ítems de la DIET-SE

Ítem	M	DT	Asimetría (E.T. = 0,086)	Curtosis (E.T. = 0,172)
1. Vas a cenar con tu familia y han preparado tu comida favorita. Terminas tu primer plato y alguien te dice: "¿Por qué no te sirves más?". ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de rechazar un segundo plato de comida?	2,35	1,44	-0,31	-1,23
2. A menudo cenas en exceso porque llegas cansado y hambriento a casa. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de evitar comer en exceso?	2,37	1,26	-0,31	-0,91
3. Estás en un convivio de tu escuela o trabajo y alguien te ofrece una rebanada de pastel. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de rechazar la rebanada de pastel?	2,35	1,33	-0,32	-1,02
4. Acabas de tener una fuerte discusión con alguien de tu familia. Ahora te encuentras frente al refrigerador y sientes las ganas de comerte todo lo que hay adentro. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de encontrar otra forma de sentirte mejor?	2,80	1,36	-0,85	-0,53
5. Te invitan a cenar a la casa de alguien que sabes que cocina muy bien. Suelen comer de más porque su comida te parece muy apetecible. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de no excederte al comer en tu cena como invitado?	2,70	1,24	-0,65	-0,57
6. Terminas de comer y aún te sientes hambriento. Hay fruta y pastel disponible. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de tomar la fruta en vez del pastel?	2,74	1,25	-0,67	-0,58
7. Te encuentras en casa de un amigo y él te ofrece un delicioso pastel. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de poder rechazar el pastel?	2,44	1,34	-0,38	-1,01
8. Estás teniendo un día difícil en la escuela o tu trabajo y te encuentras ansioso y molesto. Te apetece comer una barra de chocolate. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de encontrar una manera más provechosa de tranquilizarte y de hacer frente a tus sentimientos?	2,59	1,25	-0,47	-0,80
9. Tienes ganas de celebrar. Vas a salir a comer con tus amigos a un buen restaurante. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de celebrar sin comer en exceso?	2,82	1,23	-0,81	-0,32
10. Te encuentras en la calle con un amigo en la hora de la comida y él te sugiere que coman una nieve. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de resistir la tentación?	2,29	1,30	-0,25	-0,98
11. Acabas de tener una pelea con tu novio o novia. Te sientes molesto, inquieto, y te apetece comer algo. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de poder hablar de tu problema con alguien o salir a caminar en vez de comer?	2,91	1,21	-0,88	-0,22

E.T.: error típico.

VALIDEZ DISCRIMINANTE DEL DIET-SE

Para el estudio de la validez discriminante, se calculó el coeficiente de correlación de Pearson entre las subescalas de la DIET-SE y tres indicadores de bienestar psicológico. De acuerdo con este análisis, resultaron correlaciones positivas y significativas en todos los casos, lo cual se alinea con lo esperado, destacando la correlación entre eventos emocionales negativos y satisfacción con la vida ($r = 0,26$, $p < 0,01$). De acuerdo con los datos mostrados en la tabla III, las correlaciones entre los factores del DIET-SE resultaron positivas y significativas, siendo la relación

entre tentaciones de alimentos con alto contenido calórico y factores sociales e internos la más significativa ($r = 0,69$, $p < 0,01$).

ANÁLISIS DE CONSISTENCIA INTERNA

En cuanto al análisis de la fiabilidad, los resultados mostraron coeficientes alfa de Cronbach satisfactorios en todos los casos, tanto para los factores del DIET-SE (tentaciones de alimentos con alto contenido calórico 0,77, factores sociales e internos 0,72 y eventos emocionales negativos 0,70), así como para los tres

Tabla II. Cargas factoriales (λ) para la DIET-SE

Ítems y subescalas	λ
Tentaciones de alimentos con alto contenido calórico (TAACC)	
3. Estás en un convivio de tu escuela o trabajo y alguien te ofrece una rebanada de pastel. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de rechazar la rebanada de pastel?	0,58
6. Terminas de comer y aún te sientes hambriento. Hay fruta y pastel disponible. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de tomar la fruta en vez del pastel?	0,68
7. Te encuentras en casa de un amigo y él te ofrece un delicioso pastel. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de poder rechazar el pastel?	0,75
10. Te encuentras en la calle con un amigo en la hora de la comida y él te sugiere que coman una nieve. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de resistir la tentación?	0,64
Factores sociales e internos (FSI)	
1. Vas a cenar con tu familia y han preparado tu comida favorita. Terminas tu primer plato y alguien te dice: "¿Por qué no te sirves más?". ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de rechazar un segundo plato de comida?	0,50
2. A menudo cenas en exceso porque llegas cansado y hambriento a casa. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de evitar comer en exceso?	0,55
5. Te invitan a cenar a la casa de alguien que sabes que cocina muy bien. Suelen comer de más porque su comida te parece muy apetecible. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de no excederte al comer en tu cena como invitado?	0,72
9. Tienes ganas de celebrar. Vas a salir a comer con tus amigos a un buen restaurante. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de celebrar sin comer en exceso?	0,73
Eventos emocionales negativos (EEN)	
4. Acabas de tener una fuerte discusión con alguien de tu familia. Ahora te encuentras frente al refrigerador y sientes las ganas de comerte todo lo que hay adentro. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de encontrar otra forma de sentirte mejor?	0,67
8. Estás teniendo un día difícil en la escuela o en tu trabajo y te encuentras ansioso y molesto. Te apetece comer una barra de chocolate. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de encontrar una manera más provechosa de tranquilizarte y de hacer frente a tus sentimientos?	0,74
11. Acabas de tener una pelea con tu novio o novia. Te sientes molesto, inquieto, y te apetece comer algo. ¿Qué tan seguro te sientes de poder hablar de tu problema con alguien o salir a caminar en vez de comer?	0,62

Tabla III. Análisis de correlación y de consistencia interna de las subescalas de la DIET-SE y los tres indicadores de bienestar psicológico

	α	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. TAACC	0,77						
2. FSI	0,72	0,69*					
3. EEN	0,70	0,64*	0,67*				
4. Autoestima	0,81	0,17*	0,19*	0,24*			
5. Satisfacción con la vida	0,88	0,22*	0,24*	0,26*	0,46*		
6. Vitalidad subjetiva	0,86	0,24*	0,19*	0,22*	0,40*	0,41*	

TAACC: tentaciones de alimentos con alto contenido calórico; FSI: factores sociales e internos; EEN: eventos emocionales negativos. * $p < 0,01$.

indicadores de bienestar psicológico (autoestima 0,81, satisfacción con la vida 0,88 y vitalidad subjetiva 0,86).

DISCUSIÓN

El objetivo de la presente investigación fue analizar las propiedades psicométricas de la versión mexicana de la DIET-SE. Los resultados del análisis factorial confirmatorio respaldaron la estructura original de once ítems, compuesta por tres

factores. Se encontraron índices de ajuste aceptables, lo que se considera suficiente evidencia empírica para sostener la estructura tridimensional planteada por Stich y cols. (16) y que son consistentes con los encontrados por Obara-Golebiowska y Michałek-Kwiecień (8). Respecto a las cargas factoriales de los ítems, los resultados indicaron buena capacidad discriminatoria de los mismos. Las correlaciones entre las tres dimensiones de la DIET-SE fueron positivas y significativas y los resultados van en la misma dirección de los encontrados por otros estudios (8,16). Estos resultados en su conjunto encuentran suficiente

apoyo global a la validez factorial de la versión mexicana de la DIET-SE.

En cuanto a la comprobación de la validez discriminante, se utilizaron tres cuestionarios de bienestar psicológico y se hallaron resultados suficientes en las correlaciones entre los tres factores de la DIET-SE y autoestima, satisfacción con la vida y vitalidad subjetiva. Con respecto a la fiabilidad de la DIET-SE, se encontraron datos aceptables en cuanto a la consistencia interna en las tres dimensiones, similares a los encontrados por Stich y cols. (16). Es necesario continuar con el estudio detallado de la fiabilidad, ya que los resultados son apenas aceptables. Para mayor precisión, además del uso de coeficiente alfa de Cronbach, sería necesario utilizar diferentes métodos de estimación como el coeficiente omega de McDonald o la técnica del test-retest.

Tomando en consideración estos resultados, se puede concluir que la versión mexicana de la DIET-SE cuenta con adecuadas propiedades psicométricas y puede ser utilizada con estudiantes universitarios mexicanos. A manera de recomendación, es necesario utilizar en posteriores investigaciones muestras heterogéneas que permitan mayores alcances al evaluar la autoeficacia para mantener una dieta en las personas que desean perder peso. La DIET-SE es una escala sensible a las dificultades que puede tener una persona al controlar su dieta. Dentro de estas dificultades se pueden incluir el tratamiento de la obesidad, los trastornos de la alimentación o cualquier problema de salud en el cual sea relevante el mantenimiento de hábitos alimentarios. En el presente estudio se utilizó una muestra universitaria de ambos sexos y con ciertos parámetros de edad, por lo que es necesaria mayor diversificación en cuanto a estas características.

La DIET-SE podría ser un instrumento de evaluación y diagnóstico que contribuya a la mejora de los programas preventivos de pérdida de peso. El hecho de que la DIET-SE sea una medida multidimensional hace que futuras investigaciones puedan considerar las fluctuaciones en los diferentes aspectos que la DIET-SE evalúa, como las tentaciones a ciertos alimentos y el afrontamiento de situaciones problemáticas que el individuo podría tener al adherirse a un plan de dieta.

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Revisión

Niveles máximos de vitaminas y minerales en complementos alimenticios en Europa *Maximum levels of vitamins and minerals in food supplements in Europe*

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Resumen

Palabras clave:

Complementos alimenticios.
Cantidades máximas diarias. Vitaminas.
Minerales. Europa.
Francia.

La legislación de la UE estableció qué factores deben aplicarse para la fijación de niveles máximos de vitaminas y minerales en los complementos alimenticios y en otros alimentos enriquecidos con estos nutrientes, considerando la distinta sensibilidad de los grupos poblacionales, a fin de minimizar los riesgos de una ingesta excesiva.

Una década y media después, todavía no se han fijado dichos niveles máximos. A causa de esta demora, en muchos países europeos se han establecido para los complementos alimenticios cantidades máximas diarias, con grandes diferencias de un país a otro.

En Francia se acaban de actualizar estos niveles máximos tomando en consideración la edad, la situación fisiológica y el estado de salud de los grupos de población: niños de 1-3 años, niños de 3-10 años, adolescentes de 11-17 años, adultos, mujeres con probabilidad de embarazo, embarazadas, mujeres lactantes, menopausia, ancianos, fumadores, pacientes que reciben un tratamiento anticoagulante, pacientes renales, etc.

Abstract

Key words:

Food supplements.
Maximum daily amounts. Vitamins.
Minerals. Europe.
France.

EU legislation established the factors that should be applied for the setting of maximum levels of vitamins and minerals in food supplements and other foods enriched with these nutrients, considering the different sensitivity of the population groups, in order to minimize the risks of an excessive intake.

A decade and a half later, these maximum levels have not yet been set. Because of this delay, in many European countries maximum daily amounts have been established for food supplements, with great differences from one country to another.

In France, these maximum levels have just been updated taking into account the age, the physiological situation and the state of health of the population groups: children of 1-3 years, children of 3-10 years, adolescents of 11-17 years, adults, women with probability of pregnancy, pregnant women, lactating women, menopause, old people, smokers, patients receiving anticoagulant treatment, renal patients, etc.

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NIVELES MÁXIMOS EN LA UNIÓN EUROPEA (UE)

El artículo 2 de la Directiva 2002/46/CE, sobre complementos alimenticios, define como complementos alimenticios “los productos alimenticios cuyo fin sea complementar la dieta normal y consistentes en fuentes concentradas de nutrientes o de otras sustancias que tengan un efecto nutricional o fisiológico, en forma simple o combinada, comercializados en forma dosificada, es decir cápsulas, pastillas, tabletas, píldoras y otras formas similares, bolsitas de polvos, ampollas de líquido, botellas con cuentagotas y otras formas similares de líquidos y polvos que deben tomarse en pequeñas cantidades unitarias”. Aunque en esta directiva únicamente se regulan las vitaminas y los minerales que pueden ser utilizados, así como sus respectivas formas, en el sexto considerando de la misma se añaden, “entre otros, aminoácidos, ácidos grasos esenciales, fibras y diversas plantas y extractos de hierbas”.

El artículo 5 de la Directiva 2002/46/CE menciona que se establecerán niveles máximos de vitaminas y minerales, referidos a la dosis diaria de consumo recomendada por el fabricante, teniendo en consideración de forma conjunta tres factores:

1. Los niveles máximos de seguridad de vitaminas y minerales, tal como se hayan establecido mediante la evaluación científica del riesgo a partir de datos científicos reconocidos, teniendo en cuenta, según proceda, los diferentes grados de sensibilidad de las distintas categorías de consumidores.
2. La ingesta de vitaminas y minerales a partir de otras fuentes de alimentación.
3. Las aportaciones de referencia de vitaminas y minerales.

El artículo 6 del Reglamento (CE) 1925/2006, sobre la adición de vitaminas, minerales y otras sustancias determinadas a los alimentos, repite estos tres factores para la fijación de niveles máximos cuando se añadan vitaminas y/o minerales a otros alimentos (excluyendo complementos alimenticios).

Para ambos tipos de alimentos conviene precisar sobre dichos tres factores:

1. Los niveles máximos de seguridad son los llamados “niveles máximos de ingesta tolerable”, en inglés, *tolerable upper safe levels* (UL) (1). Los UL han sido establecidos, aunque no para la totalidad de minerales y vitaminas, por el Comité Científico para la Alimentación Humana (SCF) durante el período 2000-2003 y, posteriormente, por la Autoridad Europea de Seguridad Alimentaria (EFSA) (2-4). También han fijado UL el Institute of Medicine de Estados Unidos de América y la Organización de las Naciones Unidas para la Alimentación/ Organización Mundial de la Salud (FAO/OMS) (5).
2. La ingesta a partir de otras fuentes de alimentación (excluyendo complementos alimenticios, o bien otros alimentos a los que se hayan añadido vitaminas y/o minerales) en los percentiles P95 o P97,5 de cada grupo poblacional, obteniéndose así la diferencia entre el UL y los percentiles de ingesta.
3. Esta diferencia debe dividirse por las aportaciones de referencia de vitaminas y minerales conocidas como “valores

de referencia de nutrientes” (VRN), recogidos en el Anexo XIII del Reglamento (UE) 1169/2011. Cuanto menor sea el cociente resultante, menor es el margen de seguridad del nutriente.

4. Atendiendo a su mayor o menor margen de seguridad, en adultos y niños de cuatro a diez años, los nutrientes se han agrupado en tres tipos (6):
 - Sin evidencia de riesgo a los niveles consumidos habitualmente.
 - Bajo riesgo de exceder el UL (cociente $> 1,5$).
 - Riesgo potencial de ingesta excesiva (cociente $\leq 1,5$).

Sin embargo, 17 y 14 años después de dichas normas legales de la UE todavía no se han establecido dichos niveles máximos para los complementos alimenticios ni para otros alimentos a los que se añaden vitaminas y minerales, respectivamente. En el año 2006, la Comisión Europea presentó una propuesta para la fijación de niveles mínimos y máximos de vitaminas y minerales en ambos tipos de alimentos (7), pero ha quedado aparcada por falta de prioridad legislativa.

NIVELES MÁXIMOS EN LOS PAÍSES EUROPEOS

Ante la pasividad legislativa de la UE, muchos países europeos han establecido unos niveles máximos, y en ocasiones también niveles mínimos, para vitaminas y minerales en los complementos alimenticios. Estos niveles máximos varían notablemente entre los diversos países de la UE, de la Asociación Europea de Libre Comercio pertenecientes al Espacio Económico Europeo (Noruega, Islandia y Liechtenstein) o con un acuerdo de asociación aduanera con la UE (Turquía).

Tomando como base los nutrientes que tienen un riesgo potencial de ingesta excesiva (vitamina A, beta-caroteno, niacina como ácido nicotínico, Ca, Fe, Zn, Cu, I, Mn), dichos países europeos tienen *niveles máximos muy dispares*:

- *Muy altos* (próximos a los UL): Hungría y Turquía.
- *Intermedios* (entre los VRN y los UL): Bélgica, Bulgaria, Chipre, Croacia, Dinamarca, Eslovenia, Italia, Liechtenstein, Luxemburgo, Malta y Reino Unido.
- *Bajos* (cerca de los VRN): Austria, Francia y Grecia.
- *Muy bajos* (inferiores a los VRN): Alemania.
- *Solamente para ciertos nutrientes*: Noruega y Países Bajos.
- *No han fijado niveles máximos*: Eslovaquia, España, Estonia, Finlandia, Irlanda, Islandia, Letonia, Lituania, Polonia, Portugal, República Checa, Rumanía y Suecia.

En algunos de estos países se han establecido niveles máximos para beta-caroteno, adicionalmente a los de vitamina A, y/o se han desdoblado los máximos de niacina, según sea su forma nicotinamida o ácido nicotínico.

Estos niveles máximos se han establecido para la población general, es decir, pensando en los adultos. En Italia, Noruega y Países Bajos se han fijado niveles máximos específicos en niños y adolescentes para algunos nutrientes, y en Austria y Alemania niveles más altos de ácido fólico en situaciones de embarazo y

mujeres que buscan procrear. En Austria y Bélgica se advierte sobre los riesgos de ingesta de vitamina K en tratamientos anti-coagulantes. En Bélgica no se recomienda suplementar diariamente con más de 1 g de potasio en ancianos, afecciones renales, diabetes con insulinoresistencia e hipertensión arterial, ni con más de 10 mg de zinc durante semanas o meses.

Los niveles máximos se han ido revisando con el paso del tiempo, resultando generalmente un aumento de los máximos de vitaminas, exceptuando la vitamina A, y de hierro, así como una limitación de los máximos de zinc.

NIVELES MÁXIMOS EN FRANCIA

Francia es el país europeo en donde la adecuación a los niveles máximos por grupos de población se ha abordado ahora con mayor detalle, teniendo en cuenta su distinta sensibilidad, a fin de reducir el riesgo de una ingesta excesiva, especialmente en caso de consumo prolongado del complemento alimenticio.

La Direction Générale de la Concurrence, de la Consommation et de la Répression des Fraudes (DGCCRF) ha emitido a principios de 2019 un informe sobre las cantidades máximas diarias de vitaminas y minerales en complementos alimenticios (8).

Se ha intentado, en primer lugar, evitar cualquier perjuicio para la salud. Según el artículo 14 del Reglamento (CE) 178/2002, todos los alimentos han de ser seguros y el responsable de su comercialización debe tomar las medidas que resulten necesarias para ello, entre ellas, advertencias en el etiquetado o por otros medios.

Siguiendo las directrices del artículo 5 de la Directiva 2002/46/CE, antes mencionadas, la DGCCRF ha fijado *tres grupos de*

nutrientes según sea su *nivel de riesgo* bajo/nulo, moderado o alto, ligado a sus UL *versus* sus ingestas P95 a través de la alimentación:

- *Bajo*: vitaminas K, B₁, B₂, ácido pantoténico, biotina, B₁₂;
- *Moderado*: vitaminas D, E, C, niacina (nicotinamida), B₆, ácido fólico; minerales K, P, Mg, Se, Cr, Mo, F, B, Si.
- *Alto*: vitaminas A, beta-caroteno, niacina (ácido nicotínico); minerales Ca, Fe, Zn, Cu, I, Mn.

VITAMINAS QUE TIENEN UN RIESGO BAJO

No se establece para ellas un nivel máximo, desaconsejándose la suplementación de vitamina K en casos de terapia anticoagulante.

NUTRIENTES CON UN RIESGO MODERADO

Se fija para la población adulta un máximo equivalente a la mitad del UL. Para los adolescentes se establece un 50% del máximo de los adultos y para los niños de tres a diez años, un 20% de dicho máximo. En el embarazo y la lactancia materna, así como en lactantes y niños de corta edad (de uno a tres años), la suplementación queda a criterio del profesional de la salud, que debe evaluar su necesidad y sus riesgos. Este criterio general tiene algunas excepciones (Tabla I):

- *Vitamina D*: para cada rango de edad, a partir de los tres años, se toma la mitad de su respectivo UL.
- *Vitamina C*: sobre la base de posibles efectos gastrointestinales y prooxidantes a dosis altas, se establece para adultos un máximo de 1.000 mg.

Tabla I. Máximos diarios de complementos en Francia para nutrientes de riesgo moderado

Nutriente	Unidad	Adultos	Adolescentes 11-17 años	Niños 3-10 años
Vitamina D	µg	50	50	25
Vitamina E	mg	150	75	30
Vitamina C	mg	1.000	500	200
Niacina (como nicotinamida)	mg	450	225	90
Vitamina B ₆	mg	12,5	6,25	2,5
Ácido fólico	µg	500	250	100
Potasio	mg	3.000	1.500	600
Fósforo	mg	750	375	150
Magnesio	mg	360	250	250
Selenio	µg	150	75	30
Cromo	µg	250	125	50
Molibdeno	µg	300	150	60
Flúor	mg	3,5	1,75	0
Boro	mg	5	2,5	1
Silicio	mg	700	350	140

- **Ácido fólico:** la Agence Nationale de Sécurité Sanitaire de l'Alimentation (ANSES) recomienda, por precaución, una suplementación diaria de 400 µg durante dos meses antes de la concepción, seguida de cuatro semanas después de ella y, en caso de riesgo elevado de anomalías en el tubo neural, una cantidad superior a 500 µg implicaría su prescripción como medicamento.
- **Potasio:** se toma el criterio de la EFSA, máximo de 3.000 mg en adultos, y se advierte de los posibles efectos adversos en caso de función renal disminuida, que puede causar hiperkalemia y riesgos cardíacos.
- **Fósforo:** se establece un máximo de 750 mg en adultos, ya que valores superiores pueden producir efectos gastrointestinales.
- **Magnesio:** a pesar de que el UL para sales fácilmente disociables es de 250 mg, se admite este valor como máximo entre tres y 17 años y se eleva hasta 360 mg en adultos, al considerar que sus posibles efectos laxantes son reversibles.
- **Cromo:** se toma para adultos el máximo de 250 µg definido por la OMS para la suplementación.
- **Silicio:** se mantiene para adultos el máximo de 700 mg propuesto en 2009 por la Agence Française de Sécurité Sanitaire des Aliments (AFSSA) (9).
- **Flúor:** se descarta su suplementación en niños hasta los diez años, teniendo en cuenta el riesgo de fluorosis y la falta de una matriz alimentaria.

NUTRIENTES CON UN RIESGO ALTO

Se retienen los máximos de la AFSSA de 2009 en adultos y, sobre ellos, se aplican en adolescentes y niños los porcentajes reductores del 50% y el 80%, respectivamente, con las excepciones siguientes (Tabla II):

- **Vitamina A:** para adultos se mantiene el máximo de 1.000 µg, un tercio del UL, desaconsejándose su suplementación en embarazadas y mujeres que buscan la concepción, por el efecto teratogénico de un exceso de retinol, así como a par-

tir de la menopausia, por el riesgo de osteoporosis y de fracturas.

- **Beta-caroteno:** para todos los grupos a partir de los tres años se retienen los 7 mg, desaconsejándose su suplementación en fumadores por sus efectos prooxidantes.
- **Niacina como ácido nicotínico:** para adultos se mantienen los 8 mg, un 80% de la UL.
- **Calcio:** para adultos se retienen los 800 mg, un 32% del UL e igual al VRN, y se aplica este máximo, sin reducción, a niños mayores de tres años y adolescentes, al no haber apreciado en ellos riesgos con una ingesta elevada.
- **Hierro:** para adultos se mantienen los 14 mg, igual al VRN, y entre tres y 17 años se aplica la mitad de este máximo.
- **Zinc:** para adultos se retienen los 15 mg, un 60% del UL.
- **Cobre:** para adultos se mantienen los 2 mg, un 40% del UL.
- **Yodo:** para adultos se retienen los 150 µg, un 25% del UL e igual al VRN, desaconsejándose su suplementación si hay problemas de tiroides.
- **Manganeso:** dado que en Francia no parece haber un déficit como problema de salud pública y que hay un margen estrecho de seguridad entre las ingestas estimadas y las dosis con efectos adversos, para adultos se mantienen los 3,5 mg y se desaconseja su uso prolongado por razones de neurotoxicidad.

CONCLUSIONES

El tercer considerando de la Directiva 2002/46/CE (Real Decreto 1487/2009) y el séptimo del Reglamento (CE) 1925/2006 dicen: "En circunstancias normales, una dieta adecuada y equilibrada proporciona todos los nutrientes necesarios para el normal desarrollo y mantenimiento de un organismo sano, en las cantidades establecidas y recomendadas a tenor de los datos científicos generalmente aceptados. Sin embargo, las investigaciones realizadas demuestran que esta situación ideal no se da en la práctica para todos los nutrientes ni para todos los grupos de población de la Comunidad". Es justamente de esos nutrientes y en grupos de población deficitarios cuando la suplementación resulta útil.

Tabla II. Máximos diarios de complementos en Francia para nutrientes de riesgo alto

Nutriente	Unidad	Adultos	Adolescentes 11-17 años	Niños 3-10 años
Vitamina A				
retinol	µg	1.000	500	200
beta-caroteno	mg	7	7	7
Niacina (como ácido nicotínico)	mg	8	4	1,6
Calcio	mg	800	800	800
Hierro	mg	14	7	7
Zinc	mg	15	7,5	3
Cobre	mg	2	1	0,4
Yodo	µg	150	75	30
Manganeso	mg	3,5	1,75	0,7

Sería conveniente que determinados alimentos expresaran para qué grupo poblacional han estado concebidos (por ejemplo, esfuerzos físicos intensos o niños de uno a tres años) y lo mismo vale para muchos complementos alimenticios. En estos casos no está justificado dirigir dichos productos a la población general ya que ello podría dar lugar a una ingesta deficitaria o excesiva de algunos nutrientes si se consumen fuera de la población objetivo.

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Nutrición Hospitalaria



Grupo de Trabajo SENPE

Proceso de alimentación hospitalaria

Hospital feeding process

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Grupo de Trabajo de Gestión de SENPE

Resumen

Palabras clave:

Gestión. Proceso asistencial. Nutrición clínica. Calidad. Alimentación hospitalaria.

El Grupo de Trabajo de Gestión de SENPE tiene entre sus objetivos el desarrollo de procesos de evaluación en nutrición clínica. Con anterioridad se elaboró el documento denominado "*Proceso de atención nutricional: guía de autoevaluación*" como una herramienta concebida para ayudar a evaluar la calidad de la terapia nutricional en pacientes hospitalizados, fundamentalmente desde la perspectiva de la nutrición artificial. Ahora se presenta un texto complementario del anterior, en el que se describe el proceso por el que se alimenta a los pacientes hospitalizados. Hemos dividido el proceso de alimentación hospitalaria en seis secciones, para las que se hace una descripción general y se proponen indicadores de calidad para su evaluación. Confiamos en que este trabajo sirva para mejorar la calidad de las dietas de los hospitales y para ayudar a los profesionales de la alimentación de los hospitales a hacer su labor más satisfactoria y efectiva.

Abstract

Key words:

Management. Care process. Clinical nutrition. Quality. Hospital feeding.

The Management Working Group of SENPE has among its objectives the development of evaluation processes in clinical nutrition. Previously, the document entitled "Process of nutritional care: self-evaluation guide" was prepared as a tool designed to help assess the quality of nutritional therapy in hospitalized patients, mainly from the perspective of artificial nutrition. Now, a complementary text of the previous one is presented, describing the process by which hospitalized patients are fed. We have divided the hospital feeding process into six sections, for which a general description is made and quality indicators are proposed. We hope that this work will serve to improve the quality of hospital food and help hospital food professionals to make their work more satisfactory and effective.

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INTRODUCCIÓN

La desnutrición relacionada con la enfermedad es un problema común en todos los niveles de la asistencia sanitaria. En el caso de los hospitales, aparece en situaciones de enfermedad aguda y procesos crónicos agudizados. Por diferentes motivos, en el paciente hospitalizado es frecuente que la ingesta de alimentos sea inferior a las necesidades y este hecho se correlaciona con peores resultados evolutivos. La enfermedad altera el apetito, la capacidad de comer y procesar la comida, así como las necesidades nutricionales de las personas.

El estudio PREDYCES (1) nos mostró que, en España, aproximadamente uno de cada cuatro adultos y uno de cada tres mayores de 70 años hospitalizados presentan desnutrición al ingreso hospitalario. Además, casi un 10% adicional se desnutre durante la estancia hospitalaria. Los grupos más afectados son los pacientes con enfermedades neoplásicas, cardiovasculares y respiratorias. El impacto negativo de la desnutrición en el paciente hospitalizado está bien documentado: se incrementan la morbilidad y la mortalidad, se prolongan las estancias, aumentan la dependencia y los reingresos, se deteriora la calidad de vida y suben los costes (2).

Tras la detección de un paciente con desnutrición o en riesgo de desarrollarla, bien sea mediante la aplicación sistemática de un método de cribado o como resultado de la valoración clínica ordinaria, es imperativa la necesidad de poner en marcha un plan de atención nutricional. Este plan debe ir dirigido a identificar sus necesidades nutricionales específicas, suministrar los nutrientes para cubrir estas necesidades y efectuar un seguimiento. Como recomienda la Resolución del Comité de Ministros del Consejo de Europa en 2003 (3), la alimentación ordinaria por vía oral debe considerarse siempre como la primera opción correctora o de prevención. El servicio de alimentación de cada hospital debe garantizar esta opción.

Más allá de su papel en el manejo de la desnutrición relacionada con la enfermedad, no hay que olvidar que el nivel de aceptación de la alimentación hospitalaria guarda una importante relación con la satisfacción global del usuario y su calidad de vida durante el ingreso. En este sentido, para mejorar la aceptación de las dietas hospitalarias, la tendencia actual es intentar hacer prescripciones dietéticas más permisivas, procurando evitar restricciones innecesarias que reducen la palatabilidad de la comida. Una dieta basal variada, sana y equilibrada, y de amplia aceptación y aplicación en un contexto más permisivo, puede llegar a convertirse en el eje central de la alimentación de la mayoría de los pacientes, haciéndose ligeras modificaciones cuando sea necesario.

El Grupo de Trabajo de Gestión de SENPE tiene entre sus objetivos el desarrollo de procesos de evaluación en nutrición clínica (4). En un trabajo anterior, de forma sinérgica con la Sociedad Española de Farmacia Hospitalaria, se elaboró el documento "*Proceso de atención nutricional: guía de autoevaluación*" (5). Se trata de una herramienta concebida para ayudar a evaluar la calidad de la terapia nutricional en pacientes hospitalizados, fundamentalmente desde la perspectiva de la nutrición artificial. El documento que ahora presentamos puede considerarse

complementario del anterior, puesto que describe el otro pilar fundamental de la atención nutricional hospitalaria, que es la alimentación de carácter convencional.

En gestión se entiende como "proceso" a un conjunto de actividades que están relacionadas entre sí o que interactúan para transformar elementos de entrada en resultados (6). En el caso del proceso de alimentación hospitalaria, el elemento de entrada lo constituye el paciente hospitalizado en el que se ha de iniciar dieta por vía oral, mientras que la salida se corresponde con el mismo paciente cuando finaliza esa indicación y es dado de alta. Como se verá, se trata de un proceso complejo, con la particularidad de que comparte características de los procesos asistenciales y de soporte y afecta a una amplia variedad de profesionales con distintos grados de formación y especialización.

La descripción de cada subproceso consta de dos partes: la primera es una ficha técnica en la que se detallan aspectos generales, mientras que en la segunda se proponen indicadores de calidad para su evaluación. En la ficha técnica, tras una breve justificación del subproceso, se hace una definición funcional en la cual se explica someramente lo que se espera del mismo. El resto de la ficha técnica consta de:

- *Propietario del proceso*: persona cuya actividad está relacionada con el desarrollo del proceso, responsable de su gestión sistemática y mejora continua. En la mayoría de subprocesos se corresponde con el responsable del equipo de soporte nutricional.
- *Entrada y salida*: acciones que suponen el inicio y la finalización de cada subproceso (habitualmente la salida de un subproceso supone la entrada del siguiente).
- *Proveedor*: personas o estructuras organizativas que proporcionan la entrada al subproceso.
- *Participantes*: personas o unidades que realizan las actividades del subproceso.
- *Destinatarios*: personas o estructuras organizativas sobre las que la salida del proceso tiene impacto y que, por tanto, van a exigir que todo haya funcionado correctamente.

En la segunda parte de cada subproceso se exponen sus criterios de calidad, que son las características que debe tener la actividad realizada para considerar que está correctamente hecha. Cada criterio de calidad tiene uno o varios objetivos clave, que nos sirven de orientación para obtener su cumplimiento. Los indicadores de calidad miden el grado de logro de los objetivos clave. Para cada indicador se sugieren una forma de medición, un estándar de referencia, una periodicidad de seguimiento y una fuente documental.

Un correcto funcionamiento del proceso de alimentación de un hospital requiere del buen entendimiento y la cooperación de los estamentos implicados: servicio de restauración u hostelería, unidad de nutrición y dietética y personal sanitario de hospitalización a cargo de los pacientes. Además, es fundamental la implicación de un organismo supervisor, como la Comisión de Nutrición, multidisciplinar, adecuadamente respaldada por la dirección del centro y que esté verdaderamente implicada en la mejora continua de las actividades que guarden relación con sus competencias.

Se ha dividido el proceso de alimentación en cinco subprocesos de carácter cíclico (prescripción/ajuste de la dieta, validación, emplatado, distribución y recogida, evaluación del cumplimiento), que se mantienen activos mientras el paciente se encuentra con alimentación oral, más un sexto que afecta a la finalización de la dieta (Fig. 1).

Como describe la figura 2, los procesos de nutrición clínica para pacientes hospitalizados (cribado, nutrición artificial y alimentación hospitalaria) y ambulatorios pueden integrarse y relacionarse entre sí. Cuando ingresa un paciente, es posible que lo haga en un centro donde se hace cribado nutricional de forma sistemática. El cribado debe repetirse periódicamente (por ejemplo, cada semana) mientras dure el ingreso si el resultado es negativo, ya que los pacientes que se deterioran nutricionalmente durante su estancia hospitalaria son los que más sufren las consecuencias de la malnutrición. Cuando el resultado del cribado es positivo, debe activarse un protocolo; por lo tanto, previa valoración nutricional del caso, se pone en marcha un plan de atención nutricional. En otras ocasiones, este plan se activa tras una valoración nutricional como parte del abordaje general del paciente y sin mediar un método de cribado.

El plan de atención nutricional tendrá una vertiente terapéutica y un seguimiento. La terapia nutricional, en la mayoría de los

casos, se corresponderá con una optimización de la prescripción dietética con o sin el uso de suplementos orales. El proceso de alimentación hospitalaria, que se describe en este texto, conlleva ciclos repetidos de validación, emplatado y distribución/recogida. Habitualmente, este proceso se activará desde el momento del ingreso del paciente y se verá modulado por el resultado del cribado, la valoración nutricional y el seguimiento. En algunos casos se indicará nutrición enteral o parenteral; el proceso de nutrición artificial, descrito en el documento *"Proceso de atención nutricional: guía de autoevaluación"*, igualmente se compone de ciclos de formulación, elaboración, distribución y administración. También puede activarse desde el momento de la admisión del paciente sin mediar los pasos anteriores (por ejemplo, pacientes con nutrición artificial domiciliaria que requieren ingreso).

El seguimiento del paciente es el elemento central de toda actuación nutricional: asegura el cumplimiento, comprueba la eficacia y detecta complicaciones. Sus resultados repercuten evolutivamente tanto en la planificación de los cuidados como en la propia terapia indicada. Durante la evolución puede ocurrir que se indique un tránsito entre alimentación convencional y nutrición artificial, o bien puede darse la suspensión de la dieta oral o el soporte nutricional transitoria o incluso definitiva (por

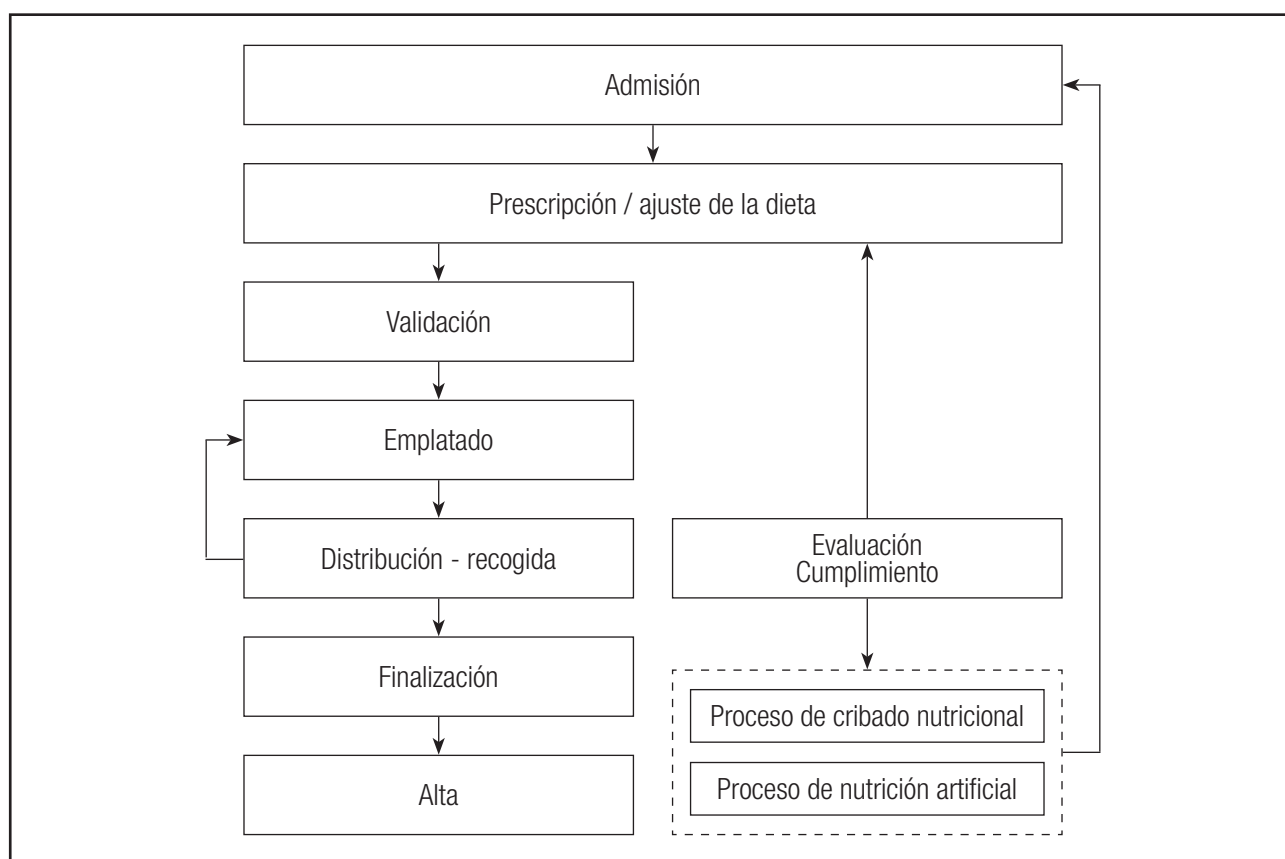


Figura 1.

Proceso de alimentación hospitalaria.

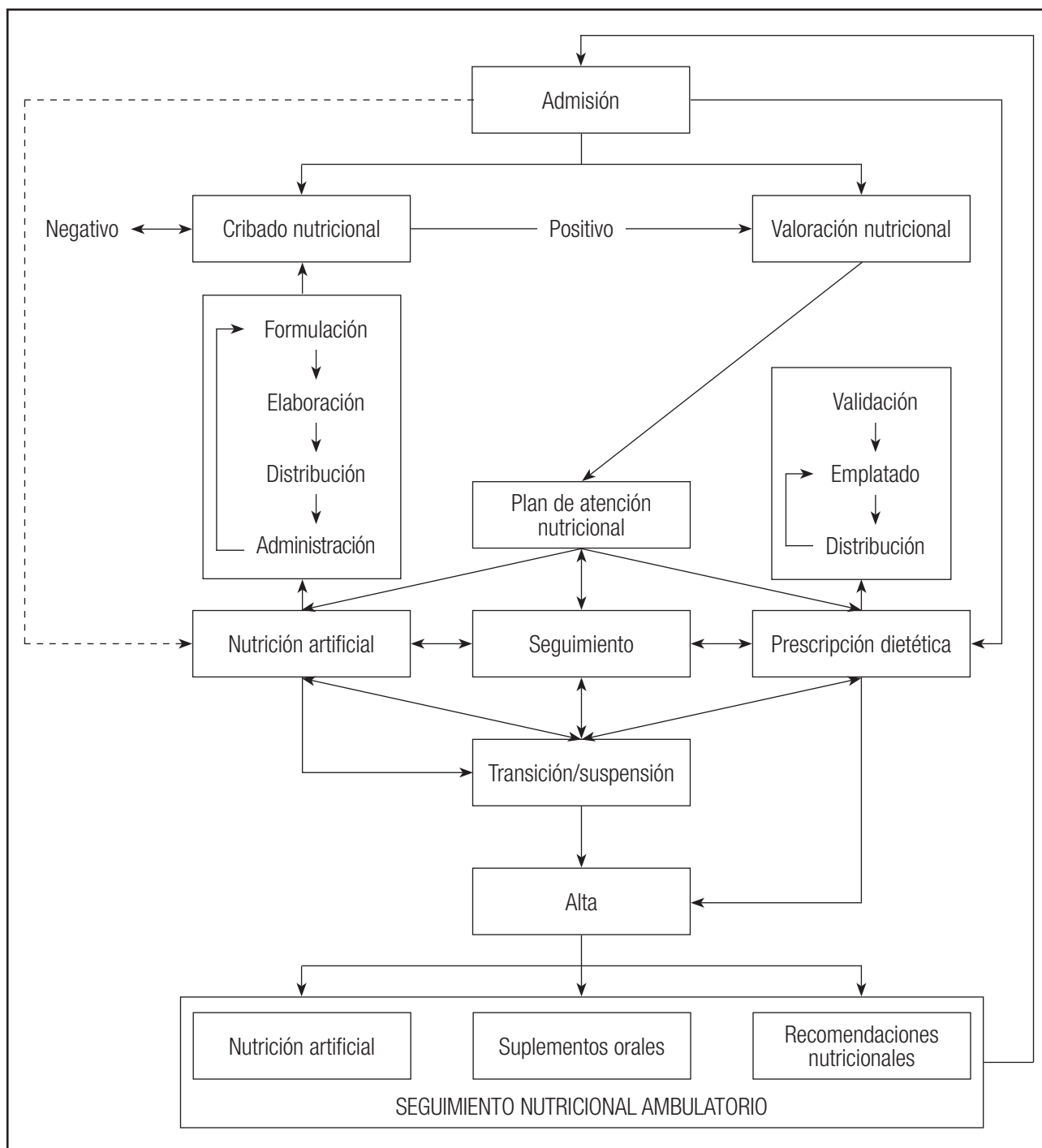


Figura 2.

Procesos de nutrición clínica.

ejemplo, por limitación del esfuerzo terapéutico). Todas estas situaciones requieren un seguimiento cuidadoso por los riesgos e implicaciones clínicas y éticas que pueden tener.

Tras el alta hospitalaria, en muchas ocasiones es suficiente con adaptar la dieta a los requerimientos en función de la patología de base y la necesidad de seguimiento a largo plazo

es baja. Sin embargo, en otros casos se requiere tratamiento nutricional a largo plazo, con nutrición parenteral, enteral o suplementos orales, además de modificaciones de la dieta. Estos casos precisarán seguimiento ambulatorio por personal especializado. Siempre existe, lógicamente, la posibilidad de reingreso.

SUBPROCESO 1: PRESCRIPCIÓN DE LA DIETA

Definición funcional: acto sanitario por el que se asigna a cada paciente una alimentación adecuada a su situación clínica y necesidades específicas, acorde con la organización de la restauración del centro.

- Propietario: responsable de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
- Proveedor: equipo asistencial a cargo del paciente.
- Entrada: selección de una dieta codificada para el paciente tras su admisión o modificación de la misma durante su hospitalización.
- Salida: recepción de la solicitud de la dieta prescrita en la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
- Destinatario: Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
- Participantes: personal asistencial a cargo de cada paciente.

CRITERIOS DE CALIDAD

Criterio de calidad 1.1

El centro puede ofrecer dietas que se adaptan a las necesidades de los pacientes.

- *Objetivo clave 1.1.a:* protocolización de la prescripción de la dieta.
 - Indicador: existencia de un códigoⁱ y un manualⁱⁱ de dietas actualizado a disposición de todo el personal asistencial del centro.
 - Estándar: sí.
 - Medición: cada tres años.
 - Fuente: documentación general del centro, intranet.

El código de dietasⁱ debe estar pensado para cubrir con facilidad las necesidades de la mayoría de pacientes ingresados. Por lo tanto, para su elaboración se tendrán en cuenta diversos aspectos, como las características asistenciales del centro (número de camas, especialidades que cubre y población de referencia), el tipo de servicio de hostelería (de gestión propia o externalizado, con sistema de producción frío, caliente o mixto) y sus recursos materiales, humanos y económicos. Se podrán contemplar diversas dietas basales (de adulto, pediátrica, geriátrica, vegetarianas o de consideración étnica) y terapéuticas (progresivas, con modificación de textura, con modificación en el aporte de energía o macronutrientes, restringidas en sodio, para alergias e intolerancias alimentarias, etc.).

En el manualⁱⁱ se presentan de forma estructurada las dietas del código. Su objetivo es facilitar la comunicación, el conocimiento y la comprensión de las dietas programadas en la institución por parte de los profesionales implicados en la alimentación del paciente. Deberá describir las características distintivas de cada dieta, su contenido en energía y macronutrientes, situaciones para las que está indicada y advertencias y recomendaciones de su uso.

- *Objetivo clave 1.1.b:* estrategias de prevención de riesgos en situaciones de alergias e intolerancias alimentarias.

- Indicador: existe un plan integral de actuaciónⁱⁱⁱ en caso de alergias e intolerancias alimentarias, dirigido a minimizar incidencias por este motivo.
- Estándar: sí.
- Medición: cada tres años.
- Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.

Estrategiasⁱⁱⁱ que se pueden contemplar: procedimiento documentado para comunicar la alergia a la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética, inclusión del contenido en alérgenos en la ficha técnica de los platos y disponible para los pacientes y el personal sanitario, indicación de platos que no contengan dichos alérgenos, protocolos de alergias e intolerancias alimentarias en el servicio de restauración hospitalaria, información dirigida al paciente para que recuerde comunicar las alergias o intolerancias que padece (manual de acogida, elementos pasivos de comunicación, etc.), documentación y seguimiento de las reacciones alérgicas confirmadas.

Criterio de calidad 1.2

El personal asistencial tiene conocimientos adecuados para hacer un uso correcto del manual y del código de dietas del centro.

- *Objetivo clave 1.2.a:* personal asistencial con conocimientos suficientes para una correcta prescripción dietética.
 - Indicador: existencia de iniciativas formativas y de información dirigidas al personal asistencial para mejorar su conocimiento del manual de dietas^{iv}.
 - Estándar: sí.
 - Medición: cada tres años.
 - Fuente: documentación de recursos humanos (área de formación).

Las iniciativas^{iv} que se pueden llevar a cabo son diversas: reuniones formativas con las unidades, incorporación al plan de acogida de nuevos trabajadores, métodos pasivos de información (carteles, folletos, intranet), etc.

- *Objetivo clave 1.2.b:* comprobación de la adecuación de conocimientos por parte del personal médico y de enfermería relacionado con la prescripción dietética.
 - Indicador: realización de un test de comprobación a todo el personal que recibe los cursos de formación para una adecuada prescripción y solicitud de las dietas.
 - Estándar: sí.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de recursos humanos (área de formación).

SUBPROCESO 2: VALIDACIÓN

Definición funcional: actuación mediante la que se comprueba la correcta petición de la dieta, con la posibilidad de adaptar los platos en función de información adicional que se aporte sobre

las necesidades de alimentación de cada paciente, lo que se traduce en información validada para su elaboración, emplatado y distribución.

- Propietario: responsable de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
- Proveedor: personal de Nutrición y Dietética que recibe la prescripción de la dieta.
- Entrada: recepción de la prescripción dietética (inicial o modificación de la dieta previa).
- Salida: emisión de una etiqueta con la dieta validada para cada paciente.
- Destinatario: Servicio de Hostelería.
- Participantes: personal de Nutrición y Dietética.

CRITERIOS DE CALIDAD

Criterio de calidad 2.1

Transmisión eficiente de la información contenida en la prescripción dietética.

- *Objetivo clave 2.1.a:* adecuación de las dietas validadas al código de dietas del centro.
 - Indicador: porcentaje de dietas no codificadas respecto al total de dietas^v.
 - Estándar: < 10%.
 - Medición: trimestral.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.

^vSe intenta detectar la prescripción incorrecta o confusa. Se excluyen del cómputo aquellos ajustes realizados para personalizar la dieta en pacientes susceptibles (por ejemplo, oncológicos, pediátricos, etc.). Las preferencias, aversiones, alergias e intolerancias no se contabilizan.

- *Objetivo clave 2.1.b:* la validación de la dieta la realiza personal con formación específica.
 - Indicador: existencia de personal específicamente cualificado^{vi} a cargo de la validación de todas las dietas que se sirven.
 - Estándar: 100%.
 - Medición: cada cuatro años.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética y de Recursos Humanos.

^{vi}Dietista-nutricionista o técnico en dietética.

SUBPROCESO 3: EMPLATADO

Definición funcional: método por el que se monta la bandeja de comida de cada paciente, verificándose que los platos incluidos coinciden con la información transmitida desde dietética.

- Propietario: responsable de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
- Proveedor: Servicio de Hostelería.

- Entrada: cinta de emplatado lista para comenzar el montaje de las bandejas.
- Salida: colocación de todas las bandejas en los carros de distribución.
- Destinatario: Servicio de Hostelería, equipo asistencial a cargo del paciente.
- Participantes: personal de Nutrición y Dietética y de Hostelería.

CRITERIOS DE CALIDAD

Criterio de calidad 3.1

El emplatado SE corresponde CON la prescripción dietética.

- *Objetivo clave 3.1.a:* las bandejas de comida que se sirven se corresponden con la dieta prescrita y validada por Nutrición y Dietética.
 - Indicador 1: porcentaje de bandejas de comida concordes con la prescripción respecto al total de servicios.
 - Estándar: > 95%.
 - Medición: trimestral.
 - Método: observación directa de una muestra aleatoria de servicios y comparación con la prescripción de cada uno.
 - Indicador 2: porcentaje de incidencias^{vii} en la cinta de emplatado con cambios en la dieta del paciente.
 - Estándar: < 5%.
 - Medición: trimestral.
 - Método: registro de incidencias de Hostelería y/o Nutrición y Dietética.

^{vii}Se refiere a cambios en la composición de las bandejas durante el proceso de emplatado que tienen lugar por motivos forzados, que pueden ser validados por Dietética, pero que la comida codificada y prevista para esa dieta.

Criterio de calidad 3.2

Seguridad de las comidas destinadas a los pacientes.

- *Objetivo clave 3.2.a:* las bandejas de comida que se sirven no contienen sustancias de riesgo (alérgenos especificados) para pacientes con alergias e intolerancias alimentarias.
 - Indicador: porcentaje de bandejas de comida libres de alimentos no permitidos en pacientes con alergias e intolerancias alimentarias.
 - Estándar: 100%.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Método: observación directa de las bandejas servidas a pacientes con alergias e intolerancias alimentarias en el día de referencia.
- *Objetivo clave 3.2.b:* control de incidencias en pacientes con alergias e intolerancias alimentarias.
 - Indicador: incidencias^{viii} relacionadas con alergias e intolerancias alimentarias conocidas, comunicadas a la Unidad de Dietética respecto al total de servicios anuales.

- Estándar: 0%.
- Medición: anual.
- Método: registro de incidencias de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
- *Objetivo clave 3.2.c:* control microbiológico de los alimentos destinados a pacientes.
 - Indicador: porcentaje de muestras positivas en los controles microbiológicos a alimentos.
 - Estándar: 0%.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Método: registro de resultados microbiológicos.
- *Objetivo clave 3.2.d:* control de incidencias microbiológicas.
 - Indicador: incidencias^{viii} por toxiinfección alimentaria por la alimentación hospitalaria respecto al total de servicios anuales.
 - Estándar: 0%.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Método: registro de incidencias de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.

^{viii}Estas incidencias deberán ser comunicadas a la Unidad de Calidad para la correspondiente evaluación de riesgos.

SUBPROCESO 4: DISTRIBUCIÓN Y RECOGIDA

Definición funcional: servicio de la bandeja de comida al paciente en las circunstancias apropiadas de tiempo, temperatura y presentación y retirada de las bandejas para su limpieza y desinfección.

- Propietario: responsable de Hostelería.
- Proveedor: Servicio de Hostelería.
- Entrada: momento en que los carros de distribución están listos para el reparto.
- Salida: regreso de los carros de distribución tras el servicio en las plantas de hospitalización.
- Destinatario: Servicio de Hostelería, equipo asistencial a cargo del paciente.
- Participantes: personal de distribución y enfermería de hospitalización.

CRITERIOS DE CALIDAD

Criterio de calidad 4.1

Presentación de los servicios de comida satisfactoria para el usuario.

- *Objetivo clave 4.1.a:* la valoración que hacen los usuarios respecto a la dieta es positiva.
 - Indicador: porcentaje de encuestas de satisfacción con la alimentación hospitalaria^x valoradas positivamente por los usuarios del total de encuestas contestadas.
 - Estándar: > 80%.
 - Medición: mínimo anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.

^{ix}Las encuestas de satisfacción explorarán de forma independiente aspectos claramente evaluables por parte del usuario, como la presentación, la temperatura, el sabor y la variedad de la dieta. Para una correcta interpretación de los resultados y un mejor aprovechamiento de la encuesta, se tendrá en cuenta el tipo de dieta que lleva cada paciente. En el momento de diseñar la encuesta se especificará el límite que define una valoración positiva de la dieta.

- *Objetivo clave 4.1.b:* llegada de los platos calientes al paciente a la temperatura adecuada.
 - Indicador: porcentaje de bandejas con todos sus platos calientes a la temperatura convenida^x respecto al total de servicios examinados.
 - Estándar: > 90%.
 - Medición: mínimo anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
 - Método: medición de temperatura directa de una selección aleatoria de platos calientes testigos en el día de referencia (por ejemplo, en una unidad de hospitalización).

^xSe precisa una temperatura superior a 65 °C para evitar contaminaciones.

- *Objetivo clave 4.1.c:* los usuarios tienen posibilidad de elegir los platos que van a comer.
 - Indicador: existencia de menú opcional al menos para la dieta basal.
 - Estándar: sí.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.

Criterio de calidad 4.2

Distribución de las comidas acorde con un horario establecido.

- *Objetivo clave 4.2.a:* llegada de los carros de distribución a las unidades de hospitalización dentro del horario estipulado.
 - Indicador: porcentaje de repartos dentro del horario estipulado^{xi} respecto al global de servicios del centro.
 - Estándar: > 90%.
 - Medición: mínimo anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
 - Método: observación directa.

^{xi}Se considerará un margen de flexibilidad de diez minutos antes o después de la hora estipulada.

SUBPROCESO 5: EVALUACIÓN DEL CUMPLIMIENTO DE LA INGESTA

Definición funcional: uso de métodos para la valoración de la ingesta de alimentos de la dieta por parte de los pacientes.

- Propietario: dirección de enfermería (área de hospitalización).
- Proveedor: equipo asistencial a cargo de paciente.
- Entrada: prescripción de alimentación oral.

- Salida: finalización de la prescripción dietética.
- Destinatario: equipo asistencial a cargo del paciente.
- Participantes: equipo de enfermería.

CRITERIOS DE CALIDAD

Criterio de calidad 5.1

Realización del control de ingestas.

- *Objetivo clave 5.1.a:* selección de un método validado de control de ingestas.
 - Indicador: selección de un sistema de control de ingestas^{xii} unificado para su uso en todo el centro.
 - Estándar: sí.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.

^{xii}Para la selección del método de registro se recomienda tener en cuenta la carga de trabajo que supone su uso así como la complejidad y utilidad de la información que pueda aportar. Los métodos semicuantitativos y con representaciones visuales de los platos son los más usados.

- *Objetivo clave 5.1.b:* formación para el correcto uso del método de control de ingestas por el personal responsable.
 - Indicador: existencia de un plan de formación e información para el uso adecuado del método de registro de ingestas.
 - Estándar: sí.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.

Criterio de calidad 5.2

Control de ingestas vinculado a un plan de cribado para la detección precoz de la desnutrición relacionada con la enfermedad.

- *Objetivo clave 5.2.a:* la realización del control de ingestas se hace en el contexto de un plan de cribado nutricional.
 - Indicador: existencia en el centro de un plan de cribado nutricional que incluye el control de ingestas como parte integrante del mismo.
 - Estándar: sí.
 - Medición: anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Comisión de Nutrición u organismo delegado por la dirección del centro para llevar a cabo el cribado nutricional.

Criterio de calidad 5.3

Plan de actuación en casos de pacientes con ingesta de alimentos insuficiente.

- *Objetivo clave 5.3.a:* disponer de un plan de actuación para llevar a cabo en pacientes con ingestas deficitarias.

- Indicador: plan de actuación^{xiii} para pacientes con ingestas escasas disponible para el personal asistencial del centro.
- Estándar: sí.
- Medición: anual.
- Fuente: documentación de la Comisión de Nutrición u organismo delegado por la dirección del centro para llevar a cabo el cribado nutricional.

^{xiii}El plan de actuación deberá incluir una definición clara de ingesta insuficiente, adaptada al método de recogida. Entre las actuaciones que se pueden llevar a cabo para mejorar la ingesta de nutrientes, se contemplarán medidas para la optimización de la dieta, un algoritmo para un uso juicioso de los suplementos nutricionales y la valoración directa por personal especializado.

Criterio de calidad 5.4

Adecuación y tiempo necesario para la ingesta por parte del paciente.

- *Objetivo clave 5.4.a:* los pacientes disponen del tiempo necesario para realizar la ingesta.
 - Indicador: porcentaje de pacientes con finalización de la ingesta dentro de un margen adecuado a sus necesidades.
 - Estándar: > 90%.
 - Medición: mínimo anual.
 - Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
 - Método: observación directa.

SUBPROCESO 6: FINALIZACIÓN DE LA ALIMENTACIÓN ORAL

Definición funcional: interrupción de la prescripción de la dieta hospitalaria por circunstancias clínicas o finalización del ingreso del paciente.

- Propietario: responsable de la Unidad de Dietética.
- Proveedor: equipo asistencial a cargo del paciente.
- Entrada: paciente con dieta oral que se toma la decisión de finalizar.
- Salida: situación de nutrición artificial total, alta o *exitus* del paciente.
- Destinatario: Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética.
- Participantes: personal asistencial a cargo de cada paciente.

Criterio de calidad 6.1

Recomendaciones nutricionales al alta hospitalaria.

- *Objetivo clave 6.1.a:* existencia de un catálogo de recomendaciones nutricionales para dar a los pacientes que lo precisen en el momento del alta hospitalaria.
- Indicador: catálogo de recomendaciones nutricionales actualizado y accesible para el personal asistencial del centro.

- Estándar: sí.
- Medición: cada 3-4 años.
- Fuente: documentación de la Unidad de Nutrición y Dietética, intranet.

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Nota Clínica

Brown bowel syndrome: a rare malnutrition-related complication of bariatric surgery *Síndrome del intestino marrón: una rara complicación relacionada con la desnutrición después de la cirugía bariátrica*

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Abstract

Key words:

Lipofuscin. Bariatric surgery. Obesity. Malnutrition. Biliopancreatic diversion.

Case report: we present the case of a 44-year-old male who presented with uncontrollable diarrhea, severe protein-calorie malnutrition and multiple vitamin deficiencies, along with peripheral neuropathy ten years after classic biliopancreatic diversion (BPD). He underwent nutritional support and had the surgery converted to a Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, with an uneventful outcome. The histopathology of the resected bowel revealed lipofuscinosis of the muscular layer compatible with brown bowel syndrome.

Discussion: brown bowel syndrome is a rare complication of malnutrition that can be observed after BPD. It is associated with vitamin E deficiency. After recovery with nutritional support, a reoperation that elongates the common channel, and thus minimizes the degree of malabsorption, should be indicated in these cases.

Resumen

Palabras clave:

Lipofusina. Cirugía bariátrica. Obesidad. Desnutrición. Desviación biliopancreática.

Caso clínico: presentamos el caso de un paciente varón de 44 años que presentó diarrea incontrolable, desnutrición proteica-calórica severa y deficiencias de múltiples vitaminas, junto con neuropatía periférica diez años después de derivación biliopancreática clásica (DBP). Se sometió a soporte nutricional y la cirugía se convirtió en un *bypass* gástrico en Y de Roux, con un resultado sin complicaciones. La histopatología del intestino reseccionado reveló una lipofuscinosis de la capa muscular compatible con el síndrome del intestino marrón.

Discusión: el síndrome de intestino marrón es una complicación rara de la desnutrición que se puede observar después de la DBP. Se asocia a deficiencia de vitamina E. Después de la recuperación con soporte nutricional, se debe indicar una reoperación que alargue el canal común y, por lo tanto, minimice el grado de malabsorción en estos casos.

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INTRODUCTION

Over recent years, overweight and obesity have reached epidemic proportions and bariatric surgery has become the gold-standard treatment option for refractory morbid obesity (1). There are several surgical modalities and techniques and also many variations within the major technical descriptions. Historically, the procedures have been classified according to their predominant mechanism of weight loss into three major groups: restrictive, i.e., procedures that lead to weight loss by means of restriction to food intake (e.g., gastric banding, sleeve gastrectomy, and vertical banded gastroplasty); malabsorption (e.g., jejunocolic and jejunoileal bypasses); and mixed (e.g., Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, mini-gastric bypass, and biliopancreatic diversions [BPDs]). Among the mixed procedures, some are more restrictive (Roux-en-Y and mini-gastric bypasses), whereas others produce more malabsorption (biliopancreatic diversions with or without duodenal switch) (2). Among the predominantly malabsorptive mixed procedures, the classic BPD, also known as Scopinaro operation, was firstly described in the late 1970s and has been performed worldwide since then, reaching more acceptance in some European countries. It is characterized by a distal gastrectomy along with a lengthy intestinal bypass, leaving an intestinal common channel where food and biliopancreatic secretions pass through together of about 50 cm in its classic design (3). In fact, although this technique is associated with significant weight loss and resolution of obesity-related comorbidities, it has been significantly associated with ominous nutritional complications, especially severe protein-calorie malnutrition, fat-soluble vitamin deficiencies and liver failure (4). According to the last report of the International Federation for Surgery of Obesity and Related Disorders, this technique accounts for less than 1% of all proceedings performed worldwide (1).

This study aims to describe a case of malnutrition-related brown bowel syndrome in an individual who underwent a classic BPD.

CASE REPORT

We present the case of a 44-year-old male who was referred to our Bariatric Surgery outpatient service by the Clinical Neurology Department due to a refractory peripheral neuropathy of complex B vitamin-deficiency pattern. He had undergone a classic biliopancreatic diversion ten years ago at another bariatric service and had not appropriately complied with multidisciplinary consultations since then. At surgery, his body mass index (BMI) was 59.8 kg/m² and he presented no comorbidities. He presented with significant complaints of asthenia along with paresthesia in both upper and lower limbs that began four months ago and progressed. He reported about nine bowel movements per day, with loose fetid stools. He also reported daily post-prandial episodes of vomiting with solid food residues. He never appropriately took vitamin supplementations following surgery. His current BMI was 23.1 kg/m². On physical examination, he presented with moderate cutaneous and mucous pallor, mild jaundice and severe edema in the lower

limbs. Laboratory examinations revealed severe hypoalbuminemia, significant macrocytic anemia, severe deficiencies of all fat-soluble vitamins and abnormalities of transaminases and bilirubin (Table I). A contrasted gastrointestinal radiography series revealed a large gastric remnant with solid food residues, along with a significant thickening of the small bowel folds; the contrast rapidly progressed into the colon 40 minutes after intake (Fig. 1). An upper endoscopy showed a large gastric remnant and solid food residues, without other abnormalities. Bone densitometry observed a significantly decreased bone mineral density, compatible with osteoporosis. Both parenteral and enteral nutrition supports were warranted, along with parenteral iron and vitamin supplementation, oral probiotics, and pancreatic enzyme reposition. After 14 days, there were significant biochemical and clinical improvements, with a resolution of the edema and amelioration of the asthenia and neurological symptoms, along with a decrease in the bowel habit to six movements per day. His BMI was 23.3 kg/m²; despite the improvement of the biochemical examinations, they were at borderline levels yet (Table I). A surgical intervention was then warranted, aiming at the conversion of the then current surgical technique to a less malabsorptive one, to favor the correction of the nutritional deficiencies and avoid a significant weight regain as well. At surgery, a classic BPD with a 150-cm alimentary limb and a 50-cm common channel was identified; the liver parenchyma was mildly hardened and the bowels were thickened. The BPD was dismantled by means of a conversion to Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, with a resection of part of the gastric remnant and anastomosis along with the re-arrangement of the intestinal limbs, leading to a 100-cm alimentary limb, a 100-cm biliopancreatic limb and a 450-cm common channel. There were no postoperative complications and the patient was discharged on postoperative day 05. A diffuse perisinusoidal liver fibrosis and severe lipofuscinosis of the muscular layers of the small bowel (brown bowel syndrome) were observed in the resected specimens (Fig. 2). The individual has been regularly followed-up for 24 months since then, presenting one bowel movement per day and a current BMI of 25.5 kg/m². The biochemical evaluations also reached normal levels (Table I).

DISCUSSION

Occurrences of severe protein-calorie malnutrition and deficiencies of fat-soluble vitamins following BPD have been extensively reported (5,6). The design of this procedure predominantly favors the fat malabsorption, since the biliopancreatic secretions flow along with the food for a short bowel length. Moreover, the bypass of significant portions of the foregut also impairs the absorption of iron and other nutrients. However, no case of brown bowel syndrome has been reported after BPD to date. A review of the literature was conducted through an online search for the MeSH terms "lipofuscin", "bariatric surgery" and "malnutrition" in MEDLINE (via PubMed) and LILACS (via BVS). Original studies were included that reported single cases or case series of this disease or correlated conditions. All the papers were checked according to their titles and abstracts (screening).

Table I. Evolution of biochemical examinations over the course of the reported case

	Admittance	Post-nutritional support	24 months post-reoperation
Hemogram	Hemoglobin: 9.8 Mean corpuscular volume: 120 fl (maximum normal value 100) White cell count: 2,400 Platelets: 90,000	Hemoglobin: 11.2 Mean corpuscular volume: 110 fl (maximum normal value 100) White cell count: 4,400 Platelets: 140,000	Hemoglobin: 13.4 Mean corpuscular volume: 85 fl (maximum normal value 100) White cell count: 6,200 Platelets: 160,000
Sodium (mg/dl)	138	137	140
Potassium (mg/dl)	4.0	4.1	4.0
Urea (mg/dl)	45	22	25
Creatinine (mg/dl)	1.2	0.8	0.8
Coagulogram	Prothrombin activity: 40%/RNI: 2.1 R: 1.9	Prothrombin activity: 98%/RNI: 1.0 R: 1.0	Prothrombin activity: 90%/RNI: 1.1 R: 1.0
Fasting glucose (mg/dl)	74	80	84
Triglycerides (mg/dl)	40	135	65
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	90	120	120
Ferritin (ng/ml) Normal: > 15	4	19	26
Serum iron (µg/dl) Normal: > 35	26	76	69
Aspartate transaminase (U/l) Normal: < 40	90	75	40
Alanine transaminase (U/l) Normal: < 40	95	78	43
Alkaline phosphatase (U/l)	80	82	80
Gama-glutamyl transferase (U/l) Normal: < 60	120	90	55
Bilirubins (mg/dl) Normal: < 1.2	3.0 (direct: 1.4/indirect: 1.6)	1.0 (direct: 0.4/indirect: 0.6)	0.9 (direct: 0.4/indirect: 0.5)
Vitamin E (mg/dl) Normal: 5-20	4	12	22
Vitamin D (ng/ml) Deficiency: < 20	8	18	29
Vitamin A (mg/l) Normal: 0.3-0.7	0.2	0.4	0.6
Vitamin K (ng/ml) Normal: 0.2-2.3	0.04	0.2	1.0
Vitamin B12 (pg/ml) Normal: 210-980	122	840	340
Vitamin B1 (µg/l) Normal: 28-85	10	28	50
Vitamin B6 (µg/l) Normal: 8.7-27.2	6.4	8.1	24.5
Zinc (µg/dl) Normal: 70-120	35	71	71
Ionic calcium (mmol/l) Normal: 1.05-1.3	0.8	1.18	1.3
Total proteins (g/dl)	4.0	6.1	7.1
Globulins (g/dl)	2.0	2.9	3.1
Albumin (g/dl)	2.0	3.2	4.0
Pre-albumin (g/dl) Normal: 20-40	5.0	13.0	21
Daily fecal fat (grams per 24 hours) Normal: < 6	28	12	6

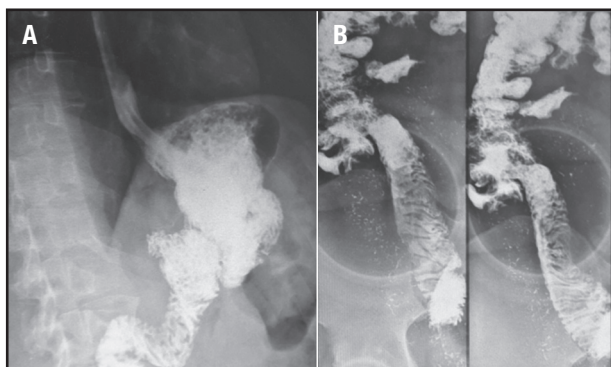


Figure 1.

Contrasted gastrointestinal radiography series. A. Large gastric remnant with solid food residues. B. Thickening of the small bowel folds.

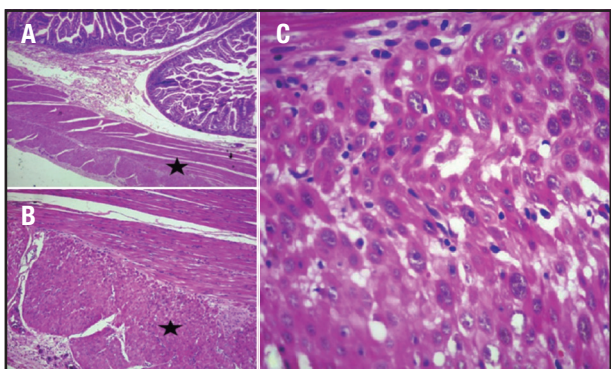


Figure 2.

Histopathological examination of the resected small bowel. The star indicates the *muscularis externa* layer. A. 40x. B. 100x. C. 400x: lipofuscin granules are visible in the upper extremity of the image.

Full papers were obtained from journals available on the Commission for Improvement of Higher Education Personnel (Comissão de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior – CAPES) Foundation (Ministry of Education, Brazil) website. Unavailable articles were requested from their authors. Articles presenting potentially relevant studies were read and analyzed to assess the inclusion criteria. Articles that consisted of *in vitro* or animal studies, articles in which the participants' characteristics did not match those mentioned above, poster session abstracts, review articles and other types of publications were excluded. Other papers were used for contextualization and discussion. After extensive online research, two studies were identified, both case reports. The first was reported by Evans et al. (7) and refers to a case of myometrial lipofuscinosis without confirmation of intestinal disease 21 years after a non-specified intestinal bypass. This patient presented improvement of the diarrhea and neurological symptoms after oral supplementation of vitamin E. The sole case of confirmed brown bowel syndrome observed following bariatric surgery was reported by Lee et al. (8) 26 years after a jejunoileal bypass, a procedure mostly performed during the 1970s and gradually abandoned since then, due to its ominous nutritional

issues and liver failure reports. The patient underwent a reversal of the intestinal bypass along with a sleeve gastrectomy to prevent significant weight regain. Besides the predominantly malabsorptive procedure, the current case has one characteristic in common with the previously reported case, as both patients did not comply with the multidisciplinary follow-up, which is one of the pinnacles for a satisfactory and uneventful course following bariatric surgery. Besides these bariatric surgery-related cases, there were only 27 scientific reports of brown bowel syndrome correlating malnutrition and this syndrome according to a systematic review published in 2014 (11).

The brown bowel syndrome is characterized by deposits of lipofuscin in both longitudinal and circular smooth muscle layers of the small bowel; it was first reported in 1963 and is characterized macroscopically by an orange-brown appearance (9). Lipofuscin is comprised of yellow-brown granules composed of lipid-containing residues of lysosomal digestion; it is considered as a signaling pigment associated with the aging process. It appears to be the product of the oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids and may be symptomatic of membrane damage, or damage to mitochondria and lysosomes (10).

The cause of intestinal lipofuscinosis has not been elucidated yet. It is usually thought to be caused by chronic vitamin E deficiency, which is the result of deficient enteral uptake of fat-soluble tocopherol in malabsorption syndromes such as celiac disease, short bowel syndrome, and malabsorptive surgeries. Advanced cases of brown bowel syndrome present several symptoms in addition to the signs of the underlying malabsorption disorder. They include general dystrophia, weight loss, protein deficiency edema, motility problems (e.g. vomiting, flatulence, and even pseudo-obstructions), liver cirrhosis and signs of vitamin deficiency such as severe osteoporosis, abdominal pain, diarrhea and steatorrhea (11). Another potentially harmful consequence of this syndrome that has been described is the occurrence of small bowel adenocarcinoma. The combined presence of brown bowel syndrome and small bowel adenocarcinoma has been described, although the interconnection between the two has not been clearly elucidated to date. Nonetheless, the role of vitamin E deficiency in small bowel carcinogenesis cannot be excluded and requires further study (12).

The term vitamin E is a collective name for all natural and synthetic tocol and tocotrienol derivative compounds, which qualitatively demonstrate the biological action of α -tocopherol. Tocopherol is the umbrella term for the entire class of mono-, di- and trimethyl tocotrienols. Long-term vitamin E supplementation is reportedly able to improve the malabsorption syndrome and may be accompanied by regression of the lipofuscin deposits among individuals with confirmed brown bowel syndrome (13).

For individuals who underwent malabsorptive surgeries, vitamin supplementation might not be sufficient on a long-term basis, since the absorption of fat-soluble vitamins would continue to be impaired. Moreover, in cases such as the one presently reported, abnormalities in liver function must also be seriously evaluated. Thus, the indication of a reoperative bariatric operation in these conditions should be considered. There are several possibilities of conversion or reversion of the current technique.

Usually, the predominantly adopted procedures in this context are the elongation of the common channel using the alimentary or biliopancreatic limbs or the conversion to a less malabsorptive procedure, such as the Roux-en-Y gastric bypass. The conversion to Roux-en-Y gastric bypass as described in this study is another possibility; it significantly alleviates the malabsorption and also avoids unsatisfactory weight regain (14). In extreme cases where the clinical conditions impose a rapid intervention, but do not permit complex procedures, a side-to-side anastomosis of the proximal biliopancreatic limb to the alimentary channel ("kissing X") is also a simple possibility (15). Ideally, the operation of choice should be carefully evaluated for each case in an individual basis, since there is no consensus in the current literature.

CONCLUSION

Brown bowel syndrome is a rare complication of malnutrition that can be observed after BPD. After recovery with nutritional support, a reoperation that elongates the common channel should be indicated in these cases.

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Carta al Editor

TAMIZACIÓN NUTRICIONAL EN PEDIATRÍA. CALIDAD DE LA EVIDENCIA

Sr. Editor:

En relación con el artículo publicado por Aponte-Borda y cols. (1), se presentan algunas inconsistencias en el diseño del estudio que pueden conducir a conclusiones con un alto sesgo sistemático. Primero, el uso de las herramientas SIGN (Scottish Intercollegiate Guidelines Network) como instrumentos para calificar la calidad de la evidencia puede ser correcto. Sin embargo, desde el año 2003 existe el formato QUADAS que posteriormente tuvo una actualización a QUADAS-2 (2), el cual fue diseñado para evaluar la calidad metodológica de las pruebas diagnósticas, que en este caso es el proceso de tamización nutricional para niños. En relación con este mismo punto, el sistema Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) también proporciona criterios para la evaluación de evidencia de estudios para pruebas diagnósticas (3), así como para la construcción de recomendaciones finales utilizadas en la elaboración de diferentes guías de práctica clínica basadas en la evidencia alrededor del mundo. Segundo, SIGN cuenta con una metodología para la clasificación de la calidad de la evidencia, sin embargo, los autores plantean una escala arbitraria y laxa que puede tener un alto riesgo de mala clasificación y así llevar a conclusiones erróneas sobre las herramientas de tamización nutricional más acertadas en niños. Tercero, debido a que no se realizó una clara definición de los tipos de estudios a incluir dentro de la revisión sistemática, impidió llevar a cabo análisis estadísticos (metaanálisis) de los resultados de los estudios de las pruebas diagnósticas a incluir. En esta misma vía, se evidencia que la mayoría de los estudios seleccionados no son estudios de

pruebas diagnósticas, los cuales proporcionan medidas apropiadas y ajustadas al objetivo del artículo como la sensibilidad, la especificidad y los valores predictivos positivos y negativos, entre otros.

Finalmente, Teixeira y cols. (4) plantearon una revisión sistemática con objetivos similares utilizando algunas de las metodologías previamente mencionadas. Como conclusión, se recomienda a los investigadores que utilizarán el diseño de revisiones sistemáticas para dar respuesta a preguntas clínicas utilizar metodologías de vanguardia que promuevan la construcción de conclusiones fiables y válidas.

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Carta al Editor

EL VALOR DE LA NUTRICIÓN CLÍNICA

Sr. Editor:

La Dra. Julia Álvarez nos deleitó en el pasado 33º Congreso de la Sociedad Española de Nutrición Clínica y Metabolismo (SENPE), celebrado en Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, con su magnífica 9.ª Lectura Jesús Culebras que lleva este título.

Del artículo correspondiente, publicado en *Nutrición Hospitalaria*, vol. 36, número 6 (2018), destacan los conceptos atribuidos a “valor” tanto del precio que se paga como de su utilidad en la terapia nutricional, la nutrieconomía o economía de la nutrición, considerada como nueva disciplina y coexistente con la farmacoconomía, el análisis económico en la toma de decisiones, el criterio coste-efectividad de la intervención nutricional y la creación de valor en Nutrición Clínica.

En el artículo se menciona que, según Warren Buffett, prestigioso empresario norteamericano, “el precio es lo que pagas y el valor, lo que recibes”. Pero el valor no es lo que recibes, sino la apreciación que se hace de ello y que, sin duda, viene condicionada por su utilidad real y su reconocimiento efectivo, tal y como afirma acertadamente la Dra. Álvarez.

Sin pretender entrar a fondo en el campo de la economía, hay que recordar que el precursor de los conceptos valor de cambio

y valor de uso fue Adam Smith en el siglo XVIII, al que siguieron David Ricardo y Carlos Marx en el siglo XIX. Para Smith, el valor de cambio consiste en el precio real de todos los bienes y servicios y el valor de uso, en la aptitud que tiene un objeto o servicio para satisfacer una necesidad determinada. Y añade que las cosas que tienen un gran valor de uso tienen a menudo muy poco valor de cambio, lo cual también sucede a la inversa.

El valor de cambio es el precio que se está dispuesto a pagar por un objeto o servicio y depende del trabajo, los materiales, el capital y otros elementos incorporados en su producción. El valor de uso acostumbra a ser una cosa subjetiva, en función de quién la recibe, aunque en Nutrición Clínica debería ser objeto de una evaluación objetiva mediante los análisis y criterios propuestos por la Dra. Álvarez. Desde el mundo de la medicina y de la nutrición, ella demuestra tener un sólido conocimiento económico, aplicado a su permanente labor de promoción y defensa de la Nutrición Clínica.

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Crítica de Libros

21 CONSEJOS NUTRICIONALES PARA VIVIR SANO

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Comentar el libro de un amigo siempre es una deferencia. Hacerlo del libro coordinado por uno de los editores adjuntos y por uno de los más fieles y constantes revisores de la revista que tengo el honor de dirigir, *Nutrición Hospitalaria*, un deber de justicia. Comentarlo por el interés de su contenido (consejos nutricionales para vivir sano), una oportunidad, y saber que los beneficios de su publicación se destinan en su totalidad a una obra social, una razón más.

Pero los lectores no buscan las motivaciones de quien hace la crítica y menos aún si le unen intereses comunes, lo que hoy se llama socarronamente conflicto de intereses, sino su contenido. ¿Por qué leerlo? ¿Qué quiere decirme? ¿Me va a ayudar a vivir sano, a vivir mejor?

Leyendo el título nos puede venir a la cabeza la idea de que estamos ante otro libro de autoayuda, en el que el encuentro con uno mismo y la búsqueda del equilibrio con la naturaleza constituirían la herramienta para arreglar la mayoría de nuestros problemas. No, no ese su objetivo. Me voy a permitir completar el título que los autores han dado al libro, "21 consejos nutricionales para vivir sano", con una frase entre paréntesis: 21 consejos nutricionales para vivir sano (cuando no te encuentras bien).

El libro (21 capítulos, 21 consejos) trata de responder con pautas concretas a los problemas relacionados con la nutrición y el metabolismo más frecuentes en nuestra sociedad. Y así, repasa desde la alimentación de la persona con anisakis a la de una mujer embarazada con diabetes gestacional. Habla de la dieta en

el celiaco, en el hipertenso y en aquel a quien no le sienta bien la lactosa o que tolera mal el exceso de fructosa, entre otros. Está pensado y escrito para que lo entiendan nuestros pacientes y sus familiares, aunque por su preparación cuidadosa sirva también para el profesional de la medicina, de la enfermería o de la dietética clínica, o para el que curse estudios de Grado.

Con buen criterio –"zapatero, a tus zapatos"–, los autores no cuestionan los diagnósticos ni especulan sobre el origen de síntomas o malestares, sino que, una vez que se tiene el diagnóstico y el problema, se centran en cómo la alimentación puede contribuir a aliviar, o a empeorar si no se cuida, los síntomas.

En mis años en contacto con la dietética hospitalaria siempre he pensado que los médicos prestamos, en general, poca atención a las dietas que solicitamos a nuestros pacientes y que no estaría de más que alguna vez nos pusieran en nuestro menú del comedor del hospital los mismos platos que en sus dietas especiales. Los autores de este libro huyen de una descripción teórica de consejos –tantas veces solo prohibiciones– y se bajan a la arena de confeccionar menús, ya no diarios, sino ¡para toda la semana! Un reto verdadero.

Conociendo el recorrido de los coordinadores y la asunción de retos, como es este libro, les animo a que lo completen con una futura publicación en la que esos menús se traduzcan en platos y en recetas.

En fin, lo que pretendía ser un resumen crítico del libro se parece más a un epílogo que a una crítica. Pero esta licencia no debe obviar el mensaje: este libro breve (167 páginas), de 21 capítulos –consejos–, puede ayudar a nuestros pacientes y nos puede ayudar a nosotros mismos, sin complicarnos la vida. Mensajes claros, consejos sencillos. Como con el mejor manjar, mejor es probarlo que que te lo cuenten.

José Manuel Moreno Villares
Director de Nutrición Hospitalaria